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ERRATA.

Page 18, col. ii., line 12 from bottom. For "thoughts" read "thought."

Page 19, col. i., line 19 from bottom. Read: "Particularly interesting is the association of melancholia with disturbance of the central area of the parietal lobe." (One line dropped out.)

Page 190, col. i., line 10 from bottom. Omit "last May," and for "J. S. Sumner" read "J. Sumner Smith."

Page 267, col. iii., line 4. For "niece" read "aunt."

Page 351, col. ii., line 23. For "'49" read "'47."

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The Nation.

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The Week.

President Roosevelt has shown that he had a clear conception of a particular type of man for head of the Treasury Department when he set out to find a successor for Secretary Gage. When Governor Crane of Massachusetts felt compelled to decline, the President turned to the Middle West, and sought a man who in two terms as Governor of Iowa had displayed similar traits and won like recognition throughout the country. Leslie M. Shaw came to the front in his State during the Presidential campaign of 1896. While many Republicans were inclined to "wabble" on the financial issue, and to dally with "bimetallism," he insisted upon preaching the gold standard. The people responded, as they always do to a man of convictions, and Mr. Shaw leaped into such prominence that he became the candidate of his party for the Governorship, a year later. No sooner was he installed in the Capitol than he began exerting his influence to secure reforms in the government of the State, and the first session of the Legislature under his leadership did such good work that it commanded the endorsement of even Democratic critics. The most important measure enacted was the Board of Control Law—a law which substituted for the many separate bodies of trustees and commissioners that had previously managed the various penal and charitable institutions, often in a lax and wasteful manner, one board of three members, who were to give all of their time to the work, and who could be held responsible for everything. The immediate result was a great saving in money and a large gain in efficiency, and each succeeding year has further vindicated the wisdom of the change. This reform illustrates the bent of the Governor's mind, and is a fair example of his work as a State Executive. The nation is now, for the first time, to have a Secretary of the Treasury who lives in a country town in the western part of a great agricultural State, lying beyond the Mississippi River.

There seems to be a hitch in the negotiations between our Government and that of Denmark respecting the purchase of the Danish Islands. The hitch is fortunate for both ourselves and the islanders. If we should buy them, we should lose the purchase-money, and add to our responsibilities and expenses for all future time. We should not attend to our responsibilities, or should attend to them only by fits and starts. The islanders have been close observers of our methods of dealing with colonies, and have not been favorably impressed. Their original desire for annexation has accordingly cooled. They find themselves much more attached to the mother country than they supposed they were. They do not want a change until they can better themselves. If we had treated Porto Rico as a part of the United States, and given her people citizenship and free trade at the outset, the temptation to the inhabitants of the Danish islands to come in would have been strong. But if they should come in now, by purchase or otherwise, nobody could predict what their future status would be. Neither we nor they could form any satisfactory judgment on that subject, any more than we can about the tariff on Cuban sugar or our future trade relations with the Philippines. The truth is that Uncle Sam does not know what to do with his new possessions. His position is aptly represented by the gyrations of his Supreme Court. Under such circumstances the fewer islands he attempts to govern the better will he be able to maintain his own dignity in the family of nations.

Already one Republican Senator is quoted as holding that the surrender of the Panama Company puts an entirely new aspect upon the whole question of an Isthmian canal. He maintains that there is no need of hurrying madly about the business, and that, if the French shareholders are now willing to sell their property at a reasonable price, it is the duty of the United States to look into the matter carefully, and not rashly commit itself to an inferior route, while at the same time squandering millions of dollars. Such sane opinions will be more numerous, we are convinced, when Congress comes to take up the canal bills. It cannot ignore the report of our own Commissioners, which so evidently favors the Panama location, provided the price were a fair one. The French stockholders will now come quickly to terms, unless they are crazy and wish to be ruined. The fair price is, therefore, almost certain to be forthcoming, and Congress cannot ignore the offer. The question is by no means "closed."

According to the *Sun's* Manila dispatches, there exists genuine friction between Gov. Taft and Gen. Chaffee over the situation in Luzon. The civilian, it seems, wishes to extend civil authority in every direction, while the soldier still sees the need of keeping up many small garrisons in the various provinces. A private letter from an able officer of the army, whose name has frequently been mentioned in reports and dispatches for his excellent work in the field, throws some light on the reasons for Gen. Chaffee's anxiety. "Southern Luzon," he says, "is still far from pacified. We do just as much 'hiking' as ever, and although the insurgents are not very aggressive, we expect them to show more activity about January 1, when the dry season begins. It is rumored now that Malvar has landed 5,000 new arms in the Camarines, and is prepared to give us a 'hot time' soon. Every fugitive from justice, every ne'er-do-weel has joined Malvar. I believe we shall ultimately have to adopt some system of reconcentration." Since the above letter was written, reconcentration, which means among other things warfare upon women and children, wherever tried, has been resorted to in Southern Luzon as well as in Samar. The writer also states that the natives fear the vengeance of their own people far more than the warfare of the Americans, and that the Filipinos who take the oath of allegiance continue to plot against their foreign oppressors.

The English protestants against the course of Great Britain in South Africa are in one respect in a much better situation than the Americans who are unalterably opposed to the Government's Philippine policy. Whether Parliament is in session or not, the English public is able to get more solid facts about the happenings in South Africa than the Americans obtain about the Philippines. The administration of the concentration camps, for instance, was greatly changed because of the publication, month after month, by the Government, of the official mortality statistics. So high did the death-rate become that the English people declined to permit matters to go on unaltered. Similarly, the English War Office publishes every month the total casualties since the beginning of the war, and includes not only those who have died at sea, but those whose deaths took place after their return home because of wounds or illness contracted in South Africa. The American War Department publishes just what it pleases, being subject to no such open cross-questioning as an English Under-Secretary meets in St. Stephen's. It has grown so niggardly that it will not allow Gen. Chaffee even to cable the deaths in his command, while complete tables of the American losses are never given out. As for the facts about military methods, and where the reconcentration is in force, and how many are the victims that it counts, the American citizen is simply referred to the daily press—that is, to the two correspondents of the great press associations in Manila. If they choose to suppress or overlook important news, why, the War Department is certainly not to blame!

The scheme for a Pan-American bank seems mainly designed as a sort of certificate of good municipal character. The first report read at Mexico recommended "that there be established in New York, San Francisco, New Orleans, Buenos Ayres, and other important commercial centres, a bank with branches in the principal cities of the American republics." Imagine the feelings of the inhabitants of places not fortunate enough to be mentioned in the resolution. At least one American city has had the spirit to rebel against such cavalier treatment. Chicago came forward in the person of an American delegate, to insist upon being added to the list of cities "having a claim" to one of the branches. Only the representatives of Bolivia and Ecuador were small enough to vote against this act of justice to Chicago, and their opposition was quite offset by the glowing tribute to her merits paid by a Chilian delegate—who, however, excused himself from voting. The conference will find the task of deciding between the claims of rival cities as difficult as the judgment of Paris, although, as the Pan-American Bank may never get beyond its present Platonic stage, the consequences will not be so disastrous.

The establishment of a chair of Chinese literature at Columbia constitutes no marked departure from tradition, since a university is by definition a place for the study of all branches of knowledge. But it appears from interviews with the founder, Gen. H. W. Carpentier, that the new professorship will have a practical as well as an academic function. It is clear that we are hereafter to be in closer trade relations with the Celestial Empire than in the past, and it is certainly desirable that those who represent this country in China should have not only some knowledge of things Chinese, but also a genuine respect for the Chinese mind and character. It is easy to see how, on the basis of this new foundation, there might be built up gradually a school of Eastern languages, at which not only scholars, but diplomatic and consular officials and representatives of commercial houses might fit themselves for their respective duties. A School of Living Oriental Languages at Paris fills this useful function, with no sacrifice of scholastic dignity. Educators will watch with interest the administration of Gen. Carpentier's far-sighted gift.

Why should the duty on works of art be continued, against the protest of all who are supposed to be benefited by it? For the artists, in whose behalf, presumably, the duty was reimposed in 1898, the noted painter John Alexander recently spoke before the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh, saying, "The true artist does not need protection, and does not want it." It has been made clear a thousand times that the tariff on works of art is actually to the artists' disadvantage, since it hinders the bringing over of great works of art the presence of which in the country would be most valuable to our artists. The Treasury could easily dispense with this duty. For the fiscal year ending June 30 last, the revenue from paintings and statuary amounted to less than $371,000, or about one-sixth of 1 per cent. of the total customs receipts for that year. What stands in the way of the reform is chiefly indifference. If representatives of the Art Societies would make it a point to see their respective Congressmen and Senators, this indifference might be broken, for it could be made plain that here no attack upon the protective principle and no attack upon the sacrosanct tariff lie concealed. Probably when the duties on objects of art were reimposed in the Dingley Bill, it was with the feeling that these are objects of luxury belonging to very wealthy people who can afford to pay for their luxuries. A little reasoning together of artists, collectors, and Congressmen should make it clear that this relegation of objects of art to the same category with champagne and cigars is unworthy of an enlightened nation.

Congressman McCleary of Minnesota has sent out a circular to some 2,400 presidents of national banks asking whether, in their judgment, it would be well to amend the national-bank act so as to permit national banks in the smaller places, where the clientèle of the banks is largely rural, to loan a portion of their resources on real-estate security. He does not express any opinion of his own on the subject, but merely seeks the opinions of bankers. He understands that strictly commercial banks should, so far as possible, keep their resources in the form of quick assets, leaving loans on real property to the savings banks and private lenders. "The larger cities," he says, "are provided with both kinds of banks, so that the people in such communities can secure in the appropriate place the kind of loans required; but in the smaller towns and villages these separate conveniences cannot be found. The bank, in the necessity of the situation, must perform both functions, and they all do so." As the national banking law does not allow loans on landed security, "the bank" to which Mr. McCleary here refers must be a State bank or private bank. Anything or anybody can be a bank in this free country, but a national bank that habitually lends money on mortgage can be and ought to be closed by the Comptroller of the Currency.

We see no objection to Mr. McCleary's circular, but we see very grave objections to any change in the national banking act in this particular. Lending money on real-estate security means long loans, and there is plenty of money to be had for long loans, but it is not commercial bank money. The latter is not composed chiefly of cash, but of credit. In order that the credit may be preserved, the assets of the bank must be within easy reach. They must be convertible into money within brief and definite periods. Loans on short time are only an aggravation to farmers. It is true that there are private money-lenders who put the word bank over their doors, and who do a mixed business, lending on both personal and real security. They take their risk, but they risk nothing that is not their own. The national bank that lends on farm lands or other real property risks the money of its shareholders and depositors and the reputation of the national banking system. All the reasons which decided Congress in 1864 to restrict loans to personal security are still in full force, and we can think of nothing in the whole system less likely to be changed. We apprehend that a clause permitting loans by national banks on real-estate security would profoundly modify the confidence of the business community in the system as a whole. It would certainly shake confidence in any particular bank that should avail itself of such permission.

It appears likely that the question of municipal ownership of street railways may be submitted to the voters at the next Chicago election. To obtain such a result, a petition signed by 104,000 voters is necessary, and of this number 50,000, it is reported, have already been secured. The movement is of special interest in the light of what has been done by the Street Railway Committee of the City Council. In recommending a plan for franchise extension, that body, three weeks ago, reported that "the immediate municipalization of the street railways of Chicago as a practical proposition, most persons will readily admit, is out of the question. The wisdom of such municipalization in the future is an open question." It is now believed that the effort to have the voters decide for or against municipal ownership is being urged by Mayor Harrison. Undoubtedly the whole franchise agitation has subjected him to heavy pressure. If the franchises should be extended without a plébiscite, advocates of municipal ownership would be inclined to grumble. Needless to say, the terms of the franchise grant will be severely criticised in any event. Whichever way the popular vote may go, it will relieve the Mayor of a burdensome responsibility. We do not think, however, that the voters of Chicago will approve the principle of municipalization. The verdict of the Committee is against it, and, as in-

vestigation shows, there is no sound reason for expecting much lower fares should it be adopted. The intelligence and good citizenship shown in the whole discussion of this question in Chicago are in pleasing contrast with the inertia of Philadelphia, at the time of the discreditable betrayal of the city's interests by Mayor Ashbridge.

Senator Daniel's resignation of his membership in the Virginia Constitutional Convention indicates that this body is approaching a crisis. Undoubtedly, the people of Virginia are thoroughly weary of the Convention and its protracted wrangles. During the past six months there has been little or no harmony among the members upon any of the proposed reforms. The fight over the judiciary question shows how bitter a contest may be provoked by even a minor issue. What is likely to happen when the report of the Suffrage Committee is received this month is accurately foreshadowed by Senator Daniel, who points out that the debates will prove a "political graveyard" to some of those who take part in them. The brunt of the suffrage battle will, in fact, rage about the so-called "understanding" clause. Both the majority and minority reports of the Committee would lengthen the voter's time of residence to two years in the State and one year in the county where his ballot is offered. Both would allow old soldiers to register, without distinction of the side on which they fought. Both would have substantially the same provisions regarding payment of certain taxes as a prerequisite to voting. The majority report would, however, erect a permanent board of registration in each magisterial district, armed with power to enforce a perpetual "understanding" clause, while the minority report would abolish this board after January 1, 1904. By that time, the moderates contend, the board would have been able to separate the sheep from the goats for the present. There will be strong opposition to the perpetual board, both from those who represent the poor whites and from an unexpectedly large number who favor more equitable treatment for the blacks. Senator Daniel's withdrawal may be the better part of valor, but it lacks dignity, as a certain form of prudence always does.

Two good men mutually misunderstanding each other and generally misunderstood—that is the painful spectacle which Mr. Perry Belmont and Mr. Croker present to the voters of the Seventh Congressional District. They appear to differ about the number of times that the candidate visited the boss at the Democratic Club, but this is really unimportant. Mr. Croker speaks, in his large way, about Mr. Belmont's having sought him out "a hundred times," and having, in fact, "nearly bothered me to death about his candidacy"; whereas Mr. Belmont confesses to only three visits, and those "at long intervals." The important thing, however, was the object the candidate had in calling. Croker says it was to secure his support; not so, says Mr. Belmont, it was solely to insure the boss's enmity, which he now proudly wears in his button-hole, and reckons to be worth many votes. Evidently, if Croker had known why Belmont came to see him, the little unpleasantness between the two would never have arisen; they would have continued the best of friends if it had only been clear that they were hob-nobbing in order to become enemies.

Ever since ex-Mayor Grant's Christmas gifts, amounting to $10,000, to Miss Flossie Croker were revealed to an unsympathetic world, a dozen years ago, the question of giving between political associates has been fairly open to discussion. As in the case of Mr. Grant in 1890, the fact that Mr. Belmont had made a Christmas gift to the son of a political supporter transpires under pressure from the enemy. Mr. Grant, however, was able to explain his gift gracefully by his godfatherly relation to Miss Flossie, while Mr. Belmont offers such an explanation and apology as have rarely been put forth in the Christmas-tide. He gave, he admits, an oil painting, by an artist whose name he fails to recall, to Mr. Edward Muller, the son of the Democratic leader of Richmond. But this painting, which Mr. Belmont's enemies believe to be of great price—*ignotum pro magnifico*—Mr. Belmont, who is a connoisseur, asserts is a thing of little worth. To be exact, it is worth $200; it is the kind of picture which a man might own, but the possession of which he could hardly value; it is very like a picture in Mr. Edward Muller's collection; in short it is just the kind of a picture that a candidate would be glad to give away in a friendly spirit to a political supporter. Such, in effect, is Mr. Belmont's explanation, which we gladly accept, acquitting him of any intention to win over the Richmond leader through the corrupting influences of art; but Mr. Belmont's not wholly graceful exit from the affair suggests that there is danger in departing from the conventional Christmas gifts prescribed by Tammany tradition.

The theory that the Monroe Doctrine will compel the United States to interfere with Germany in its efforts to collect a claim from Venezuela, is too ridiculous for the most earnest defenders of the Doctrine to maintain. The *Tribune* can always be depended upon to see that this "venerable and beneficent instrument," as it is affectionately styled, shall suffer no harm, and the *Tribune* flatly declares that Germany's conduct will not do it the slightest despite. Our contemporary points out that the Doctrine "is not and never was a charter of international libertinism," and that "it is not to be used as a screen for refractory and contumacious debtors." In short, it insists that the Doctrine has nothing to do with the case, as our Government understands that case. Under such conditions, an attempt to get up a war scare is as silly as it is unjustifiable.

Through a shrewd manœuvre of that canny Scott Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Lord Rosebery in his solitary furrow is in some danger of appearing ridiculous. In his widely heralded Chesterfield speech, Lord Rosebery emerged momentarily from his ivory tower, and reminded the Liberals that, whenever they might need a leader to bring them out of their present discomfiture, the leader would not, through Lord Rosebery's fault, at least, fail to appear. The present Liberal leader, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, simply and cruelly takes Lord Rosebery at his word. "Come back to our shattered forces," he says in effect; "and since you believe that our present leaders are unskilful or perverse, rally our forlorn hope yourself. Let the Liberals choose between you and me, and abide by the result." Of course, this invitation is less fair than it seems, for Campbell-Bannerman runs the Liberal machine. Yet the invitation quite strips Rosebery of all pretension to be a coming saviour of the Liberal party, and puts him either in the invidious position of a fisher, for his own profit, in troubled waters, or in the somewhat ridiculous attitude of a literary nobleman who, under cover of a great political meeting, has contrived merely to free his mind.

A Society for the Suppression of Alcoholism met recently in Breslau to consider the drink question in Germany. The Empire, it appears, spends $750,000,000 a year on drink, as against $3,000,000,000 for food. A Munich employer of many skilled workmen, in speaking last summer of the difficulties of competing with foreign and even North German concerns, laid stress upon the cheapness of Munich beer as one of his greatest handicaps. "If we were on equal terms in every other respect," he said, "the fact that my men's brains and bodies are sodden with beer, day and night, would put me behind in the race." So serious has the drawback of beer-drinking workingmen in Germany become, and so thoroughly is it recognized, that a movement has been started to exclude the drink from the factory premises.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SUBSIDIES.

Any candid man must admit that many causes tended to the commercial supremacy of England in the middle of the last century, and that this commercial supremacy involved the supremacy of her merchant marine. When steam first came in to draw the ends of the earth nearer together, England at once took advantage of the quickened mode of transit. She made mail contracts with the Cunard Line to Halifax and Boston; with the Peninsular and Oriental Company, first, to Gibraltar and later to Egypt, India, China, and Australia; and with the Royal Mail Packet Company to Spain, the Madeiras, the West Indies, and Colon, connecting at the latter place (via Panama) with the Pacific Steam Navigation Company to Valparaiso. But England did not acquire ships for the mere purpose of having them, nor, indeed, for the primary purpose of fostering shipbuilding. With England it was, in those early days, a case of paying for steam communication and mail service or going without it. Ocean steam navigation was then an experiment, and Great Britain's colonial relations made it a political necessity for her to try the experiment first. Her statesmen were forced to take the burden of risks which no private individual could prudently bear. Her supplies of coal and iron, her growing manufacturing interests, her imports of food and raw materials, and export of finished products, all contributed to the development of her merchant marine. The interests of the merchants of India, the manufacturers of Manchester, the colonists of Canada, as well as of the bankers of London, required that the British merchant marine should continue with the new motive power, steam, to be as powerful as it had been with sail.

What England's policy was earlier in the century, that has been the policy of Germany during the last twenty years. Germany has been every bit as envious as America of England's supremacy, and, like America, Germany has succeeded in obtaining a large share of the world's commerce. She has steadily followed in England's footsteps, has acquired colonies, built up her commerce, and developed her industries. But, in the matter of shipping, Germany has been wiser than America. Her motto has been that half a loaf is better than no bread; and if, at first, she could not build her own ships, she was willing to let England build them and hoist her own flag over them. Thus, the *Normannia*, which, not so long ago, held the record for speed across the Atlantic, and made the German flag known all over the United States, was built on the Clyde. Many other German ships have been and still are built in British yards. By pursuing this liberal policy, Germany has, after all, attained the very object for which America is striving—that is, the building up of her own yards; for the last two ocean greyhounds, the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* and the *Deutschland*, were both built on the Baltic, in the yards of the Vulcan Shipbuilding Company, at Stettin. The result of all this is that Germany's steam merchant marine to-day is second only to that of England.

The flourishing condition of the merchant marines of England and Germany is attributed by many people to the payments made by those countries for the transportation of mails, or as direct subsidies. These payments, in the case of England, amount to about $5,000,000 yearly, and are, with the exception of about $325,000 Admiralty subventions, for actual service rendered by the steamship companies as mail-carriers. The amounts paid, for instance, to the Cunard and White Star Lines for the British fiscal year 1901, according to official figures, were: For British mails to New York, $556,553; for Admiralty subventions, $142,403—*i. e.*, for a semi-weekly service, a total of $698,956, and an average for 104 voyages of $6,720.73 per voyage. The actual operating expenses of one of the large first-class steamers of these companies, for the round trip, are about $75,000. This leaves a balance of more than $68,000 to be earned in passage money (for the large transatlantic liners, it must be remembered, carry very little freight). Moreover, the travelling season, when the companies can count on every berth being sold out, is very short, and even then a steamer has a full passenger list only in one direction, for the tide of travel in the spring and summer is mostly eastward, and in the autumn westward. But the liner under mail contract must nevertheless maintain dates throughout the year, even in the dullest winter season, when passengers are few and rates are low. Thus these enforced winter trips consume a good deal of the profits of the summer, which would otherwise go to the credit of the steamer's account. On the other hand, a line not under a mail contract is free to cancel a date which does not promise to be lucrative, and take advantage of the dulness of trade to give steamers the necessary annual overhauling, or put them on a more lucrative route. A mail contract, then, is not an unmitigated blessing.

If subsidies were as beneficial as many assert they are, it would seem that subsidized lines should be more successful than unsubsidized ones; but in England the progress of the latter compares favorably with the progress of the former. The Bibby Line, unsubsidized, to Farther India, has successfully competed with the Peninsular and Oriental Company. In Germany, too, the Hamburg-American Line successfully competed with the North German Lloyd, for the first fifty years of its existence, without a cent of subsidy, and only recently entered into a mail contract, jointly with the North German Lloyd, to East Asia. The Hamburg-American Line's share of this contract, for the last business year, amounted to only $65,000. This amount, according to the published statement of the Director General of the line, Mr. Albert Ballin, left no profit, owing to the numerous requirements of the contract as to the high class of vessels, speed, itinerary, etc. Among other successful unsubsidized lines may be mentioned the Atlantic Transport Line (controlled by American capital, sailed under the British flag), the Leyland Line, lately acquired by American capital represented by Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, and the Holland-America Line. The last of these, according to the report of the Commissioner of Navigation, paid a dividend of 10 per cent. in the fiscal year 1899-00.

The countries mentioned, England and Germany, are those usually cited by the American advocates of subsidies. But the country in which subsidies have been paid most freely is France. Mr. Bates, in his 'American Marine,' says: "The shipping protection given by the Republic of France, being general, is the very best foreign example, if we need one." What is the example of France? Commencing in 1861 with subsidies of 9,300,000 francs, or $1,860,000, she has increased these payments from time to time, until the total, according to the French budget for 1901, is $9,000,000 for the current year (including bounties on construction and navigation and mail payments). For this vast sum of money France has now a steam merchant-marine of only 1,068,036 tons—not as large as that of America.

By the law of 1881, which lasted for ten years, France initiated a policy of bounties upon shipbuilding and also upon navigation in native and *in foreign bottoms*, in addition to the regular subventions for postal services. The immediate effect of this law was an increase in the number of ships sailing under the French flag, and a corresponding increase in the construction and navigation bounties paid out by the Government. In 1889 the total had reached $7,000,000 annually, and has remained at that figure, or higher, ever since. This increase in tonnage, however, did not mean a corresponding increase in French shipbuilding, for the French ship-owners seem to have been able to buy foreign ships to better advantage, despite the bounty the native shipbuilder received, and despite the fact that the navigation bounty for native-built ships was twice as much as that for foreign ones. Another noteworthy point is, that, as the term of expiration of this law approached, the ship-owners, uncertain whether the bounty would be continued, ceased increasing their fleet. They seemed, then, to regard the continued payment of the bounty as a *sine qua non* of the life of the French merchant-

marine. The most ardent advocates of subsidies in America have always avowed that the payments proposed were only a temporary measure.

By the law of 1893 France abolished the bounty on boats of foreign build, but at the same time increased the payments for construction and navigation of native bottoms, and also renewed the liberal postal contracts. Her steam tonnage then was 855,798; in 1901 it was 1,068,036. During these nine years the payments made under the law mentioned averaged $7,500,000 yearly. Almost coincident with the passage of this law was the American act of 1892, establishing the American Line. The subjoined table of figures since that date* may be interesting. It is compiled from the annual report of the United States Commissioner of Navigation, 1901, and Lloyd's Register. The tonnage given is *gross*, and includes steamers exceeding 100 tons. The tonnage for the United States includes lake and ocean steamers of the same capacity. The mail payments for the United States are for the carriage of mail by United States steamers *to foreign countries* only. (The steam tonnage of the United States registered for the foreign trade on June 30, 1901, was 429,722 tons.)

In the table below, the most interesting column is that referring to Sweden and Norway. This monarchy has a marine greater than that of France, but it pays only about $175,000 per annum for subsidies and mail contracts, and part of this amount goes to foreign vessels not included in the tonnage given. Sweden and Norway have neither the colonies of England, France, or Germany, nor the outlying territory of the United States; their commerce, compared with that of those countries, is small; but of the ships which entered Swedish and Norwegian ports in 1900 in the foreign trade, two-thirds were native bottoms.

To sum up, in the two examples most frequently cited by the advocates of subsidies—England and Germany—other causes, more effective than subsidies, were at work to build up the marines of those countries, viz., great natural advantages, native industry, foreign commerce, and liberal navigation laws. Moreover, the lines subsidized by those countries have not prospered to any greater extent, for reasons shown, than lines which were unsubsidized. In France, where heavy subsidies have been paid for forty years past, the merchant-marine has, for a long time, practically stood still. The monarchy of Sweden and Norway, which grants subsidies and mail contracts of only a trifling amount, owns a steam tonnage greater than that of France. In view of these facts, it does not seem that the examples of European countries may be taken as arguments in favor of a general subsidized merchant marine.

THE LOW ADMINISTRATION.

Mr. Low has practically completed the organization of the government which, under his direction, will conduct the affairs of this city during the next two years. Of his last eight appointees, three are representatives of the Citizens' Union, three are Democrats, and two are Republicans, and they are fully up to the standard of those previously selected. The non-partisan character which Mr. Low has given to his appointments from the beginning is thus maintained in these last selections. Of the thirty-one offices filled so far, fifteen have gone to Republicans, eleven to Democrats, and five to members of the Citizens' Union. Still more notable is the fact that only six of the fifteen Republicans are recognized as men closely affiliated with the local Republican machine. Three of Mr. Low's Democratic appointments are of men who voted against him. These facts should allay the fears of people who declined to vote for Mr. Low because, in their imaginations, he merely stood for Senator Platt.

Taking the selections as a whole, it is not too much to say that no municipal government has ever gone into office in this country composed of men of higher character. From the outset Mr. Low gave his word that merit and fitness should be the sole tests for his appointees, and he seems to have lived up to his pledge, even though he has met with a number of disappointments in the refusal of several "first choices" to sacrifice their personal interests in order to accept office. In saying this we do not mean to assert that Mr. Low's government is to be a perfect one. Since his selections are, after all, only human beings, many of whom have had little or no experience with the dangers and difficulties of important administrative offices, it is altogether likely that there will be plenty of mistakes made between January 1, 1902, and December 31, 1903. But the fact remains that Mr. Low has given the most reliable surety for the proper administration of the city government by choosing the best men that he could get, and men who are thoroughly in sympathy with the fundamental doctrine that the city is to be ruled in the interests of all its inhabitants, and not in those of its office-holders.

The guiding principle of Tammany Hall in filling offices was frequently, if not always, the idea of "taking care" of men who were unable to earn their own living in business or in the professions. So far as we are informed, there is not one of Mr. Low's selections who has failed to make an honorable place in the community for himself by his own efforts. The only man on the list who has held office frequently is Col. Partridge. He has earned this distinction, not by favor of a district leader or a boss, or as a result of party servility, but because he has made himself indispensable to the Executives of city or State who wished to have an honest and fearless department head, of experience and training.

In most of the administrations of the city during the last fifty years, special fitness for office has been altogether ignored. The scientist who, like Dr. Biggs of the bacteriological laboratory, retained his office under a Tammany administration, did so because no Tammany heeler wanted the "job," or because of other unusual circumstances. Mr. Low has never lost sight of the fact that special duties require special training. For Tenement-House Commissioner he selected the man with the broadest knowledge of tenement-house conditions. For Charities Commissioner he chose a man whose life work has been the problem of private and public charity. To the office of Police Commissioner he appointed a man who had been the head of the Police Department of a large portion of the city. As his Corporation Counsel he took a lawyer of wide reputation in his profession, who had helped to draw the very charter which he will be called upon to interpret. Where he was not able to find a man to head a department who had been trained in similar work, he selected

*	UNITED STATES.		FRANCE.		GERMANY.		GREAT BRITAIN AND COLONIES.		SWEDEN AND NORWAY.	
	Steam tonnage.	Mail pay'ts, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail pay'ts, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail payments, subsidies, etc	Steam tonnage.	Mail pay'ts, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail payments, subsidies, etc.
1893	630,646	$646 031	855,798		1,125,952		9,544.394		593,996	
1894	887,766	711,443	891,720		1,214,830		9,838,353		630,582	
1895	920,672	633,035	903,105		1,343,357	Average $1,500,000 for postal services; also special tariff and railroad rates on building material for ships; not computable.	10,238,001		679,929	Average $175,000 annually, including some payments to foreign vessels for postal services.
1896	1,005,459	1,027,735	930,785	Average $7,500,000 per year.	1,436,539		10,508,443	Average $5,000,000 annually.	773,667	
1897	1,103,423	1.280,063	954,916		1.549,961		10,799,446		857,193	
1898	1,175,762	1,038,141	972,617		1,644,337		11,168,189		947,172	
1899	1,236,308	998,111	997,235		1,946,732		11,719,247		1,117,984	
1900	1,454,966	1,269,660	1,052,193		2,159,919		12,149,090		1,183,233	
1901	1,704,156	1,250,000	1,068.036		2,417,410		12,739,180		1,261,355	

one of broad scientific training, such as implied his successful mastery of the problem assigned to him. Dr. Woodbury, the new Street-Cleaning Commissioner, is of this type, while Dr. Lederle, the Health Commissioner, illustrates Mr. Low's desire to promote a faithful subordinate official to the head of the department in which he has served.

Mr. Low's policy in these matters must commend itself to all concerned, and make any future return to the "Mike" Murphy, the Percy Nagle, and the John J. Scannell type of public officer seem even more monstrous and uncivilized than hitherto. So Mr. Low's frank taking of the public into his confidence as to the reasons for his appointments will make any return to the old method of "government under a blanket" more difficult than in the past. Tammany's administration of the Street-Cleaning Department, bad and corrupt as it has been, has still been more effective than the work of Col. Waring's predecessors. The Waring standard has not been without its effect even upon Tammany Hall.

There have been some doubts expressed whether a government like Mr. Low's, formed largely of specialists and of representatives of what are often called, for want of a more proper term, the "better classes," will not lose touch with the masses, and so bring about a relapse into the old barbaric Croker methods at the end of two years. To these fears the reply must be that the development of a modern municipality makes the services of specialists or of men of large affairs indispensable. The safest way of preventing a return to Tammany government is by giving an administration which is so indubitably honest and so sincerely devoted to the interests of the "plain people" that no citizen can have any doubt upon those points, whatever mistakes of judgment may be made. The failure of the Strong administration to inspire confidence in these respects was largely the cause of Tammany's success in 1897. The approval with which Mr. Low's appointments have been received by the various parties to the fusion movement, as well as their excellent character and his own high motives, afford ground for the belief that every honest citizen will recognize in 1903 the necessity for the continuance of government of this type.

PUBLICITY OF ACCOUNTS ABROAD.

President Roosevelt's recommendation of enforced publicity in the accounts of corporations, followed up as it was by the introduction of Representative Littlefield's bill to compass that end, gives pertinence to a survey of what other countries are doing in this way. Corporation law on the Continent has always been much more rigid and precise than in England or the United States. The German Corporations Act provides for securing an inquiry at the outset into the circumstances of the promotion of every incorporated company. One of the first duties of directors is to send out a formal report on this subject, and, in case any of the directors have had a hand in promoting the company, another report, prepared by independent auditors, must be issued. Capital stock must be fully paid in cash or in property at a fair value. The articles of incorporation must state the number and kind of shares to be issued, and no permission for subsequent "Increase of stock" is granted. Publicity is secured by minute provisions for stockholders' meetings and for regular reports to them.

French law is quite as explicit. It deals with the full payment of capital as a preliminary to business in nearly as rigid a way as the German law, and, if anything, it is more elaborate in its requirement of publicity. Not only does it contain regulations like those in the German law, but it furnishes a means for revision of the annual reports by the stockholders, and orders the publication of the articles of incorporation and by-laws in every locality where the concern operates. Corporations must furnish to the Government information about their transactions upon demand.

With such an enforcement of publicity and responsibility, organization under corporate form would, in any case, naturally have proceeded more slowly on the Continent than in the United States or England. The trouble there has not been owing to looseness in corporation law, so much as to difficulty in inducing the Trusts to assume corporate form. This difficulty has, however, been partly due to outside influences. An attitude towards Trusts entirely different from ours has been adopted by Continental governments. In Germany, for example, they have been officially recognized in certain ways, and have been assisted in maintaining their monopoly. This does not refer merely to protective tariff duties. The general policy of protection for all industries in need of assistance against outside competition has been coupled with a willingness to see internal competition destroyed. Thus, Prussia has practically recognized the existence of the Coal Trust, and has made agreements with it for supplying fuel to state railways. In a similar fashion, the Trust of locomotive manufacturers has dealt directly with the Government. In this latter instance the Trust is not merely recognized, but practically created, by the state. Public authority in Germany has, in fact, not only failed to hinder the Trust movement, but has favored it, seeming to see in it a legitimate extension of the protectionist policy.

This state of things has for some time been looked at askance by consumers, who now wish to know what the Trusts are doing, and to that end desire to see them subjected to corporation law. And, in spite of the already minute and extensive provisions of that law, there has been a growing demand throughout Europe for stricter control. The leaders of the German anti-Trust movement are particularly explicit. They ask that all Trusts or other commercial organizations shall furnish to the Government information concerning the nature of their operations, and that this shall be published, with data showing the effect of combinations upon prices and wages. They insist that all combinations shall be required to organize under the corporation law. And, finally, some even urge that monopolies shall be supervised by the state, their prices fixed, and their profits above a fair rate of interest taken from them by taxation.

That this latter demand is extreme, is apparent. It does not gain large support, even in Germany. Just how far conservative Continental opinion is willing to go in this matter of corporation control may, however, be seen in the "Actien regulation," issued by the Austrian Ministry of the Interior in 1899, for the control of all commercial corporations, exclusive of banks, insurance companies, and railways, which operate under special charter. Not only does this act revise the whole Austrian corporation law, but it is particularly clear in prescribing publicity and full payment of capital stock by means of assuring equitable dealing. According to the new order, the mode of paying capital stock—whether in cash or in property—must be specified in the articles of incorporation, and only in a certain limited number of cases may it be paid otherwise than in cash. When paid in property, such property can be accepted only at its fair market value. The stock may not be issued below par, and must be fully paid up *before* the company begins business. Directors are required to see that the necessary books are kept. At the close of each business year, there must be a statement of profit or loss. The principles upon which this balance-sheet is prepared must be specified in the by-laws of the corporation, and a full account of all assets and liabilities, according to value, must be made public. Property that has deteriorated since it was acquired is to be inventoried, and each piece valued at a proper discount. This report must be furnished to all stockholders each year by the directors. Furthermore, a reserve must be established, by laying aside annually 1-20 of the net profits of the company, in order to guard against losses. Finally, all information about the enterprise, its earnings, etc., is to be certified to the local authorities, and by them sent to the Ministry of the Interior.

It may be suspected that the tendency toward regulation of corporations is to

be found only in bureaucratic Germany or official-ridden Austria. Such, however, is not the case. The same movement is powerful in England, as is shown by the bill of 1897 to amend the Companies Acts. This measure contains many features which anticipate the Austrian order of 1899. It provides for a stockholders' annual balance-sheet, stating assets and liabilities at true valuations, and erects a system of audit for testing the accuracy of these reports. If the Austrian order corresponds to what Mr. James B. Dill calls "public publicity," the English bill of 1897 represents his "private publicity."

CLARENCE KING.

Clarence King, widely known during many years past as a geologist and mining expert of the highest distinction, died on Tuesday morning, December 24, at Phœnix, Arizona, whither he went to reside some months since, in the hope that he might there recover from an attack of consumption, or some related malady of the lungs, which, as he believed, he had contracted during a journey in the Klondike some time during the previous year. His body will be brought East for interment at Newport, R. I., his birthplace and family home, where his mother, Mrs. Florence King Howland, still lives to lament his loss.

King was born January 6, 1842, and had nearly completed his sixtieth year. He passed a part of his boyhood at school in Hartford, Conn., and studied later at the Sheffield Scientific School, at Yale, where he was graduated in 1862. He went to California in 1863, crossing the plains on horseback with an emigrant train, studying the geology of the country as he passed through it, and, by intelligent and scientific observation, developing the ideal conceptions which resulted, a few years later, in the geological exploration of that region by a Government expedition under his own direction. In California, King served for several years on the State Geological Survey, under Prof. J. D. Whitney, achieving distinction in various ways, notably in the high Sierra, where he climbed and measured the summits of greatest altitude, and gave the name of Mount Whitney to the highest peak of the range. His experiences of that period are recorded in his 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada,' a work of rare literary excellence and charm.

During the winter of 1866-67, Mr. King successfully accomplished the object of a long visit at Washington, in securing the organization of the United States Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, under his direction as geologist in charge, subject to the supervision of Major-Gen. A. A. Humphreys, at that time Chief of Engineers of the United States Army. This was a scientific work of great importance and practical value, requiring many years' service of a large corps of able assistants, the results of whose labors were published by the Engineer Bureau in a report comprising several large volumes with accompanying maps and illustrations, covering the topography, geology, and natural history of a cross-section of the country lying along the fortieth parallel of latitude, and reaching from the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains to the western slope of the Sierra Nevada.

One very notable and highly sensational result of Mr. King's work on the fortieth-parallel exploration, and one which gave him much fame both in this country and elsewhere, was his startling discovery of the great swindle in the "salted" diamond fields of Wyoming, late in 1872. Early in that year it had been noised abroad that a great find of diamonds and other precious stones had been discovered somewhere in the far West, presumably in Arizona, although the precise locality was most carefully concealed. A large number of the gems, unquestionably of considerable value, had been carried from the alleged fields to San Francisco and New York, where the most influential capitalists, who had been led to believe the favorable reports thus far presented, had invested large sums of money in the purchase of the ground said to be diamond-bearing, and were preparing for the intended operation of the so-called mines on a large scale, which would soon have caused a rush of fortune-hunters and adventurers comparable to the California immigration in '49 and '50. Through information gained by one of his assistants, it suddenly came to Mr. King's knowledge that the locality of the alleged diamond find was not in Arizona, but in Wyoming, and really within the region of his own field work of the fortieth-parallel survey. Not then suspecting a fraud, but, on the contrary, having good reason to regard as trustworthy the favorable reports of one or more well-known engineers who, shortly before, had visited the fields with the leading promoters of the enterprise, Mr. King hastened to the designated locality, not with the expectation of unearthing a swindle, but for the purpose of studying the new diamond field, and making his official report on what then seemed to be a discovery of great national importance.

He set out promptly with two or three assistants, and duly reached his destination, following the trail without difficulty from a station of the Union Pacific Railroad in Wyoming. He soon found diamonds and rubies in abundance, but his suspicions were quickly aroused by the observation that the plainly visible precious stones lay directly upon the hard surface of rock, where Nature alone could never have placed or left them, and that none could be found in the earth or on the underlying bedrock, where, had the occurrence been genuine, the inevitable laws of Nature must have carried them; with the further observation that the ant-hills, built of small pebbles mined by the ants, which were found to bear rubies on their surfaces or in holes (artificially made with a small stick), invariably showed in close proximity the storm-worn footprints of mankind, while the other ant-hills, without such sign of human tracks, and not pierced by any artificial holes, were also without rubies or precious stones of any sort. Thorough investigation, following the lines indicated by these suspicions, soon proved beyond any doubt that some designing hand had "salted" the ground with deliberate fraudulent intent.

This disclosure created a great sensation in this country and in Europe, whence evidence was soon forthcoming that the stones used in the salting had been bought in large quantities at London and Paris during the preceding winter, presumably by the originators of the swindle. The practical result of Mr. King's disclosure of the facts in this case was one of inestimable value, possibly more in money than the whole cost of the entire exploration of the fortieth-parallel expedition. Had the fraud remained undisclosed till the following spring, large sums of money would have been wasted in the costly purchase of worthless property and in fruitless prospecting, not only by capitalists, but by thousands of disappointed and ruined fortune-seekers.

The leading and most active, even though wholly innocent, promoter of the diamond-mining enterprise, by no means necessarily a participant in the original swindle or cognizant of the fraud until disclosed by King, was a very well-known native Californian, one of the earliest gold-seekers, and a lifelong projector and operator of mining schemes, whose name has ever since been more or less intimately associated with this celebrated case of diamond-salting. It is a notably curious coincidence that these two men—Roberts, who helped blow the bubble, and King, who caused it to vanish—should depart this life on the same day and at nearly the same time, twenty-nine years after the events in which they were thus concerned and so strangely related. Within two or three hours after King's death in Arizona, Roberts died in New York city. Their names and their death announcements, with obituary notices, stand closely side by side in parallel and adjoining columns of the *Times* newspaper of Wednesday, Christmas morning.

After the completion of his work on the fortieth-parallel exploration, Mr. King undertook the organization of the United States Geological Survey, as now existing, and became its first director, remaining in this service several years, after which he resigned, in order to give needed attention to various enterprises in which he had become interested or professionally engaged. Since that time he had followed his profession more or less closely until disabled by his last illness, mainly in the directing of large mining or other business enterprises in the Western and Southwestern States and Mexico, and also as skilled adviser in the practical applications of scientific knowledge, having in later years been much engaged as expert in very important mining litigations. Meantime, he also devoted much time and effort to purely scientific research and study, and made some very important contributions to knowledge and to the current literature of the period, especially in the field of physical geology.

Although Mr. King gained his highest distinction in scientific pursuits, he would undoubtedly have achieved great eminence in any other vocation which he might have chosen. He possessed marvellous intellectual versatility, and seemed to be endowed with the gift of genius, especially in the æsthetic faculty. In all matters of taste and beauty his perceptions were clear and fine, and his judgment was just. He excelled especially as a critic, both in art and in literature, possessing a brilliant mind, quick in intelligent apprehension, with a sparkling wit always bubbling over, great facility in thought, and rare felicity in expression. In conversation, whether grave or gay, he was a delightful companion. He was a man of charming personal-

ity, of noble and gentle spirit, a most kind, generous, and constant friend, whose loss will be lamented by many of all sorts and conditions of men, both in the very highest and the very humblest walks of life, as of one upon whose like they may never look again. J. D. H.

M. BERTHELOT.

ITHACA, December 23, 1901.

Visitors to Paris who have frequented the Latin Quarter must often have met, somewhere on the way between the Institute and the Collège de France, a little bent old man, with one shoulder higher than the other, wearing a long, black coat, no longer new, hanging loosely about his slender figure. With short, quick steps he makes his way along the narrow sidewalks of the Rue Mazarine and the Rue de l'École de Médecine, elbowed by passers-by who do not even turn to look at him, and who take him, no doubt, for some ancient clerk hurrying to his office. In reality, this ancient clerk is a professor going to his lecture-room. The little shabbily dressed old man, with the gently meditative expression and the acute, ironic glance, is beyond question the greatest living French scientist—a professor in the Collège de France, a member of the Academy of Sciences, the Academy of Medicine, and of the French Academy, a member for life of the Senate, an ex-Minister, and a member of almost all the learned societies of Europe—Marcellin Berthelot.

A few weeks ago Berthelot's disciples and admirers assembled in the huge amphitheatre of the Sorbonne to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the great chemist's entrance upon his scientific career. It was on May 27, 1850, that M. Berthelot presented to the Academy of Sciences his first memoir, upon the liquefaction of gases; and it was on February 23, 1851, that he was appointed to his first academic position, that of Assistant in Chemistry at the Collège de France. Since that time he has, without interruption, published memoirs and delivered courses of lectures, and may be said to have reconstituted the science of chemistry in France. The audience at the Sorbonne was of the same nature as that which, nine years ago in the same place, acclaimed and honored Pasteur. The President of the Republic presided, assisted by the entire Cabinet, by representatives of all the departments of the Government, and by delegates from the learned societies of France and of foreign nations. Addresses were delivered by M. Leygues, the Minister of Public Instruction; by Messrs. Darboux, Moissan, and Fouqué, representing the Academy of Sciences; by M. Gaston Paris, the Director of the Collège de France; by Dr. Guyon, the delegate from the Academy of Medicine; and, finally, by M. Berthelot himself. Professor Fischer read an address on behalf of the Royal Academy of Prussia; Professor Ramsay, the discoverer of argon, spoke for the Royal Society; and Professor Lieben for the Imperial Academy of Vienna. At the close of the celebration President Loubet presented M. Berthelot with a commemorative medal, designed by Chaplain, representing the scientist in his laboratory, seated in a familiar attitude at his desk. Behind him stand two female figures, the one holding a flag and a laurel, the other a mirror. Their names are given in the motto inscribed beneath, "Pour la Patrie et la Vérité.'"

Berthelot is a remarkable type of modern scientist. He has pursued scientific researches with distinction, and has still found time to indulge in the speculations of philosophy and to discharge the duties of citizenship and of public life. His principal work has been in chemistry. In the space of fifty years he has submitted to the Academy of Sciences more than 600 memoirs, besides publishing treatises on organic chemistry, on chemical mechanics, on agricultural chemistry, and works on the philosophy of science and on the history of alchemy. He has thus treated a wide range of subjects, and, thanks to the richness of his intellectual resources and to his prodigious capacity for work, he has left his mark upon every branch of chemistry. "You are one of the last encyclopædists of our science," declared his disciple, M. Moissan, in his address at the celebration.

Nevertheless, by reason of two epoch-making discoveries, M. Berthelot's reputation as a chemist is especially associated with two subjects. The one is the synthesis of organic compounds; the other is thermochemistry. At a time when all scientists agreed with Lavoisier that chemistry was purely an analytical science—that it could decompose into elements, but not reconstruct—Berthelot was one of the first to demonstrate that chemistry could also perform syntheses. In 1862 he announced the discovery that acetylene could be formed from its elements, carbon and hydrogen, by the agency of the electric arc. To the statement of Lavoisier, "The process of chemistry is to divide, subdivide, and resubdivide," Berthelot replied with the declaration, "Chemistry creates its object. It can restore what it has destroyed. Synthesis extends its conquests from the elements to the most complicated substances, without possibility of assigning a definite limit." Berthelot created a whole series of substances previously unknown, and reproduced artificially fruit acids, perfumes, fats, and dyes. Commerce owes to him the elaboration of new dye-stuffs, and medicine a host of new drugs. The second great conception attached to his name is that of thermochemistry, which he created and then developed during a period of thirty-five years. He showed that chemical combinations are ruled by a constant law, which may be thus expressed: "Of several possible reactions, the one which occurs is that which disengages the greatest amount of heat." Berthelot's discoveries in thermochemistry led him to investigations in explosives. During the war of 1870 he placed his chemical knowledge at the service of his country, and later the continuation of his researches carried on by Vieille led to the invention of smokeless powder. But only a professional chemist could enumerate all his contributions to agricultural and industrial chemistry. "With Pasteur," said Jules Lemaître, in his address welcoming him into the Academy, "you have been of all men in the nineteenth century perhaps the most useful to your fellow-beings."

Berthelot, indeed, has never separated scientific theory from practical results in the direction of material benefit and intellectual and social emancipation. A few years ago, when Brunetière, in one of those oratorical formulas of which he has the secret, spoke of "the bankruptcy of science," it was to Berthelot that the free-thinkers and the thorough-going democrats instinctively turned for an example and a response to the sophisms of the reactionary writer. Berthelot believes in science as he believes in reason and in the indefinite progress of humanity. In this he is the heir of the Encyclopædists of the eighteenth century, whose universal intelligence and generous optimism he shares. He holds that science has introduced into the world a new principle, destined to serve as the base of society. "This principle," he has written, "proclaimed a century ago by the French Revolution in the name of justice and reason, becomes every year more evident and more cogent; it sweeps aside the doctrine of divine right, borrowed from the mysticism of the Church, the hereditary pretensions of the old aristocracies, and the insolent claims of the plutocracies of to-day." But the positivism of M. Berthelot has nothing of the fanatic violence of the French radicals who claim him as one of themselves. In this respect he shows the influence of Renan, his friend and confidant for fifty years. The two met at the age of twenty, just after Renan had left the Seminary of St. Sulpice. They at once detected their intellectual brotherhood, and thereafter continued to live in entire communion despite the divergence of their studies. Some of Renan's most characteristic views in philosophy and science are expressed in his numerous letters to Berthelot.

On one occasion Berthelot said of himself, "From the very beginning I have been devoted to the cult of pure science. I have never entered into the conflict of practical interests which divide man and man. I have lived in my laboratory, surrounded only by a few pupils, who have been at the same time my friends." In this statement he was far from doing himself justice. In fact, of all French scientists, Berthelot is the one who has participated the most in public affairs. During the war of 1870 he manufactured dynamite, and attempted to set up electrical communication between Paris and the provinces by means of the frozen surface of the Seine; in the attempt to blow up the Prussian battery at Châtillon he descended into the mines at Clamart, risking his life like the most obscure volunteer. Later, upon the foundation of the republic, he was called to the Senate, where he took his seat with the Advanced Left, voting with the Radicals, and taking part in all the debates, in which his position as scientist and educator gave his voice authority. In 1886 he became Minister of Public Instruction in the Goblet Ministry. Still later, when M. Bourgeois found no diplomat willing to act as Minister of Foreign Affairs in his cabinet of Radicals, he turned to Berthelot. It must be added that the great chemist hardly distinguished himself in this unwonted capacity; fortunately for France, the Ministry lasted only a short time.

At present M. Berthelot is seventy-six. The hostility aroused in certain quarters by his militant rationalism and his radical politics has gradually subsided. At one time he was reproached with fondness for public notice and with too great a desire for emolument and place—he who never took out a patent on discoveries which have

brought in millions to others. A scoffing journalist once even proposed for him the epitaph, "Here lies Berthelot, in the only place that he never solicited." The French Academy, to which he was elected last year, refused him, seven years ago, the seat of Renan, to which he had so strong a claim. Latterly, however, he has lived in a more peaceful atmosphere. His life is now tranquil and happy; his name is honored. His time is divided between his researches in the laboratory, his lectures at the Collège de France, his duties as Academician, and his family life. His numerous children all show something of their father's tastes. His two daughters have married scientists, and his four sons have entered scientific, literary, or political life. His reputation and his personality are no longer the subject of contention. He has succeeded, in the grateful admiration of France, to the place held by Pasteur; and the other day, at the celebration which crowned his scientific career, M. Leygues could say without exaggeration that his place was already fixed, "in the serene peace of history and immortality."

OTHON GUERLAC.

REVIEW OF ITALIAN FICTION.

ALASSIO, December, 1901.

Of two of the principal among recent Italian novels, Fogazzaro's 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' and 'Il Fuoco' of Gabriele D'Annunzio, we can have nothing to say here; the former has already been separately treated in these pages, and the *succès de scandale* of the latter was long ago a stench in delicate nostrils. There are two writers, whose achievements we have always been glad to chronicle, who this year furnish us nothing. For the last two or three years the *Nuova Antologia* has promised as of imminent publication 'La Duchessa di Leyra' by Verga, the first chapter of which has, however, not yet appeared; while Federico De Roberto has given himself entirely to psychology and literary criticism. *Noblesse oblige*, and the author of "I Vicerè' should not neglect the fields where he is inimitable for those where many another is as good as he.

Our French brethren say that no man is necessary, and it is true that, no matter who may disappear, the crop of novels does not fail. Among the veterans of literature there are two who have produced works that cannot be overlooked. Matilde Serao is almost at her very best in 'Suor Giovanna della Croce,' the story, simple, but deeply pathetic, of a nun thrown with needless brutality upon the world by the suppression of the convents, and sinking gradually into the most abject misery. The book is not so much a connected story as a series of pictures, and these are more than once open to the objection that the setting is finished at the expense of the main figure; but none the less the impression made is strong and lasting. It is perhaps a pity that the subject should be one about which party rage blinds so many on both sides; but it is also fortunate that the ordinary reader is a human being before he is a partisan.

This year, too, Luigi Capuana has made good his reputation of being one of the best among Italian novelists. His short stories, 'Le Paesane' and 'Nuove Paesane,' for instance, were always sufficient to justify the consideration in which he is held; but some of the longer works, and, in particular, one which has been counted his masterpiece, 'Giacinta,' while possessing undeniable qualities, has seemed to us too rank a flower of the Zola hot-house to be pleasing to an unheated judgment. But 'Il Marchese di Roccaverdina' is of quite another and higher order. It is a powerful and convincing story of the Nemesis that pursues the murderer. The scene is laid in a town of southeastern Sicily, and the protagonist is a *marchese contadino*—a sort of Italian equivalent of the typical British squire of a century ago, or the French *hobereau*, only less boisterous than the former and without the suggestion of caricature that attaches to the latter. The story of his crime and its punishment is told with the greatest sobriety of manner, with commendable reserve in descriptions, and without abuse of what is called psychology. And yet the style is of admirable finish, the descriptions are vivid, and we are in the secret of the moving springs of the figure whose action we watch from end to end with unflagging interest. The poet Panzacchi has revealed to us the care with which Signor Capuana polishes each sentence, but there is here no evidence of labor; the touch seems always light, sure, and spontaneous. This has always been characteristic of the author's short stories, and is still in the latest collection, published under the title of 'Il Benefattore.'

We had formerly occasion to remark on the incredible corruption of the clergy, as represented in Carlo Del Balzo's 'Gente di Chiesa.' It recalled the 'Pot-Bouille' of Zola. We could not believe that the shepherds of the flock were, one and all, so much blacker than the blackest of their sheep, but we lacked the key to the mystery. The author's new novel, 'Le Ostriche,' a story of political life in the Italian Parliament, has, however, made everything clear. Sig. Del Balzo is a Deputy who sits on the extreme left of the Chamber, and it is simply his *métier* to represent the Church as a putrefying mass in a world that has great need of being made over by reformers of his way of thinking. This time he has fallen foul of Crispi and the bank scandals. We should not wish to imply that Sig. Del Balzo is altogether wrong in his views; but what his novels gain in intensity of coloring from the heat and force of his convictions, they lose as works of art. Still, in spite of bad construction, of clumsiness, and ingenuousness, they are readable, even to those who cannot see things as does a Deputy of the Left. They are clever; but, after all, they scarcely belong to literature.

Sig. Ugo Ojetti is a good critic of art, and a newspaper correspondent of unusual culture and gifts of expression. He knows so much, and can do well so many things, that it may be permitted to wish that he would abstain from writing novels. 'Il Vecchio,' to which we formerly called attention, was but a dismal performance, and the present one, 'Il Giuoco dell' Amore,' is even worse, though more pleasantly written. The experienced novel-reader will find in the preface one of those apologies that reveal just what he is to expect. It is here said that the book "will be called, and perhaps even also thought, frivolous, skeptical, and useless." After that he knows that it will shock some readers, and disgust others. In this case, the writer does not—to give the devil his due—pretend that he has a purpose so lofty as to excuse the unpleasantnesses by the way. In truth, the mouth is simply speaking out of the abundance of the heart. We scarcely know how to characterize the story, unless indirectly. In a series of letters written from America to the *Corriere della Sera*, and since then published in book form, Sig. Ojetti describes a visit to Harvard University. Bourget, in his 'Outre-Mer,' had been the dupe of the Harvard student (*si figura!*), and had spoken of him as clean-minded. Sig. Ojetti knew human nature better than that, and, being together with some of these students, he gave the conversation a pornographic turn, so deftly, so blandly, that some of the youth fell into the trap, and tried to cap the foreigner's pleasant stories. Sig. Ojetti triumphantly publishes his discovery that the Harvard student is not only no cleaner-minded than himself, but that he is really worse, as he adds hypocrisy to his other frailties. You have here the measure of the man. If any Harvard Tartuffe cares to know of what Sig. Ojetti is capable in his serious moments, he can read 'Il Giuco dell' Amore.' For any other it will be sufficient to say that the conduct of the *Giuocatore* quite justifies the up-to-date definition of love in the last chapter, as "a simple and brief act, like a pressure of the hand between two sympathetic persons, or a gay and succulent lunch between two friends, of which, after its digestion, a pleasant memory remains, if not also a gentle gratitude towards the companion."

After this it is refreshing to read something less modern, especially if, like 'Il Riscatto' of Arturo Graf (published first in the *Nuova Antologia*), it be delicate, charming in form, full of poetry, and clean. The book reminds one of a minuet in its simplicity, in a certain slow rhythmical stateliness, and in its grace. It is the autobiography of a man, still young, who has inherited from a long line of ancestors a tendency to suicide, and who is redeemed by love at the moment when, by irresistible force, he seemed about to follow the example of his forefathers. There have not been wanting those who have objected to this solution, as rather sentimental than scientific, since hereditary madness, no more than consumption, can be cured by love; to which the author, in an appendix to the volume, replies, in effect, that that remains to be proved—that no one can say whether hereditary suicide is physical or psychical heredity, and that therefore no one can deny the healing force of a psychical remedy. We fancy that the conclusion of the book, whether in itself satisfactory or not, is but of secondary importance with most of its readers, its principal charm being rather independent of the question of probability.

Emilio De Marchi, as the author of 'Demetrio Pinelli' and 'Il Cappello del Prete,' both of which have more than once received the honors of translation, deserves—perhaps one should say, deserved—a more distinguished consideration among his country people than he enjoyed during his lifetime. His recent death called forth in the Milanese press expressions of regret due rather to the man than to the writer; certainly, no stranger would have gleaned from

these notices that Italy had lost one of her most agreeable novelists. Another proof of his value has just been given us in his last work, published with a preface by Gaetano Negri. Had the author lived long enough to see through the press 'Col Fuoco non si Scherza,' he might have removed from the concluding chapters some evidences of hasty composition, but he could scarcely have improved the main part, in which the qualities that made his earlier works attractive have found their fullest expression. For the benefit of those who have learned to appreciate the Lake of Como from Cadenabbia, we may say that the scene of the story is there and in the neighboring Tremezzo, and that, without too much labor in descriptions, it gives a vivid sense of the exquisite beauty of that region.

Sig. Rovetta's peculiar talent shows to better advantage in depicting the sham politician patriot, as in 'La Baraonda,' or the sham literary man, as in 'L'Idolo,' than in representing the goodness of the two ladies, the elderly and the young, in 'La Signorina.' In order not to deter readers who may have already admired Sig. Rovetta's performances, it may be said that these two are offset by another lady of a quite refreshing badness, on the success of whose portrait the author may be fairly congratulated.

Italian novelists, fortunately, are not bound by the French convention in matter of subject, and, in point of fact, only one of the works before us is occupied with the Gallic trinity—though that one is almost worthy of Huysmans at his pornographic worst. The result is a variety of themes as great as that of our English novel; among which one, not worn threadbare, is evident in the title of the Marquis Filippo Crispolti's 'Un Duello.' This is so far from being the charge of a prosecutor that some readers might close the book in doubt as to its moral teaching. The subject gets exhaustively treated from every point of view; and though it was finally clear that the author intended that our verdict should be against the practice of duelling, not only the judicial impartiality he has displayed, but the sympathies and antipathies aroused by his characters tended to make us hesitate. We hold that one of the chief disadvantages of a minute analysis of the motives and feelings of a protagonist in a novel is a resultant dimness of outline and loss of impressiveness. The Marchese Crispolti's protagonist is so well explained, and has such a nice balance of weaknesses and qualities, that we were uncertain on occasion of his value as a hero, and the principle he has espoused suffered with our estimate of him. Nevertheless, the novel is an exceedingly good one, marked by an unusual distinction of tone, and, among other merits, giving a striking picture of Roman society.

Grazia Deledda, whose rare charm of manner we have on a former occasion remarked, has given us several remarkable delineations of life in Sardinia. The first chapter of 'Elias Portolu,' if we were to go no further than that, conveys a notion of the state of mind as to right and wrong, as to duty, property, and human life, of the rude population of the mountain region about Nuoro. They are ignorant and superstitious. Their ideas are crude and often false, but there is in these simple creatures such a flavor of the soil, something so elemental and in harmony with the child that is in us all, that we find ourselves loving them involuntarily and a little to our own surprise. The witchery, however, is not so much in them as in the hand that has drawn their portrait. Grazia Deledda has the poet's gift; her touch converts what she sees and feels into a thing of beauty. And she loves her Sardinia even to the remotest recesses of its mountains, and its inhabitants, especially the lowly; and she knows the processes of their minds, the cravings of their hearts. Hers is not a laughing muse; but the humble tragedies she chooses for her subject—set in wild landscapes, where the vegetation, the atmosphere, the light, the perfumes have all a character of their own, and narrated with a grace that is equally individual—are as far as possible removed from the commonplace that haunts and wearies our daily walk and conversation.

Sig. Olivieri San Giacomo continues to furnish stories of military life which have interest for the foreigner as showing the daily routine and much of the spirit of the Italian soldier and officer. They seem to be popular in the army, but, though easy enough reading, never rise above mediocrity, either in conception or in execution. We had formerly pleasure in speaking of the promise of another writer, a young one, Angiolo Silvio Novaro, whose last book, however, 'L'Angelo Risvegliato,' is a sad disappointment. We say nothing more about it, in the hope that his next work will fulfil the expectation awakened by the first. Sig. Avancinio Avancini, whose 'Idolo Infranto' has already been favorably noticed by us, has given a volume of short stories, 'I Racconti dell' Allegre Compare,' that for clear directness of style, for good humor, vivacity, picturesqueness, could scarcely be bettered. This is one of the good books of the year. We could wish that the author were at times a little less *bourgeois* in his limitations, or at least that he would forgive the Milanese aristocracy that he was not born in their ranks. The defect, however, is not a serious one; indeed, when he brings before us palpitating with life Don Ramiro Gonzalo, Prince of Boscofiorito, it is not a defect at all, but a quality for which we are duly thankful.

In marked contrast to these admirable stories are those in the volume entitled 'Silvano,' by Orazio Grande. They will scarcely appeal to the lay reader, and among the professed *gens de lettres* they will please the section with whom manner, or rather mannerism, is more agreeable than simplicity. They are like water-colors with dim contours, washed-out tints, lackadaisical attitudes, and every possible prettyism of style. We mention them because they possess not only a certain grace and refinement, but something which makes us believe that, if the author were subjected to a sound régime with perhaps the aid of a tonic, he might become capable of really good work.

We pause, but not from want of material. We have said enough to show that the new efflorescence in Italian literature gives no sign of diminution. With every year, however, one great change in the intellectual life of the country becomes more apparent. In the days when the peninsula was cut up into a number of States, it was no more than natural that there should be several literary, scientific, or artistic centres. After the unification of Italy, these cities remained as centres, and, notwithstanding occasional jealousies, this dispersion of intellectual forces had the advantage that in none of the larger cities was there the dull provincialism of which people complain in the cities of France outside of Paris. The fact that of all the works enumerated in this communication, only one (that of Sig. San Giacomo) was not published in Milan, would indicate that the old order of things is passing away. Their authors, Sicilian, Neapolitan, Tuscan, seem more and more to gravitate to the Lombard capital, which more and more becomes the city of initiative, the centre of Italian intelligence. And this without as yet deadening the life of other centres. Rome is not merely in name a capital; Turin has a strong independent existence, an admirably alert intelligence, a power of originating and carrying out good ideas that makes it hard to say that she is second to any other city; Florence, Naples, Venice—they are all instinct with new life. It is only that Milan, in many fields of activity, is acquiring a sort of primacy. Fortunately, with the quickened means of communication, commerce between the great cities is lively, so that the blood flows freely from the centre to the extremities. Visions of ancient empire have imposed Rome upon the Italians as the seat of their Government of infinite aspirations; it was perhaps a superstition that held the old throne necessary for the new domination; but it is the simplest of natural laws that makes the intelligence of to-day, forgetting regional jealousies, and recognizing the substantial unity of the regenerate Italy, seek its proper breathing space in the ancient ducal capital of Lombardy.

S. K.

Correspondence.

CONTINENTAL EXPANSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The extract which you publish from *La Revue Américaine*, expressing the sentiments of South Americans towards the United States, impels me to offer a few remarks upon a letter signed "P. J.," which appeared in your issue of December 12, that otherwise might have been allowed to pass unnoticed.

Five or six years ago an American gentleman who came to reside in Canada for business purposes, expressed to me his astonishment at the feeling of aversion to his own country which he found prevalent here. I pointed out to him that there were sufficient reasons for this feeling in the history of our relations during the past century and a quarter, in the unneighborly policy observed by successive American governments towards us, both in tariff and in other matters, and also in the hostility of American public opinion towards Great Britain. A further cause of irritation is the habit of American writers ignoring the right of Canada to an independent existence upon this continent, treating our future as a matter to be determined by the United States.

Your correspondent "P. J." says:

"Our destiny is at some, perhaps not remote, time to absorb all of the continent north of us. Keeping closely to our con-

tinental position, this would be easy to accomplish, even if opposed by the whole power of Great Britain. The seacoast States could defend themselves while the interior States were overruning Canada; but if the time should come when Great Britain was not able to maintain all of its possessions, the annexation of Canada could be made peaceably."

A Canadian might say with Parson Wilbur—

> —"thet all this big talk of our destinies
> Is half on it ign'ance, an' t' other half rum";

but what is your opinion of it, sir, you who print the above without comment and without protest? We are accustomed to menace and insult from such papers as the New York *Sun* and from such demagogues as Bourke Cockran. Do you think a widespread repetition of their sentiments in respectable quarters can fail to produce deep resentment here?

The improved tone of the American press of late towards England has led to a more friendly feeling in Canada for the United States, but there can be no cordiality on our part without a great change in your attitude towards us. We prize our liberty and autonomy as highly as any people that ever lived; we are firmly loyal to the British crown; and we are determined to build up a great independent and self-governing British Power on the north of this continent—a free community within a world-encircling empire.

American policy towards Canada has hitherto afforded a striking example of how a little mind may go with great possessions. The last thing we expect from the United States is magnanimity, yet that is the first essential towards genuine and permanent good feeling between us and our neighbors. R. W. SHANNON.

OTTAWA, CANADA, December 24, 1901.

[Our opinion is, that our correspondent "P. J." was addressing a military *argumentum ad hominem* to the champions of colonial expansion; further, that he would not be found to be in favor of the use of force to attain that fusion of Canada and the United States which he might, in a perfectly friendly and neighborly spirit, believe to be naturally inevitable. But we do not hold ourselves responsible for the views of our correspondents.—ED. NATION.]

CANADA AND ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A short time since, the Toronto *Globe* printed a rumor from Ottawa that Canada was about to press again her recent claim to a portion of Alaska, and a second time to urge the United States to submit this demand to the arbitration of foreigners for settlement. But there is nothing in this demand to arbitrate.

Russia and England, after protracted negotiations, agreed by treaty, in 1825, upon a line to divide their respective North American possessions. This frontier was drawn from the Arctic Ocean, along the meridian of 141 degrees west longitude to Mount Saint Elias, and then was to follow the crest of the mountains running parallel to the coast, to the head of the Portland canal, and down that sinuosity to the ocean in fifty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude. But if at any point the crest of the mountains proved to be at a greater distance than ten marine leagues from the shore, then the frontier should run parallel to the sinuosities of the coast at a distance of ten marine leagues inland, but never further than that from the shore.

This gave to Russia a strip of territory, or *lisière*, from Mount Saint Elias to the Portland canal of sufficient width to entirely exclude the British Empire from any access to tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. And that England was so excluded from contact with the sea north of fifty-four degrees forty minutes, the English and the Canadian Governments recognized, both on their maps and by the acts of their officials. This strip of territory, or *lisière*, became ours when we bought Alaska in 1867 from Russia, and we succeeded to all her rights of sovereignty.

If the claim of Canada—that she is entitled to many outlets upon tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes—were submitted to arbitration, and the judges decided anything in favor of Canada, it would be a clear gain for her. And if the judgment gave Canada but a single port, like Pyramid Harbor or Dyea on the Lynn Canal, for instance, the present and future value to the United States of the Alaskan *lisière* would be greatly impaired. The evidence in the case is all in favor of the United States, and shows that they are entitled, by long, uninterrupted occupancy and other rights, to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland from Mount Saint Elias down to the Portland Canal. There is no more reason for this country to agree to refer its right to the possession and sovereignty of this unbroken Alaskan *lisière* to the decision of foreigners, than would be the case if the English Empire advanced a demand to sovereignty over the coast of the Carolinas or the port of Baltimore, and suggested that the claim should be referred to the judgment of the subjects of third Powers. Whether the frontier should pass over a certain mountain or through a given gorge is a proper subject for settlement by a mutual survey. But by no possibility has Canada any right to territory touching tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. The United States should not consent to submit such a proposition to arbitration. T. W. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, December 27, 1901.

BYRON, COLERIDGE, AND DON JUAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Prothero, in the fifth volume of his excellent edition of Byron's 'Letters and Journals,' gives the following note at page 243: "D. Juan Tenorio of Seville was the hero of the Spanish mystery-play, the *Atheista Fulminato* (see Coleridge's 'Biographia Literaria,' vol. ii., pp. 262 seqq.). The mystery was dramatized by Gabriel Tellez, *i. e.*, Tirso de Molina," etc.

The existence of such a Spanish mystery-play has long been denied by the best foreign critics, but they have not explained the origin of the idea. Puibusque, in his 'Histoire Comparée des Littératures Espagnole et Française' (1843), first spread this story in Europe. He makes the same statement as that given above (vol. ii., pp. 239, 467), and quotes as his authority "Coleridge, commentator of Byron's complete works," whose note he saw in the French translation of B. Laroche. Puibusque evidently mistook an illustrative passage from the 'Biographia Literaria' for an editor's note. He gives plausibility to his statement by quoting scenes from this alleged "Ateista Fulminado."

Coleridge makes his original statement (in the 'Biog. Lit.') in the criticism on Bertram. He mentions "an old Spanish play entitled *Atheista Fulminato*, formerly, and perhaps still, acted in the churches and monasteries of Spain, and which, under various names (Don Juan, the Libertine, etc.), has had its day of favor in every country throughout Europe." Later he quotes parts of different scenes, apparently his own translation from this Spanish play; and, several pages farther on, he speaks of Shadwell's "Libertine," "an adaptation of the *Atheista Fulminato* to the English stage in the reign of Charles the Second." But what Coleridge does not state is that the scenes which he quotes are nothing but extracts from "The Libertine," word for word! Moreover, the statement about the Spanish "Atheista" is apparently nothing but a confused reminiscence of the following sentence from Shadwell's preface to his play: "And I have been told by a worthy Gentleman, that many Years agone (when first a Play was made upon this Story in Italy), he has seen it acted there by the name of *Atheisto Fulminato*, in Churches on *Sundays*, as a Part of Devotion," etc. This religious play was, of course, subsequent, not prior to, the Spanish drama said to be by Téllez.

We see that the whole myth about an early Spanish mystery-play is based on a strange perversion of Shadwell by Coleridge, who did not see that *fulminato* is Italian, not Spanish. Puibusque, in repeating the error, gave the word its Spanish termination, which served to strengthen the roots of the legend. S. G. MORLEY.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, December 16, 1901.

COMPLAINT AND REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of the 'Queen's Comrade,' which appears in your paper of the 14th inst., there is one sentence which, more than all others, is quite unjustifiable. Your critic says that such history as the volumes contain "treats chiefly of *things* that either never happened at all, or, having happened, were of little account." As to the first part of this sentence, any reader will see that authorities are given for every statement made; and, as for the second, the downfall of James, the Revolution, the reigns of William and Mary and Anne, are of some little account. As your reviewer's remark, which is neither true nor just, is calculated to injure the sale of the book, I hope you will have the kindness to insert this correction in your pages.

Faithfully yours,

FITZGERALD MOLLOY.

90 PORTSDOWN ROAD, LONDON W.,
November 28, 1901.

[Our meaning was, that of the history which the book contains, much, like all history of intrigue, cabal, and conspiracy, had, of necessity, to do with many things which never came to pass, or, having come to pass, were of little account. We never, of course, intended to refer to

faits accomplis like the Revolution and the events of the reigns preceding and following it, but to the workings of the under world and the back-stairs, with which the present volumes have very properly to do.—Ed. Nation.]

"TO CHANCER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the 'Century Dictionary' we read:

"Chancer, *v. t.* [Formed from *chancery.*] To adjust according to principles of equity, as would be done by a court of chancery: as, to *chancer* a forfeiture. *Mass. Prov. Laws.*"

And in the 'Oxford Dictionary':

"Chancer, *v. rare.* [? f. Chancery.] *trans.* To 'tax' (an account or bill of costs)."

The editors of the Century content themselves with a vague reference; Dr. Murray gives but a single quotation (from an American work, dated 1798); and in both dictionaries *to chancer* is regarded as certainly or probably formed from the noun *chancery.* Of the fact that *to chancer* is ultimately derived from the noun *chancery,* there can be no doubt; but it appears, from a work only recently published, that there was formerly a verb, the existence of which does not seem to have been suspected, namely, *to chancery.* There are many examples of this verb in the work first quoted below:

"The deffend[t] desiring a chancery the plantiff Gonn & not to be found The Court ordered a respit of y[e] execution till the 9 of october next to wch time this Court Adjourn themselues [& chanceried the damage Additionall to 40[s] only.] . . . The plaintiff desired his bond might be chanceried The Court hauing heard the plaintiff & defend[t]s pleas as to the Chancering of the bond did chancery it to sixty-eight pounds flue shilling[s] & tenn penc mony & Costs of Courts two pounds sixteen shillings & sixe pence. . . . In answer to the motion of Joseph Helljer The Court chanceried his bond to one hundred & eight pounds money & Costs of Courts." 1674, 1684, 1685, *Records of the Court of Assistants, Mass.* (1901), pp. 21, 261, 287.

"*And it is hereby further enacted* . . .

"That there be a high court of chancery within this province, who shall have power and authority to hear and determine all matters of equity, . . . *provided, nevertheless,* that the justices in any of the courts aforesaid, where the forfeiture of any penal bond is found, shall be and hereby are impowred to chancer the same unto the just debt and damages." 1692, *Acts & Resolves of the Prov. of Mass.* (1869), i. 75.

"*Be it enacted* . . . That in all cases brought or to be brought for tryal in the superiour court of judicature, . . . where the forfeiture or penalty annexed unto any articles, . . . shall be found by verdict of jury, . . . the justices of the said courts respectively where the tryal is had are hereby impowred and authorized to moderate the rigour of the law, and on consideration of such cases, according to equity and good conscience to chancer the forfeiture, . . . and enter up judgement for the just debt and damages, and to award execution accordingly." 1698, *do.*, i. 356.

"Upon the humble petition of William Collins, of Newport, tanner, to this Assembly, for the chancerizing of two bonds, one of thirty-six pounds, five shillings, and one of twenty-five pounds; . . .

"This Assembly considering the matter, do order and enact, that the said bonds be by the Governor and council truly chancerized to the principal and interest, and entered on said bonds, signed by the recorder." 1707, *Rhode Island Col. Records* (1859), iv. 26.

"The case being called, . . . judgment was given for the appellee, in that the bond should be chancer'd; and that the costs and damages allowed the appellee should amount to £15 01 s." 1709, *do.*, iv. 80.

"Upon the petition of Lt. Charles Whiting, praying that an arbitration bond . . . might be chancered: This Assembly hath considered that the said Watson shall recover by virtue of the judgment of said superiour court given upon said bond, the sum of four pounds seventeen shillings and five pence, and no more, and the said bond is hereby chancered and reduced to that sum." 1719, *Connecticut Col. R cords,* (1872), vi., 127.

"The appellant and appellee being duly heard, this Assembly do adjudge and decree, that the judgment of the General Court of Trials . . . be, and it is hereby chancerized down to twenty shillings." 1722, *R. I. Col. Rec.*, iv. 320.

"Whereupon it is resolved, that the aforesaid note is chancerable, and said judgment is hereby chancered to the sum given by the said arbitrators." 1726, *Ct. Col. Rec.*, vii. 74.

"It is not easily to be accounted for, how *England, France* and *Holland,* have tacitly allowed their several *American Colonies;* by *Laws* of their several Provinces, by *Chancerings* in their Courts of Judicature, and by *Custom;* to depreciate from Time to Time, the value of their original Denominations, to defraud their Principals and Creditors in *Europe.*" 1740, W. Douglass, *Discourse Concerning the Currencies of the British Plantations in America,* p. 7.

"Voted that Messrs. Peter Gillman, Jotham Odiorne & Mr. Hunking Wentworth be a Comittee of this House to joyne such as the Hon[ble] the Council shall appoint to ascertain the vallue of money & Exch[e] for *chancering* the vallue of the bills of Credit." 1742, *New Hampshire Prov. Papers* (1871), v. 159.

"Resolved by this Assembly, that the bond recited in said petition, on which the judgment of the superior court referred to was rendered, be chancer'd down to the sum of sixty-two pounds lawful money." 1761, *Ct. Col. Rec.*, xi. 547.

"Upon the memorial of Caleb Turner . . . showing . . , That it so happened that said Peletiah's business required him to go to sea, and the stamp-act being about to take place he incautiously went to sea, so that the said bond became forfeited &c; praying that the sum might be chancered down &c., as per memorial on file: Resolved by this Assembly, that the said bond of recognizance be and the same is hereby chancered and abated down to the sum of twenty pounds lawful money only." 1768, *do.*, xiii. 110.

Of the six words which appear in these extracts, no fewer than five—*chancerable, chancering, chancerize, chancerizing,* and *to chancery*—have failed to obtain recognition in the dictionaries. Mr. John Noble, the editor of the work first quoted, tells me that *to chancer* is still heard in Massachusetts, though the verbal noun *chancering* is more common. On the other hand, from a Philadelphia lawyer I learn that he is not familiar with these words. Is it possible that the entire group of words is restricted to New England? Perhaps some of your readers learned in the law can give some further information.

Albert Matthews.

Boston, December 17, 1901.

THE KAIBEL CLASSICAL LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer has been asked to make known through the medium of your paper that the library of the late Dr. Kaibel, Professor of Greek and Latin at the University of Göttingen, will be offered for sale in its entirety, and that a manuscript catalogue in a few copies is being prepared, to be sent to libraries for inspection. Applications should be made to Prof. Dr. Carl Dziatzko, Universitäts-Bibliothekar, Göttingen, Germany. The library contains about 4,000 bound volumes in good condition, and some 3,000 to 4,000 pamphlets, and is particularly rich in periodicals, reproductions of inscriptions, and reprints.

Aksel G. S. Josephson.

John Crerar Library, Chicago,
December 21, 1901.

Notes.

Howard Wilford Bell (London and New York) is engaged in a novel enterprise styled "The Unit Library," which is to consist of reprints of classic works (ancient and modern) in a uniform size of 4½ by 6⅝ inches, edited by William Laird Clowes and A. R. Waller. The print will be clear without display or ornament, and the price will be based on the "unit" of 25 pages, plus paper or cloth or leather binding. The first hundred books already announced lead off with Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' and end with Rousseau's 'Confessions.' The experiment will be watched with interest.

Another "unit" system is to be employed by the New England Historic Genealogical Society of Boston in undertaking the publication of the vital records of towns in Massachusetts (some 190 in number) whose Records are not already printed or on the way to be. Each town is estimated to require an average of 150 printed pages, octavo; and subscriptions to the series will be received at the rate of one cent a page, which includes binding. This is expected to meet the cost of 600 copies. The Records will not be brought down beyond 1845, after which date duplicate copies were filed with the Secretary of the Commonwealth. Communications should be addressed to Henry Ernest Woods, editor, No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston.

Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., Boston, have in preparation an 'Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World,' in forty-eight maps and plans.

'Deutschland in China, 1900-1901,' is the title of an elaborately illustrated work, to be published under Government supervision and the general editorship of Count Waldersee, in the near future, and intended to be practically the permanent and semi-official record of the German expedition to China. The letterpress itself consists of thirteen chapters from the pens of official participants, and the illustrations (published by the house of August Bogel, Düsseldorf) have been prepared by or under the direction of the battle painter Roscholl, who himself took part in the expedition. The volume will cost thirty marks, and will not be obtainable through the regular book trade until the participants in the expedition and the various libraries have been supplied.

Among the novelties of the ever youthful *Almanach de Gotha,* for 1902, in its 139th year (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a calendar of princely and noble birthdays which editors, court officials, and others, it is suggested, may find handy. There is also a new list of orders. The King and Queen of Italy, and Prince George, the ruler of Crete, furnish three of the four regulation portraits. Under Holland is given the personnel of the new Hague International Arbitration Tribunal, and mention of this leads the editors to remark with uncon-

cealed irony that they derived their information (fairly full but all "paper") on the South African Republic and the Orange Free State from the Transvaal's Legation at Brussels, and that (very meagre) concerning the Orange River Colony and Transvaal Colony from the Cape Minister. The Hague Tribunal is the "idealism" of the time which "cannot always be made to harmonize with the brutality of facts." Thus England's unpopularity invades even the almanacs.

Two new volumes (51, 52) have recently been added to the International Education Series (Appleton). Dr. Henry D. Sheldon, author of 'Student Life and Customs,' presents, in the form of an entertaining and stimulating essay, the outlines of a subject regarding which a considerable amount of material has already accumulated; his bibliography includes 318 titles of books and articles. Those working along similar lines may be trusted not to overlook such a useful guide, but the book may also be read with interest and profit by the more thoughtful of our university and college students, who may find, *e. g.*, in the chapter on debating societies (pp. 135-142, 201-215), thoughts that will be directly helpful to them in the management of their own affairs. Only 80 pages of the volume treat of student life in Europe. The remaining 226 pages are devoted to the United States.

Volume 52 of the same Series, 'An Ideal School, or, Looking Forward,' by Preston W. Search, is ushered in by a preface from Dr. W. T. Harris and an introduction from President G. Stanley Hall. The book is the result of much experience, study, and earnest thought, and Dr. Hall's estimation of its value is hardly an exaggerated one when he states it as his belief that there is no other single volume in this branch of literature "so well calculated to do so much good at the present time."

There is always a place for a good one-volume history of the United States, but we cannot think Mr. Francis Newton Thorpe's 'History of the American People' (McClurg) quite all that was desired. Neither as a textbook nor as a compendious narrative for the general reader is it likely to supersede works already familiar. A volume of 600 pages which gives but three pages to the Missouri Compromise and the Monroe Doctrine, six pages to the tariff of 1828, the Webster-Hayne debate, nullification, and Jackson's controversy with the Bank, half a page to the Dred Scott decision, and only twenty-five pages to the civil war, is certainly quite lacking in balance; while the account of strictly political events during the last fifty years is little more than a dreary enumeration of Presidential candidates and electoral votes, and a summary statement of the demands of party platforms. The chapters treating of State Constitutions and the regulation of suffrage and elections are evidently based on the elaborate discussions of those topics which are contained in Mr. Thorpe's larger works, and recall in general the handling there given them. We have not searched the book for errors, but the "twelve thousand pounds" which Massachusetts is said (p. 77) to have paid for Maine should, of course, be £1,250.

'American Political History' (Holt), by Viola A. Conklin, is the fruit of a course of parlor lectures to women, and professes no larger purpose than that of usefulness to study-clubs. Like most books of its class, it does not go beyond the commonplaces of the subject, and does not always avoid the conventional views of things which more recent scholarship has often changed; but the style is entertaining, and the volume should prove serviceable. If, as we suppose, the work is intended to be used as a sort of textbook where lectures cannot be had, its usefulness would be increased by the addition of a few maps and some references to collateral reading.

Miss Isabel Gordon Curtis's 'Leftovers Made Palatable' (Orange Judd Co.) is a manual which tells how to utilize foods which in an American household usually go to waste. Use is found for the alimentary remnants of every meal whether in hot or cold weather, and the treatment described. This is done so thoroughly that even persons to whom the preparation of food appears a hopeless enigma will find in the little volume inspiration and encouragement. The book stands alone in its class. This gives it unusual importance and makes it highly worthy of commendation.

Mr. Allen C. Clark, a Washington attorney, has republished his biography of Thomas Law, with some changes and considerable additions, in an attractive and even imposing volume, entitled 'Greenleaf and Law in the Federal City' (Washington: Roberts). In this work the author tries to show that the removal of the capital to Washington was in the main due to James Greenleaf; the retention of the capital at Washington, after 1814, to Thomas Law. He also speaks of the part which Robert Morris, John Nicholson, William Cranch, and W. M. Duncanson had in the building of the city. Mr. Clark is unfortunate in ignoring many of the rules of historical investigation and most of the rules of literary art. His narrative, therefore, lacks clearness, and his arguments, conclusiveness. The future historian of the capital, however, will value the material which he has gathered together, and all will applaud his suggestion that something ought to be done in Washington, either by antiquary, by architect, or by photographer, for the preservation of historic places in that historic city.

Minerva, an excellent and broad-minded "review of reviews" published weekly in Rome on the Corso (No. 219), concluded its eleventh volume with its issue of December 8, 1901. This periodical may be recommended to any one wishing to practise himself in the Italian tongue while at the same time improving his mind.

Much the same may be said on behalf of a humane little book compiled by Nigro Licò and published by Hoepli in Milan, entitled 'La Protezione degli Animali.' As might have been expected, there is a chapter directed against vivisection, and the claims of vegetarianism are set forth, without explicit endorsement of it or of Viaud's dictum, "Virtue and beefsteak can never agree." But, in general, the aim is to suppress cruelty in all our dealings with the brute creation.

Bulletin No. 50 of the United States National Museum is filled by Part I. of the "Birds of North and Middle America," a descriptive catalogue of the higher groups, genera, species, and sub-species of birds known to occur in North America, from the Arctic lands to the Isthmus of Panama, the West Indies, and other islands of the Caribbean Sea, and the Galapagos Archipelago, by Robert Ridgeway, curator, Division of Birds. This part, an octavo of 746 pages and 20 plates, contains only the Fringillidæ, the Finches, and about twenty-three pages of preliminary matter, relating to the class, order, and sub-order. Descriptions, synonymy, and keys are given for 389 species and sub-species, belonging to 69 genera. The work is well done, and will be a necessity to any one engaged in the study of birds inhabiting the region included.

Nature, long the leading scientific weekly of the world, offers, in the number for December 12, one of the best periodical indexes ever prepared, embracing nearly fifty double-column pages, and embodying not only the multitude of separate entries, but a classification of them under their respective sciences, with elaborate cross-references. Such sciences as astronomy, chemistry, and electricity are especially full; would not a system of sub-alphabetizing have been preferable here to preserving the mere numerical sequence of pagination? The same would apply to the very lengthy list of book-reviews and to the papers indexed under the sections of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. Authors' names, topics, and the subjects of papers are all included in the single index.

Mr. Edward Wilson James continues his even way in editing the *Lower Norfolk County* (Va.) *Antiquary* (Richmond: Bell), and in the fourth part of his third volume, pp. 135, 136, gives some interesting notes to Norfolk Marriage Bonds of 1802, showing tender consciences on the part of decedent slaveholders. Elizabeth Hawley, making her will in 1804, provides for the freedom of sundry slaves; in case the law forbade, "they were to be kept till emancipation was allowed." James Dawley, in 1814, also emancipates by will even the negroes left his wife by her late husband—"at her death, or before if she chooses." None of them may make up any legacy in his will or descend to any of his children, "for I abhor the idea of slavery."

The forty-second volume of the *Zeitschrift für Biologie* is a "Jubelband" in honor of the seventieth birthday of its editor, Carl Voit, professor of physiology in the Royal Bavarian University. It is made up of twenty-three papers by his pupils, past and present. Among these contributions is one on a certain form of diabetes, by Dr. Graham Lusk, professor of physiology in the University and Bellevue Medical College at New York.

The sixth volume of the current series of the *Archives Néerlandaises des Sciences Exactes et Naturelles* is also a "jubilee" volume, offered by the Dutch Society of Sciences at Harlem to its Secretary, Dr. J. Bosscha, on the seventieth anniversary of his birth. Besides the papers by the resident members of the Society are articles by such eminent foreign associates as Lords Kelvin and Rayleigh of England, Professors Berthelot, Cornu, and Mascart of France, Van't Hoff and Vogel of Germany. The only contribution from America is by Prof. Edward C. Pickering, director of the Harvard College Observatory, on "Variable Stars of Long Period."

The Germans find themselves able to make haste only very slowly in the introduction of a uniform system of revised

orthography. Neither the Prussian nor the Saxon, nor any of the other proposed revisions, had been able to compel general acceptance, and, accordingly, the leading states, including Austria, arranged for a general Conference, which met in Berlin, last June, and completed a scheme of revision, with the understanding that this was to be generally introduced by Easter, 1902. Recently the Prussian Cultus Ministry, in response to inquiries from the officials of the German book-dealers, declared that the change would not be made by the time set, and that the confused condition of affairs now prevailing in German school- and other books must continue indefinitely, so far as Prussia is concerned. No special reason for this delay has been assigned.

An interesting feature of the forthcoming meeting of the Mississippi Historical Society, January 9 and 10, is a session devoted to the history of the Constitutional Convention of 1890. Apparently, a representative of each of the committees of the Convention is to present a history of the measures submitted to it. State historical societies so rarely discuss contemporary happenings that the outcome of the Mississippi experiment will be awaited with interest.

We have received from the Scovill & Adams Company their *American Annual of Photography* for 1902, with its usual diversity of papers on the art, lists of societies, etc., and great range of illustrations. The only three-color print is among the advertisements, and comes from Vienna.

—The occupant of the Easy Chair, in the January *Harper's*, unbosoms his hopes and fears for the Roosevelt Administration. His fears are grounded in the belief that the assassin's bullet has brought to an end an era of Presidents drawn from the common people, putting in their place one whom he classifies unhesitatingly with the aristocratic type of the early Presidency. For the type in general he has but caustic comment. Its conception of duty is not that men are best left to work out their own destinies, but that some one else can best do it for them—a conception akin to the notion of sovereignty "as something that could do no wrong, though it was apparently never able to do right." But he regards "the order of the gentleman" as more promising in this land than in others. "Elsewhere in history it has misgoverned the world worse than the order of the common man; with us alone has it shown the instinct of fellow-citizenship." In the President personally, Mr. Howells recognizes a high sense of honor and the very best intentions. He may do the rash thing, he will not consciously do the wrong. The best hope for him lies in the literary phase of his character. If his class limitations have denied him any actual experience of the needs, the perplexities, and the aspirations of the common man, he may still have enough of the poet in him sufficiently to imagine them. "He is capable, unless his actions and utterances belie him, of imagining the single ambition of being the best servant this people has ever had; and it is for this people to remember that the endeavor to such an end does [not?] rest wholly with him." Mark Twain begins in the same issue "A Double-Barrelled Detective Story," and leaves his reader *in mediis rebus* with the impression that the term "double-barrelled" unduly limits the dangerous possibilities of the situation. Sidney Brooks contributes a paper on London and New York at once instructive, suggestive, and amusing. He concludes his comparison with the opinion that the two cities are intended to be complementary to each other, and that the ideal city must have the good points of both. "Whether this would not involve the preliminary banishment of most London women and most New York men, is a point one might debate for ever."

—Senator Lodge contributes to the January *Scribner's* a paper on "The Treaty-making Powers of the Senate," assuming in his title the point to be proved, viz., that the function of the Senate in the making of treaties is at all stages on an equality with that of the President. Of course, the right either to ratify or reject a treaty places it in the power of the Senate to formulate changes, but it has no power to get such changes before the party of the second part to the treaty unless the President shall choose to accept and communicate them. The real difficulty with the Senate in the matter of treaties, however, lies not so much in the *transcendence* as in the *abuse* of its Constitutional rights. What the people are tired of is not Senate amendments *per se*, but Senate amendments which are inherently vicious, tending to hamper the President in his efforts to maintain right relations with foreign powers, and in some cases tending seriously to retard the progress of civilization. The article of greatest public interest in this number is that of the former Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, Frank A. Vanderlip, on "The American 'Commercial Invasion' of Europe." It is the first of a series, in preparation for which Mr. Vanderlip has had the advantage of extensive interviews with the leading statesmen and financiers of Europe. Our commercial advantages and disadvantages, in comparison with European countries, are clearly set forth; and, among the disadvantages, one finds occasionally an item which the thoughtless are accustomed to reckon on the other side of the account. A man unnamed, but certified to by the writer as one of the most eminent financiers of Europe, is quoted as saying, after speaking of other countries: "But what of your future? We are glad to see you going into the Philippines. We will welcome the time, if you are going to measure strength with us as a military power. Commercially, you are supreme, but if it comes to a test of military strength, if you are going to weight yourselves with the militarism which is the burden of Europe, then we can see some light." Similarly, M. de Witte is quoted as to the enormous harm done to the power of England by those who drew her into the South African war: "Should she have too many Chamberlains and too many Transvaal campaigns, she might be ruined."

—In the *Century's* table of contents we find several items to be credited on its promise of "A Year of American Humor." Readers will not be far from unanimous, we imagine, in assigning the place of honor among these to "The Gentleman of the Plush Rocker," by Ruth McEnery Stuart. Rose Ann, the jolly washerwoman, and her husband, Napoleon Jackson, Esq., who couldn't work "'ca'se his mammy she marked him so," are a pair which one would willingly go through a dozen negro dialect stories to discover. The prize poem, story, and essay of the *Century's* competition for college graduates of 1900 appear in this issue. The poem, by John Erskine of Columbia University, is a smooth and effective treatment of a classic legend, Actæon, with perhaps no more traces of former gleaners in the classic field than are inevitable to a beginner. So far as externals are concerned, the writer is certainly capable of good work; the limits of the present poem are too narrow to warrant an opinion as to his possession of real poetic genius. The story, by Katharine Fullerton, of Radcliffe College, is a story of a story—a type, perhaps, more natural to the young college graduate than to others, but perfectly legitimate if well wrought out. In the present case, a little more simplicity in the telling would be an improvement. The essay, by James E. Routh, jr., of Johns Hopkins University, leaves the suggestion of the college student farther in the distance than either of the other productions. Many a critic with years of experience behind him has been content to publish work far less thorough and convincing than Mr. Routh's study of "Huxley as a Literary Man." Charles Henry Hart closes in this number the series of Gilbert Stuart's "Portraits of Women" with the portraits of Mrs. Robert Morris, wife of the financier of the Revolution, and Mrs. Peter Meircken, wife of a prominent shipping merchant of Philadelphia.

—The first number of the first volume of *Biometrika*, "A Journal for the Statistical Study of Biological Problems," edited in consultation with Francis Galton by W. F. R. Weldon, Karl Pearson, and C. B. Davenport (Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan), is a neat-looking quarto of 128 pages. The journal is a quarterly, especially devoted to the publication of statistical data and of papers dealing with statistical theory. Its reasons for existence are the collection of biological data of a kind not systematically collected and published elsewhere, and diffusion of the statistical theories requisite for scientific treatment. It is to include statistical memoirs, in English, French, German, and Italian, on variation, inheritance, and selection in animals and plants; statistical theories applicable to biological problems; tables and solutions to lessen the labor of statistical arithmetic; abstracts of memoirs dealing with these subjects published in other journals, and notes on biometric work and unsolved problems. It will aim to establish such uniformity of treatment, terminology, and notation as will facilitate comparisons. The pages of this number are illustrated by numerous tables of numbers and of curves of interest to specialists. The articles are: "Biometry," "Variationsstatistische Probleme und Materialien," "Data for the Problem of Evolution in Man," "Inheritance of the Duration of Life and the Intensity of Natural Selection in Man," "Variation in Aurelia Aurita," "A First Study of Natural Selection in Clausilia Laminata," etc. The frontispiece is from a photograph of a statue of Darwin. The publication is characterized through and through by what is known as Darwin Evolution, that is, by Natural Selection. Biometry is brought forward as a new branch of science with the primary object of affording material that shall be exact enough for the discovery of incipient

changes in evolution too small to be otherwise apparent. It deals with mass-phenomena, for, as the editor would put it, though a single individual may have a variation making it a fit type for survival, it cannot be an effective factor in evolution until the fit type has increased and multiplied up to comparatively great numbers. And thus it is, through results and effects, not through their causes, that the problem of evolution becomes a problem in the vital statistics of population. There is an abundance of room for the magazine. May it live long and prosper.

—'In the Ice World of Himálaya,' by Dr. W. H. Workman and Mrs. Workman (Cassell), is a record of climbing among the peaks and passes of Ladakh, Nubra, Suru, and Baltistan. The book is altogether destitute of a scientific element and adds little to geographical information. The journeys in question, which occupied the seasons of 1898-99, were undertaken solely for the amusement of the authors and with a view to escaping from the heat of the Indian plains. The most striking feature of the narrative is the description of three mountain ascents in Baltistan, which were effected with the aid of Zurbriggen in 1899. Two of the said peaks rise above the Skoro La glacier near Askole, and the third, Koser Gunge, is not far from Yuno, in the Shigar valley. The summit last named is 21,000 feet, and its conquest by Mrs. Workman is a feat of some importance in the history of mountaineering. No such altitude has ever before been reached by a lady. Apart from the description of routes, there is nothing very distinctive or interesting about the volume. Mr. and Mrs. Workman had a good deal of trouble with native servants, and seem to have been annoyed when they were charged exorbitant prices. But such are the incidents of mountaineering in India, and the traveller who goes to Kashmir and beyond must make up his mind to take things as he finds them. Mrs. Workman has a short chapter about the effect upon her of rarefied air, which may be of some importance to lady climbers in the Alps, the Rockies, and elsewhere. For the rest, the book is sometimes amusing when it hardly means to be, and is not a very valuable addition to mountaineering literature. At the end is placed a singular glossary, wherein may be found, scattered about among Hindustani terms, such interpretations as "*Dir*, to you; *Euch*, to you; *Entourage*, setting; *Ewigen*, eternal; *Friede*, peace; *Heilige*, holy, revered; *Höhen*, heights," etc. The half-tone illustrations are fairly good, and seem in many cases to be taken from excellent photographs.

—The very remarkable changes which the nebulous region round the new star in Perseus has recently been found to undergo, were first discovered on photographic plates taken by Mr. Perrine at the Lick Observatory, and subsequently confirmed by Mr. Ritchey at Williams Bay, Wisconsin. The amount of apparent motion in certain regions of the nebula is quite incredible, and should lead astronomers to suspend judgment as to what has actually taken place in this part of the heavens until there are at least further observational developments. Sir Norman Lockyer, perhaps the most eminent living authority, thinks that the full significance of the recent observations has not been grasped by those who have commented upon them. On a reasonable hypothesis of distance, these observed motions, if such they really are, mean a translation through space equal to 400,000,000 miles daily. Excessively swift movements like these are perhaps not impossible, but there certainly is no precedent for them. Furthermore, Sir Norman shows, there is no necessity for the assumption of such movement; for the apparent change in position of these nebular condensations is easy to explain otherwise than by movement. Applying his well-known meteoritic theory, let us suppose a nebula to be invaded, not by one but by many meteorite swarms, under conditions such that the effects of collision vary greatly in intensity. Nova Persei itself was the most violent of all, and we began to know about it some months ago. Less violent ones, occurring in other parts of the nebula, at least 70,000,000,000 miles removed from the star itself, were learned of only from the recently taken photographs. So feeble are these disturbances that they soon die out, and, while dying, other disturbances in other parts of the nebula arise. As Sir Norman significantly remarks, "It is impossible to think that the great nebula which has now been photographed while the new star is still in being did not exist there a few months ago; and it is important, further, to remark that the nebulous matter already photographed in the region round the Nova is very probably only a portion of the actual amount of matter existing there, and that, if the disturbances continue, more of the remaining portion may become visible." Indeed, the latest photographs show an apparent expansion in all directions.

SEGANTINI.

Giovanni Segantini: The Story of his Life, together with seventy-five reproductions of his pictures in half-tone and photogravure. By Luigi Villari. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The remarkable qualities in Segantini's work never fail to attract observation in exhibitions of Italian art in which he is represented. They consist in a convincing sincerity of impression, whatever may be his subject; they have a poetry of their own derived from seeking after truth, whether in landscapes of the high Alps or in scenes of peasant life reminding us of Jean François Millet. Segantini is a painter who owes his development to his intense love of nature. This is all the more remarkable in an Italian who, surrounded by the best traditions of art, would, in the practice of the old masters, naturally find influences to inspire and instruct. The old masters never affected Segantini's work in the very least.

Luigi Villari's story of Segantini's life is full of interest, often telling in the artist's own words of the extraordinary difficulties he overcame to become an artist. Everything we can know of the man is here, together with ample illustrations of the pictures mentioned. Giovanni Segantini was born in 1858 at Arco, near the Lake of Garda. His father was a carpenter, his mother sold fruit and vegetables, his home was a dilapidated house on the bridge over the Sarca. High dolomite peaks stand like needles above the village, changing in color with the course of the sun; the valley opens towards the blue waters of the Lake of Garda. The child was weakly from his birth, and at four his earliest recollection is of having been pushed by accident into the river, whose rushing waters carried him towards the great wheel of his godfather's mill. At this early age and during this moment of terror, the effect of light and the color of things around him seem to have impressed themselves on his mind, showing that even from the first he was endowed with remarkable powers of observation. His mother died the year following, at the age of twenty-nine, leaving the child the remembrance, always cherished, of her beauty and suffering, which inspired him later to seek in incidents of maternal love the subject of many pictures.

Segantini's father left Arco after his wife's death and took the boy to Milan, where his eldest son and daughter by a former marriage kept a small perfumer's shop. The business was at a low ebb and soon had to be given up, the father and eldest son emigrating to America to seek a livelihood, while Giovanni remained under the care of his step-sister, who had to leave him all day to his own devices while she worked for the necessary means of subsistence. The tiny rooms in a tenement-house of Via San Simone were a dreary prison for the imaginative child; the windows were so high up that only by standing on the table could he see the sky, which in Milan during winter is often gray and colorless. The boy was oppressed by fear, and sought refuge at the landing window, where he could see the roofs of houses and a little courtyard. He spent his days in gazing out into the distance. One day he allowed himself the relaxation of throwing out tiny pieces of paper and watching their downward course; he thought they looked like snowflakes. He was admonished from below to cease this pastime; but later, when he thought the person had gone, he threw out a whole snow-storm of torn-up paper, and leaned out to watch it settling on the ground. For this he received a thrashing from the house porter on the spot, followed by a second from his sister on her return.

After this incident he was for a long time locked up in his sister's rooms, the prey of terror. He tells of another incident which made a landmark in his boyhood, the sight of pails of paint and brushes on the staircase. His expectation was so excited that he lost all appetite, and watched to see what would happen. The process of house-painting proved disappointing, but in the unequal dabs of red color left on the walls the child managed to see all manner of things—even the green fields and clear brooks of his old home at Arco, for which he was ever longing. Then came the cold winter passed in the lonely rooms with only a charcoal brazier for all heat; but, when spring returned, and he could again look out of the window on the landing, he heard the neighbors talking of some hero of romance who, when quite young, had left Milan and walked to France, where he had become famous, having achieved great deeds. These chance words suggested the possibility of change; he thought he would leave the dull passage where he had spent so many weary hours to go away. His father had once pointed out to him the arch and road built by Napoleon

I. through which the French and Piedmontese troops had entered Milan in triumph; he inferred that that road must lead over the mountains to France, and, with only a piece of bread in his pocket, he set out one day, and, in the heat of spring sunshine, trudged across the Lombard plain onward past the little village he came to. The feeling of being among trees and in the sunshine intoxicated him; it was only when the shades of evening drew on and a thunder-storm seemed approaching that he lay down by the roadside beside the trunk of a tree. Overcome by fatigue, he fell asleep, heedless of rain and thunder. Some country people going by in a cart saw the drenched child, and roused him. On hearing that he was on his way to France, they assured him he had mistaken the road, and offered to take him home with them, where he was well cared for that night. In the morning they proposed sending him back to his sister, but he declared that he would run away again, so they agreed to keep him if he would make himself useful. He remained two or three years with these good people, leading a peasant's life.

While with them it was that Segantini's great inclination towards art manifested itself. "The first time I took up a pencil to draw was when I heard a mother sobbing over her dead child, saying: 'Oh that I had but her portrait, she was so beautiful.'" What this first attempt was like remains unrecorded, but the desire to study art and to see his sister again brought him back to Milan. He worked for his living by day, and studied at the evening class for ornamental drawing at the Brera. He was so poor that he got shut up by the police for a time in the Patronato for abandoned children. He escaped once, was recaptured, and taught the trade of cobbler, but he was allowed to draw, and at this moment several of his early drawings, including a portrait of King Humbert, then Prince, remain in this institution. Soon after this he entered the elementary figure class at the Academy. Here he remained only a few months, leaving it convinced that the instruction offered there was useless to those who were born artists. His antagonism to academic instruction lasted to the end, and prompted him to refuse the diploma of honorary associate which was offered to him later. He worked for money with a painter of banners while studying at the Brera, but utterly despised the work of his employer.

His first oil colors were given him by a friend, a grocer, who required him to paint a signboard. This accomplished, the remains of the color in the tubes served him to paint his first picture, the "Choir of the Church of Sant' Antonio." He could not afford a canvas, but stretched instead a sugar bag dipped in oil. This work represents the interior of a choir with carved stalls and high wainscoting, upon which the sun pours from a high window on the left. Without knowing anything of the science of divisionism, he found out that, by placing pure touches of color side by side, leaving them to fuse to the sight instead of mixing them on the palette, the effect of "more air, more light, consequently more reality," is obtainable. He says, referring to this experiment: "This secret, now a proved fact, had been perceived by painters of all times and all countries, the first of whom was Fra Angelico. It came to me through my loving and earnest study of nature, and as something personal and individual." This is the only reference we find throughout the book in Segantini's writings (which are continually quoted) to the work of the old masters. In common with all great artists, Segantini objected to scientific systems applied to art. He did not adopt divisionism as a manner until much later, and then not to the advantage of his work. The picture on the sugar-bag foundation proved a success, and obtained him the Brera silver medal, and, better still, the friendship of Vittore Grubicy, art critic and artist, whose advice and affection were of the greatest use to the young man. One of the professors at the Brera school gave Segantini a paint-box so that he could practise his loved art, and during the following years at Milan he attempted different methods and produced much work—still-life and genre pictures for the most part. The longing for the life he loved in the country again took possession of him. He had by this time married the sister of his brother artist, Carlo Bugatti, and was able to live by art, so in 1882 he took a villa at Pusiano in the Brianza, on Lake Como, and remained there for four years, finding his subjects among the peasants for whose life and toil he had the greatest sympathy.

It is impossible not to feel in the work of this period that Segantini must have been in some measure influenced by the work of Millet; his range of subjects and their treatment have such strong affinity to the work of the great French artist. Segantini, however, never saw a painting by Millet, but knew his work through a set of engravings after him given him by Signor Grubicy. These must have decided him to turn his hand to painting scenes from the life of the people around him. Notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, the life of the peasant in North Italy is most arduous, and Segantini has expressed every phase of pious resignation to a hard lot. The tie between man and beast, the common feeling of maternity in both, the fatigue of the laborer, his anxieties and cares, the very bareness of the life—all this is told in his work of this period—"Two Mothers," "In the Sheepfold," "A Prayer to the Cross," "The Blessing of the Sheep," "Sheep-Shearing," "The Potato Harvest," etc., etc. Of these works the "Ave Maria *a trasbordo*" became very popular, and has been much noticed out of Italy. It represents a flat-bottomed boat, full of sheep, with hoops for an awning, crossing a lake at evensong. The steeple from the little village on the low-lying shore across the water rings the Ave Maria; the woman holding her child in the prow bends over him in prayer, the shepherd rowing reverently bows his head. The great simplicity of the composition and the luminous effect of the sky and water are very telling. An exhibition at Milan refused to exhibit this picture in 1882, but the following year, at the Amsterdam exhibition, it received the gold medal, and has since become widely familiar. From this moment his work became known in Italy.

Segantini's method of work was very unusual. He did not make preliminary studies, but, after painting his picture, would make sketches and studies from which to correct its defects. "As you know," he wrote, "I never make sketches; because if I were to make the sketch, I should never paint the picture. Most of the artists who have painted a clever sketch have rarely painted a picture that was equal to it, or they have not painted the picture at all, because in the sketch they expressed the spiritual part of their work. I wish that the conception should be preserved in its virginity in the brain." Further on, "In a word, I desire that in the picture one should not see man's childish efforts; I want the picture to appear blended in color. Flowers are thus made. and this is the divine art." It was after the Brianza period of his work that Segantini, in his own opinion and in that of his biographer, achieved his greatest fame. After long wanderings in the Alps in search of a suitable spot from which he could come into contact with Nature in her grandest aspects, he settled at Savagnino, south of Tiefenkasten on the road to Coire. He realized that, in the rarefied air of the high Alps, where the light is so intense, it would be necessary to adopt a method of painting wholly different from that which he had used in his Brianza work; he recognized the research for light in color as the aim of modern art, and he sought to attain this by returning to divisionism and working out the theory as it seemed to suit his subjects. He painted without any adherence to systematic process, but used pointillisme as it served his purpose. It was no innovation, for the French impressionists were working for some time in this vein. He obtained by broken lines a porous texture which seemed to render the broken color and rugged Alpine surface. Another particularity of his pictures of the Alps is his point of view. He has chosen it from a high level, so that the distant peaks do not overpower the foreground or destroy the harmony of the composition. Even in the Alps, Segantini chose the milder aspects of the mountains, and made his pictures out of simple elements. He loved for his foregrounds the twisted trees which become contorted by the storms and cold, the little mountain tarns whose waters are so wonderfully blue, the grazing cattle, and a few human figures in attitudes which tell the tale, rather than any attempt at facial expression; and, far away in the distance, a line of distant peaks, which do not seem so very high, painted as they are from their own level. "Haymaking," "Alpine Pastures," "Spring Pastures," "Spring in the Alps" illustrate this period of the artist's career.

In Savagnino he made his home till about 1894, when he went up to the Maloja and settled on the highest point of the Engadine, 6,000 feet above the sea. Here he spent the last five years of his life, during which period he produced, under the influence of symbolism, fantastic pictures, the merits of which are very much open to discussion. Villari tells us how wanting in education Segantini remained, so that even to the end he never could spell, although, in Italian, spelling is far easier than with us. He wrote much to his friends, often expressing himself very well; he also wrote on art several very remarkable newspaper articles. He was fond of reading, and filled the long winter evenings with books which he did not always understand. He was ignorant of history and mythology, and never chose sub-

jects for pictures from either; but flowers he loved as well as the animals. He writes thus of animal painting:

"I wish that men should love the kindly animals, those that provide them with bed, and meat, and skins; therefore I painted 'The Two Mothers,' 'The Mothers,' and the good horse under the plough, working with man and for man. I painted toil, and rest after toil, and everywhere I painted good animals, with eyes full of gentleness. They who give everything to man—their strength, their offspring, their flesh, and their skins—are beaten and ill-treated by him; but still think that man as a rule loves them—but, above all, loves the earth, for the earth is more generous than aught else; it gives to man and beast."

Symbolism, the result of the painter's literary studies, now took possession of his mind. The works he produced under this inspiration do not seem to us to be good as art, nor do we believe that pictures should be used to preach sermons. "The Source of Evil," a nude woman looking into a mountain pool, where, instead of her reflection, she will see a serpent; "Love at the Fountain of Life," "The Angel of Life," "The Unnatural Mothers," "The Punishment of Luxury," are all of this type. During this time he also continued his landscapes, and painted the triptych, a large composition consisting of three panels, Life, Nature, and Death, with three lunettes above them, and six medallions in the angles. These Alpine landscapes, full of symbolic intention, are very realistically treated, and contain some of his best work, but even our author, who has a profound appreciation of Segantini's work, confesses that the triptych has no decorative effect, and is connected together only by a literary idea. It was for the exhibition of 1900 in Paris that Segantini was painting this last work. He hoped to take it himself, for his desire to go to France had never been realized. In order to study an effect of light, he had his picture carried to the summit of the Schafberg in the middle of September after a snow-storm had come on. There he camped in a shepherd's hut, where he was suddenly taken ill of fever. He sent a shepherd for his doctor, who came to him, as also his wife and children, but he died of peritonitis on September 28, 1899.

Segantini left but few followers. He had all his life felt isolated from his fellow-artists in Italy. He had worked alone, following assiduously the one aim of his life with great nobility of purpose.

Victorian Prose Masters. By W. C. Brownell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

We have here a collection of serious and well-considered critical essays upon Thackeray, Carlyle, George Eliot, Matthew Arnold, Ruskin, and George Meredith. The work is of a grade which invites comparison with the best critical writing. Mr. Brownell's affiliations are, in a general way, with the tradition of Sainte-Beuve and Matthew Arnold. He does not adopt Sainte-Beuve's intensive method of approach, and he does not exhibit Arnold's peculiarities of tone and manner, but his criticism is like the criticism of these masters in that it is neither impressionist nor academic. It evinces, indeed, both information and taste; it is guided by a purpose, and tempered with geniality.

The schematization is pretty much the same in all the six papers. Each begins with a section upon the vogue of the author under consideration, and then, by study of his personality, style, and ideas, attempts to reconsider earlier judgments in order to assist the orientation of twentieth-century criticism by a summary characterization and definition of the most typical prose writers of the Victorian age. There are few contemporary critics who would have adventured this difficult and delicate task so boldly, or who could have brought it to a completion so prosperous.

Considering Mr. Brownell's work as a whole, we believe that most competent readers will find in the essays upon the three novelists, Thackeray, George Eliot, and Meredith, the greatest edification and the fullest satisfaction. All Mr. Brownell's criticism is manifestly composed with an eye on the book, but this is nowhere more evident than in the essay on Thackeray. He is a thoroughgoing Thackerayan, and the wealth of allusion interspersed in his pages will render them peculiarly pleasing to his fellows in the cult. The most important contribution of his paper to the criticism of Thackeray's writings is its defence of his "reticulation of personal comment." Mr. Brownell says very happily: "It is absolutely true that Thackeray's 'subjectivity' in this way subtly increases the objectivity of his creations. They are in this way definitely 'exteriorized.' In this way we get the most vivid, the most realizing sense of them as independent existences; and in this way we get Thackeray too." To show how keen is Mr. Brownell's interest in character in fiction, and how discerning his judgment, it may be well to set over against this passage his discrimination of the peculiar quality of George Eliot's people:

"They occupy a middle ground, . . . one may say, between the personages of Thackeray, who is accused latterly of having no psychology, and those of Hawthorne, which, as Mr. James points out, are never types. This is, perhaps, why they are so rarely our companions, our intimates, as the characters of even inferior novelists are, though I imagine the reason is mainly that they are mentally rather than temperamentally individualized, and that it is the sense, the volitions, the emotions rather than the intellect of people which, in fiction as in life, attach them to us, and give them other than a quasi-scientific interest for us."

The study of Meredith will not wholly please the more ardent Meredithians, but it is surely one of the best, as it is the longest, in the book. The fundamental assumption, the cardinal heresy from the Meredithian point of view, is contained in the following sentences: "Mr. Meredith's world, however, is not the real world. It is a fantastic one, treated realistically. It is not simple enough to be real; he is not simple enough." This thesis is defended with much minuteness of citation and cogency of argument. Ample justice is done to Meredith's very great intellectual force, his subtlety of understanding, the fertility of his invention, and his occasional exhibitions of poetic insight of a very high order. But we fancy few catholic and unprejudiced readers will be found to dissent from Mr. Brownell's final opinion:

"What one misses most in his work is the large rhythm which undulates through that of the great writers, the sustained note of informing purpose, the deep vibrations of some unifying undertone, now rising to accent and emphasis, now sounding faintly beneath the multifariousness of accompanying motives, but always audible to an attentive sense as the basis, if not the burden, of the 'theme with variations' that the ensemble of every great writer's compositions constitutes. Mr. Meredith has no theme; he has a dozen, a score—as many as he has books. And this, I imagine, is the standing menace to the increase of his popularity and the permanence of his fame."

We have been lured into such copious quotations from Mr. Brownell's discussion of the novelists that small space is left for animadversions upon his treatment of Carlyle, Ruskin, and Arnold. The latter group, as compared with the former, is appreciably less conspicuous for *intimité*. The strictures upon Carlyle's "agitated thinking" and Ruskin's emotional fallacies are just, but less original and informing than the writing upon Thackeray and George Eliot. The essay upon Matthew Arnold will be to the majority of readers the most and to many the least satisfactory. A man's predilections as a critic, but in no sense his rank, may be pretty accurately determined as he prefers Arnold's verse or his prose. Mr. Brownell esteems the latter the better and higher work. His eulogy of criticism as an honorable branch of literature contains much wisdom, and will be welcome to all critics, professional or amateur. But while it is perfectly true that criticism is "a characterization of art, as art is a characterization of nature; and in characterizing, it translates as art itself translates," there is still a fundamental difference between the imaginative work of the critic and that of the "maker." This is a distinction which Arnold himself would have been the last to waive. The essay on Arnold is a curious instance of the fluidity of critical appreciations. As Mr. Brownell warms to his theme, the treatment grows increasingly sympathetic even to the point of becoming slightly inconsistent with what has gone before. Indeed, Mr. Brownell's excellent statement of the nature of Arnold's critical principles is fairly applicable to his own work: "Certain definite *ideas*, held with elastic firmness, but not developed into any set of procrustean principles, formed his *credo*, and his criticism consisted in the application of these as a test and measure of quality and worth."

Enough of Mr. Brownell's work has been quoted to convey some notion not only of his quality as a critic, but also of his skill in the composition of English prose. Of the rhythmical graces of prose he is not very careful, and his style is marred by the excessive and somewhat vague use of current words like "notable"; but in general his writing is exceptional in its precise propriety of diction, the fit expression of the vigor and lucidity of his thought.

George Whitefield, M.A., Field Preacher. By James Paterson Gledstone. Second Edition. New York: American Tract Society. 1901.

Mr. Gledstone's book is at the same time interesting and unsatisfactory. It is a good story of Whitefield's life, told in an easy and attractive style. But the treatment is extremely superficial. We get little account of the conditions under which Whitefield did his work, less of the substance of his message or of its practical effects,

and much less than we desire or need of Wesley's contemporary work. It may be said that we should be satisfied with one of these persons at a time, but it is impossible to understand either without much reference to the other. There is little explication of the terrible quarrel between Wesley and Whitefield as to the relative merits of Arminianism and Calvinism. We are made witnesses to a great battle, but the field is rolled in smoke, and we would gladly have Mr. Gledstone

"tell us all about the war,
And what they killed each other for."

We know that election was set off against free grace, but we would fain be made wiser as to the bearing of the opposing views on the moral influence of the one evangelist and the other. Wesley had a more irritating manner than Whitefield, but nothing could be more unlovely than the way in which Whitefield dips his personal rebuke in pious phrases when he would drive it home. We are hardly justified in blaming the writer of one book for not writing another, but those who have read Miss Julia Wedgwood's 'John Wesley' will certainly wish that Mr. Gledstone had brought to his subject something of Miss Wedgwood's searching psychological analysis.

As touching Wesley, Mr. Gledstone's manner is that of mild depreciation. Yet he nowhere tells us, what was certainly the fact, that Wesley's preaching, far more intellectual and less emotional than Whitefield's, was responsible for much more terrible exhibitions of hysteria and that sort of thing—faintings, shriekings, convulsions, and the like. Wesley would seem to have been more superstitious than Whitefield in his resort to sortilege and in other particulars. In fact, when Wesley opened the Bible at a text which he interpreted as a command for Whitefield to stay in England, Whitefield sailed away as if there had been no heavenly interdict. Wesley's experience in Georgia, had Whitefield been aware of it, might have deterred him from going there as could not any chance-drawn Bible text. It is with evident satisfaction that Mr. Gledstone writes that Charles Wesley was so much a High Churchman that he made careful arrangements to be buried in consecrated ground, and was actually buried in the only corner of St. Marylebone churchyard that had not been consecrated.

The greatest injustice to John Wesley is that of withholding his opinion of slavery—"the sum of all villainies"—when Mr. Gladstone is frankly setting forth the relations of Whitefield to the peculiar institution. These, however, he does not obscure, but exhibits them in their unqualified ugliness; nor does he make any apology for them whatsoever. It must certainly suggest a doubt as to the reality of Whitefield's religiousness to find him using all his influence to break down the provisions hostile to the importation of rum and slaves into Georgia, and rejoicing in his success, himself purchasing slaves as a source of profit to his darling orphan asylum. The curiosities of piety have few more questionable examples than Whitefield's letters on this head. "But Providence," says Mr. Gledstone, "had a strange revenge for Whitefield's fault, for in the house next to that in which he died at Newbury Port [*sic*] Garrison was born, and over the ramparts of Fort Sumter, Charleston, S. C., from which the first shot was fired by the South on the Federal flag, Garrison . . . had the joy of seeing that flag raised again as the symbol of liberty for all, black and white alike." On the other side of the Garrison birthplace is the church in which Whitefield was buried. It is a stranger thing than the birth of Garrison in the shadow of Whitefield's tomb that from the English Evangelicals who were the sons of Whitefield's thunder, should have come Wilberforce, Venn, Macaulay, and their coadjutors in the destruction of West Indian slavery, and a sympathy which did much to encourage the American abolitionists in times of fiery trial. The absorption of Whitefield's influence into the Episcopal and other churches of England and America, in contrast with Wesley's creation of a new organization, is the more remarkable when we consider that, in the case of the Episcopal Church, Wesley's views were much more congenial to it than Whitefield's.

Whitefield's silly side towards women folk was not so abnormally developed as Wesley's, but his relations with them were sufficiently absurd. In his first wooing he "made no great profession," and assured the lady's parents that "his heart was free from that foolish passion which the world calls love." What he wanted was a good housekeeper; but the lady did not care to marry on such terms. Finally, he married a widow, ten years his senior, "once gay, but for three years last past a despised follower of the Lamb." Hers was at best only a semi-detached relation to the great itinerant. There was more humanity in his welcome to a little son, but not much when the child died only a week old: "I blessed the Father of Mercies for giving me a son, continuing it to me so long, and taking it from me so soon." And in many other places we seem to miss the accent of entire sincerity.

The Mental Functions of the Brain: An Investigation into their Localization and their Manifestation in Health and Disease. By Bernard Hollender, M.D., L.R.C.P., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 507, plates xxiv.

Twenty years ago the possible determination of cerebral centres was still an issue. To-day motor areas are well mapped out, and surgery works backward from effects to causes when affording mechanical relief. Most psychologists draw a line between pure mental action and that which merely leads to muscular effort, because this may be induced by mechanical irritation in an unconscious subject. They would hold paralysis of the admitted speech-centre to bear upon the expression, not the function, of intellection, and are not willing to acknowledge thoughts and emotion-centres. Now the will may not lie in a motor centre, but it must be intimately connected with it, and, as Ferrier puts it, "the motor centres have a psychical significance, and form, as it were, the motor substrata of the mind." Perhaps the generally accepted doctrine may be expressed thus: A definite zone of the cerebral cortex is closely associated with motor functions, but this is also partly motor and partly sensory, and motion may not actually originate in it; and in effect the origin of motion lies in three positions, viz., (1) in the highest level of conscious thought, (2) in an area of the cortex technically known as the Rolandic, (3) in the gray matter of the spinal cord, so that automatic and memory motion may remain after the destruction of the area in which conscious thought arises. The literature of the subject thus recognizes general spheres of action, besides which well-defined local areas governing special outlying regions are acknowledged.

General medical opinion limits the functions of the cerebellum to those of co-ordination, and assigns the reasoning powers to the pre-frontal area, although some modern writers maintain that the intellectual centres lie in the posterior lobes. Indeed, the conception of the mind itself is not identical among all; some limit it to the understanding, while others, as we think with propriety, include the emotions or propensities which supply motives. Nearly all psychologists and alienists look upon the entire brain as the organ of the mind at large. They recognize that the judgment controls or is mastered by the emotions, as the case may be, and also that the intellect may be occupied with the highest problems of pure reason with which the emotions have no concern. But they do not teach that these various elements have specific habitats, and, notwithstanding that when the mind has been awry necropsies may disclose brain lesions, they do not yet assume to anticipate (except within very narrow limits) what mental consequences will follow local damage. Insanity presumes a diseased brain, but that such disease may be demonstrated in any particular lobe, or at all, is quite another matter. In fact, the latest American text-book teaches that: "As is true of mania, there is also no known pathological anatomy for melancholia. It is a functional disorder of the brain. . . ." That is, although the brain is the organ of the mind, such mental disorders pertain to the operation of the brain, not necessarily to its constitution. The mechanism needs regulating, not repairing; and this implies derangement of the entire machinery, showing itself sometimes in one and sometimes in another way. In other words, as applied to the mind at large, the character of a mental disorder cannot be deduced from any particular injury or local disease in advance of its manifestation. To this there are obvious exceptions, as when there is general softening or great destruction of brain tissue; but the foregoing may be accepted as the common doctrine of mental pathology.

Francis Joseph Gall (1758-1828), an enthusiastic and intelligent physician, was also an anatomist of painstaking and original observation. His great work on the nervous system, particularly of the head, is a treasure-house of important discoveries from which is drawn much of the medical science of to-day. It is hard to realize that when his investigations were begun, no connection between the brain and the mind was recognized, and even much later the Edinburgh *Review* said editorially: "There is not the smallest reason for supposing that the mind ever operates through the agency of any material organ." It must therefore be remembered that Gall was not only a scientific anatomist, but a discoverer in anatomy at the very head of the modern explorers of the nervous system, that he very

widely extended the realms of exact knowledge therein, and that what were his original demonstrations are now the common property of medical science. His observations led him to believe that the gray matter of the brain is the seat of all mental and, indeed, moral activity, that it embraces separate but associated centres, each possessing special functions, and that the growing brain moulds the skull, its protecting shell. Further, he sought to define these centres and to determine their development and retrogression under physiological and pathological influences. He particularly sought to compare regional brain development, as shown by the size and shape of the cranium, with the apparent mental capacity of the same subject, and thus to lay the foundation of a physiology of the brain. He invariably designated his study that of the functions of the brain. The term phrenology, which is good enough for the purpose, was an invention of Spurzheim's, which Gall did not use, nor, as taught by the inventor, accept as a system.

With no previous topographical anatomy of the brain surface upon which to define their provinces, his localizations were sometimes vague, sometimes inadequate. He determined the shape of the head that seemed connected with certain exaggerated qualities, and, reasoning *a posteriori*, gradually constructed a brain-plan consonant therewith. He did not at first try to analyze the fundamental power of any individual faculty or group. That is, Gall did not found a psychology; he endeavored to show that certain general regions, and in a few instances certain special localities, were endowed with particular powers, meaning to leave the work of filling in details for those who should come after. In so far as Spurzheim, Combe, and others attempted to analyze the different faculties, they built upon Gall's foundation. Whether this was well or ill is of no consequence here, but it is quite certain that that work was begun prematurely, and was carried on unadvisedly, to the great anoyance of the philosopher.

The author of the present work, of which the sub-title is "The Revival of Phrenology," presents a clinical record and analysis of eight hundred collected cases of brain disease, which, whatever one may think of the abstract doctrine, merit close consideration by those to whom the mental health of the community is intrusted. We think they go far towards maintaining the soundness of the general proposition, and they give hints for treatment during life, and furnish material for reflection after the termination of the case. Particularly interesting is the association central area of the parietal lobe. But to discuss the professional bearing of these records would be out of place here. We cannot say as much for the style of the book as for its matter. The composition is often marred by violence of expression, and its appearance is disfigured by a multitude of italicised words and sentences. The quotations are numerous and nearly all apt, but many cannot be verified for want of exact reference. Some of the plates are beautiful reductions from the great atlas of Gall, but others are irrelevant portraits of distinguished men, like Boccaccio, Fox, Cardinal Manning. The index is copious, but neither well arranged nor complete.

Essays and Addresses. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

These papers would make the reputation of a new writer, but they will not add to that which Mr. Birrell has already acquired. The subjects are not generally such as to call for the exercise of that lightness of touch, that lambent play of humor, which captivated the readers of 'Obiter Dicta'; and when they are, as in the case of the House of Commons, we seem to detect a certain weariness, or at least a lack of the joyousness with which the author revelled over Gibbon or Benvenuto Cellini. Perhaps it was necessary to handle such worthies as John Wesley and Sir Robert Peel, such honored men as Bagehot and Browning, and such a contemporary as Froude, with sobriety; but while Mr. Birrell can write soberly as well as any one, we love him best when he is in his mood of merry mischief.

Is it because mysticism is incompatible with humor that Mr. Birrell's attitude has changed? To the ordinary mind, mysticism presents many incongruities, which to the mystic are sacred mysteries, not to be treated lightly. Certainly no one can read the essays entitled "The Christian Evidences," and "What, Then, Did Happen at the Reformation?" without feeling that Mr. Birrell is a sincere mystic. For, if these essays signify anything, it is that their author is more than half convinced of the truth of the doctrine of Transubstantiation. "Nobody nowadays," he says, "save a handful of vulgar fanatics, speaks irreverently of the Mass. If the incarnation be indeed the one divine event to which the whole creation moves, the miracle of the altar may well seem its restful shadow cast over a dry and thirsty land for the help of man, who is apt to be discouraged if perpetually told that everything really important and interesting happened, once for all, long ago in a chill historic past." The "tinkle of that bell" is "a sound carrying with it a richer freight of religious association than any other sound or incident of Christian worship." To a mind in this state, the Christian evidences, or Christian apologetics, constitute a dreary section of literature. "Paleyism is as dead as Queen Anne." Substitute "atmosphere" for "evidence," and Mr. Birrell is more at ease. To deny the existence of atmosphere in the realm of thought is "proof of blunted susceptibilities."

"It is obvious that a man who does not wish to break with Christianity, yet finds it out of the question to believe, in any downright honest sense, in the creed of Christendom, can find no shelter more convenient, less jarring and disagreeable, than an ancient, time-worn ritual, which gives dim expression to ghostly ideas, shadowy, symbolical, sacramental notions of sin, sacrifice, and atonement—ideas which possess the advantage of never coming into contact with the so-called realities of history, and elude as gracefully as a wreath of white smoke the grasp of proof."

Speaking reverently, it is obvious that a man who will believe this will believe anything—that is, anything that suits him. Nevertheless, the doctrine that truth is a matter of atmosphere has aspects that lend themselves to humorous treatment. No one could demonstrate this better than Mr. Birrell himself, were he in the mood for it; but, with his view of religion, even fetishism must be reverentially handled. In his essay on Bagehot—naturally most appreciative, for Bagehot declared in favor of mysticism—Mr. Birrell says: "It is a great shame, but one always remembers the playfulness of a writer—some purely human touch of his—so much better than one does his philosophy or history." We venture to say that the world will think it no shame to remember Mr. Birrell's playfulness long after it has forgotten his attempts at philosophizing and at rewriting the history of the Reformation.

A Dictionary of English and Welsh Surnames, with Special American Instances. By the late Charles Wareing Bardsley, M.A. Revised for the Press by his Widow. Henry Frowde. 1901.

'Bardsley's English Surnames, their Sources and Significations,' first appeared in 1873, and has been ever since the principal book of reference on the subject with which it deals. It ran through several editions during the author's lifetime. Though a number of other corresponding treatises have been subsequently written, none of them has ranked beside Bardsley's work, to say nothing of superseding it. But 'English Surnames' was never intended by the author as his final contribution on this theme. It was offered to the public rather as a preliminary study, a kind of report of progress, in the preparation of an extensive dictionary. For this larger work Canon Bardsley continued to collect materials almost up to the time of his death, in 1898, and his widow was busily occupied for two years more in preparing his manuscript for the press. The result of all these labors is the volume under review—a dictionary of some eight hundred closely printed pages, which attempts for the first time to deal in a fairly inclusive way with the history of English surnames. The introduction, written by the author in 1896, discusses briefly methods of investigation, and provides a general classification of the material in the dictionary. A preface, giving some account of Mr. Bardsley's life and work, is contributed by his brother, the Bishop of Carlisle.

In the field of study represented by this dictionary, completeness of treatment was hardly to be thought of. Many names will naturally be sought in vain in Mr. Bardsley's pages, and many variants of the names discussed are left unrecorded. Certain classes of names (as, for example, those which have obtained a special currency in Ireland because of their resemblance to Gaelic surnames) might, perhaps, have been more fully treated. But it will be easy for later compilers to add to the results obtained by the pioneer, whose dictionary will always remain a monument of industry and good judgment. He has not only brought together a great mass of material and placed it within convenient reach of the student, but his discussion of it is in the main very trustworthy. There must, in the nature of the case, be plenty of doubtful matter in such a volume. Mr. Bardsley, too, had certain limitations as a scientific etymologist—limitations of which he was well aware and which he expressly avows. Here and there a phrase or an observation betrays lack of philological training, as when he says, in his introduction, that *Sawyer, Napier,* and *Hathaway* contain an intrusive vowel "for euphony." This carries one back to the old explanations of the French *a-t-il,* with *t* inserted "for euphony" or "to prevent hiatus." But such statements

impair very slightly the value of the book, which is singularly free, on the whole, from the kind of errors that mislead students and check the progress of knowledge. Mr. Bardsley had no pet theories to which he tried to make his evidence conform. He showed no predilection for Norman derivations, like the author of 'The Norman People' (London, 1874), or for traces of Scandinavian influence, like Barber in a more recent treatise on 'British Family Names' (London, 1894). He collected his proofs impartially, and then spread them liberally before the reader, who is thus able to control him at every step. The more we have examined the book and sought to sift his evidence, the more we have been impressed both with the candid spirit of the investigator and with the really vast amount of special learning which he accumulated in his lifetime of labor on his favorite subject.

The Blessing of the Waters on the Eve of the Epiphany: The Greek, Latin, Syriac, Coptic, and Russian Versions, edited or translated by John, Marquess of Bute, and E. A. Wallis Budge. Henry Frowde. 1901. Pp. viii+158.

This little book, which has become a memorial to the late Marquess of Bute, may fairly be regarded as an appendix to his translation of the Roman Breviary. It connects with the note there in volume i., page 264, on the Feast of the Epiphany. Throughout, apparently, the universal Oriental Church there is celebrated, between the service of the Eve of the Epiphany and the day itself, a very singular and beautiful ritual which commemorates the Adoration of the Magi, the Baptism in Jordan, and the turning of water into wine at Cana. These are regarded as three different manifestations of Christ, and are brought together on this day. But the two latter manifestations are connected with water, and the Oriental Church has known how to weave them into a general blessing of the waters—in the first instance, apparently, of the waters of the world, as represented in a single river—the Nile in Egypt and the Neva at St. Petersburg; and, in the second, of water to be used for lustration. Whether we have here a survival of some fragment of nature-worship woven into the Christian service, or merely a development, through instinctive poetry, from that service, it might be hard to say. Of the beauty of the ritual there can be no question.

In the Roman Church until recently the same ceremony survived, and in equally striking, if hardly so naïvely poetical, form. But it was performed in certain churches only, and made no part of the regular ritual of the Church. Now all that has been cut away, and in 1890 a form was approved by the Congregation of Sacred Rites, which abandons entirely the usage of the Church, Eastern and Western, and turns this rich and many-colored office into a most ordinary form for the consecration of holy water to be used against evil spirits. The historical allusions are swept away with the feeling for Nature and her travailings, and we have instead some most crude magical formulæ. There is a mournful and not too dutiful tone in the note of the Marquess of Bute where he—loyal son of the Church as he was—draws attention to its "entire variance from the ancient form."

This book can be heartily commended, not only to students of liturgics, but also to all who care to trace the movements of faith. Our only regret is that the forms of the Abyssinian and Armenian Churches have not been added; as things are, these are inaccessible enough. That of the Gregorian Church of Armenia, with its pre-Monophysite attitude, and its celebration of the Birth at Epiphany, would be of especial interest.

The Great Deserts and Forests of North America. By Paul Fountain. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. x, 295.

This is certainly an unusual kind of book. It appears to contain the reminiscences of an English travelling peddler and collector of natural-history specimens through various parts of the West and Southwest regions of the United States, at a period some twenty-five years ago. The author, by his own account, was, if not a cripple, at least somewhat infirm about the legs, and could ride only on a specially made saddle. While not illiterate (for his narrative, if unpretentious, is easy and pleasantly written), he was a man of no training in science, and his observations contain more and more varied misinformation than we have ever come across in any single volume in many years. Almost the whole book is devoted to observations on natural history. It is surprising how any man of such experience in outdoor life, love of nature, and obvious intelligence could have been so ignorant and so credulous as this narrative indicates. And yet he was no fool, and was possessed by the love of the open field and forest, never killed wild animals wantonly, and, we are convinced, must have been a delightful chum for a wagon journey out into the wilderness.

The book is a most interesting psychological study. The errors of observation with which it literally teems, and the absurd explanations of geological and biological facts are, of course, obvious chiefly to readers of some technical training. But if one can overcome his natural reluctance to spend time reading absurdities retailed in perfect good faith and modest complacency, the glimpse into the workings of a mind entirely uninformed in science, untrained to accurate observation, subjected to the impressions of the almost untravelled wilderness, and taking a hearty enjoyment therein, has a charm and a novelty rare in these sophisticated days. The book is, in many things, absurd; it is multitudinously erroneous; it is comical; yet it is pathetically interesting. When we are done with it, we feel an affection for the author, for we are aware that, in communicating his observations to the public without a trace of vanity or dogmatism, he has succeeded in giving us, all unconsciously, glimpses of a truly lovable soul.

Great Epochs in Art History. By James M. Hoppin, lately Professor of Yale University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901. Pp. 247.

Professor Hoppin's book is a collection of essays divisible into four distinct epochs of art history. Half the volume is devoted to Italian religious painting; the essays or chapters being arranged partly with reference to geographical subdivision, and partly by artistic subject. Thus, the chapter on the Franciscan Cycle is followed rather closely by one devoted to S. Gimignano, and one on Prato, Pistoia, and Arezzo. A very short division is devoted to the sculptor Scopas; another, hardly longer, to French Gothic architecture; and a discussion of English Pre-Raphaelites completes the volume.

The papers are of the nature of contemplative reëxamination of one's own experiences. During his twenty years' incumbency of the professorship of art history at New Haven, Professor Hoppin has seen much fine art, and has meditated upon its significance; and it may not be incorrect to characterize this book as a collection of those thoughts which seemed to him the most valuable, either separately or in their combination. The essay-like character of the book is explained in this way, and its lack of systematic treatment largely justified. It is, of course, better reading for the majority of readers—that is to say, for all those who have no immediate purpose in their consideration of art problems—than if the work were more scientifically constructed, and the thought evolved with more complete and more visible precision. The reader has, then, only this to complain of, that the very numerous quotations from modern authors with which the text is interspersed, are not credited to their authors. It is really a vexation when one finds a sentence of value printed as a quotation, to have its ascription limited to "a contemporary," or simply "a writer."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbatt, William. Memoirs of Major-General Heath. William Abbatt.
Almanach de Gotha. 1902. Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac for 1902. The Scoville & Adams Co. 75 cents.
Bachelor Bigotries. By an Old Maid. San Francisco: Commercial Publishing Co.
Bassett, J. S. The Writings of "Colonel William Byrd of Westover in Virginia, Esqr." Doubleday, Page & Co. $10.
Blok, P. J. Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk. Part V. Groningen: G. B. Wolters.
Bridges, Robert. Milton's Prosody. Henry Frowde. $1.75.
Brotanek, Rudolf. Die Englischen Maskenspiele. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Cameron, J. H. The Elements of French Composition. H. Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Dante Alighieri. The Purgatorio. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Dressler, Florence. Feminology. Chicago: C. L. Dressler.
Gilliat, E. God Save King Alfred. Macmillan. $2.
Housman, Laurence. The Field Clover. John Lane. $1.25.
Journal of Social Science, Containing the Proceedings of the American Association, No. XXXIX. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Kerley, C. G. Short Talks with Young Mothers. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lumby, J. R., and McKnight, G. H. King Horn, Floriz and Blauncheflur, The Assumption of Our Lady. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Mannix, Mary E. A Life Labyrinth. Notre Dame (Ind.): The Ave Maria. $1.25.
Martin, Jules. Nos Artistes: Annuaire des Théâtres et Concerts, 1901-1902. Paris: Paul Ollendorff. 3 fr. 5c.
Milton, John. Poems. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.20.
O'Brien, R. B. The Life of Lord Russell of Killowen. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Olmsted, E. W. A Selection from the Comedies of Marivaux. Macmillan.
Rawnsley, H. D. Ruskin and the English Lakes. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 5s.
Rhees, W. J. The Smithsonian Institution: Its Origin and History. Vol. II. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Snaith, J. C. Love's Itinerary. D. Appleton & Co.
Stringer, G. A., and Eliza C. The King and the Cross. Boston: Eastern Pub. Co.
Sturgis, Russell. A Dictionary of Architecture and Building, O—Z. Macmillan.
Wormeley, Katharine P. Letters of Mlle. de Lespinasse. (Versailles Edition.) Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.
Wormeley, Katharine P. Memoirs and Letters of Cardinal de Bernis. (Versailles Edition.) 2 vols. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.

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Net Surplus	**1,310,131.57**
Total	**$13,370,862.75**

INCOME IN 1901.

Premiums	$2,311,561.64
Interest, Rents and other Receipts	738,610.89
Total Income	3,050,172.53

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Dividends to Policy-holders	194,169 24	
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Total Disbursements and Balance		$3,050,172,53

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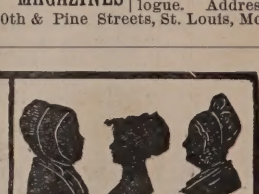

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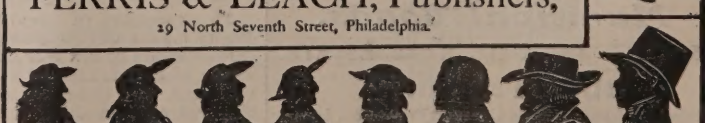

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 9, 1902.

The Week.

The Panama Canal directors had a meeting on Saturday, and voted to offer their property to the United States for $40,000,000, the price named by our Isthmian Canal Commission as the value of the property to us. There has been no doubt that the French company would come to this decision. The property they hold, except the Panama Railroad, is of no value to them unless they go on and finish the canal. But they cannot get the money for this purpose if the United States is building, or even contemplates building, another Isthmian canal. The logic of the situation has, therefore, been very simple ever since the report of our Commission was made. Logic equally requires that our Commission should now advise the President to recommend to Congress the acceptance of the offer. Assuming that the price asked by the French Company is satisfactory, the advantages of the Panama route are: (1) less cost by $6,000,000; (2) shorter distance by 134 miles; (3) smaller operating expense after completion by $1,300,000 per year; (4) natural harbors at both termini, which are wanting on the Nicaragua route; (5) a completed railway, which insures a prompt beginning of the work; two years would be required to make equal preparations at Nicaragua. These facts are set forth in plain terms by the Commission, and they have not been contradicted by the advocates of the Nicaragua route. The arguments in favor of the latter are mainly of the sentimental kind. We ought to build on the Nicaragua line because we have always intended to, because an American company began work there several years ago, and because it is the patriotic thing to do. We are told also that it is not wise to listen to the Panama offer because the railroads are pushing it forward in order to create delay—as though the railroad men would favor the shortest and cheapest line, and the one which can be operated at the smallest cost. Such fustian may carry the Hepburn bill through the House, but it is certain that that measure will not pass the Senate for mere reasons of spread-eagleism.

Senator Lodge's Philippines bill, which is to serve as a basis of discussion for the Senate and the House, is rather remarkable for what it fails to say than for what it says. It is, in effect, an enabling act, a kind of vote of confidence in the Taft Commission, to which it grants most of the powers specified in Commissioner Taft's recent report. "We trust our Commission," is the implication of the bill. "We intrust to it such troublesome matters as the government of Filipino communes, the disposition of public lands, the purchase of church property—in short, all these things we turn over in full confidence to our trusty Commission." The bill will undoubtedly be urged on these grounds. But is this Administration measure so complete a vote of confidence? Why, in either house, has no attention been paid to the most pressing recommendation of the Philippines Commission, namely, that the customs duties for the islands should be fixed at one-half the Dingley schedule? This was concrete. It regarded a more urgent situation than the making of highways or the purchase of church lands. Were the Commissioners sages when they spoke for the upland, but fools when they touched the gates of trade? The case, of course, is this: we are willing, in the difficult administration of these new possessions, to take any trouble that is not troublesome to a Senator or a Representative, or their constituents.

While no one can sympathize with soldiers who desert their flag and take service with the enemy, the document published on Saturday, signed by nine Americans, urging their fellow-soldiers to desert to the Filipinos, is one which cannot be overlooked. It is the Government's misfortune that the statements of these deserters as to the nature of the war of invasion being carried on in the islands are true. More and more testimony is forthcoming that the Filipinos are defending themselves against the American invasion "in the same manner in which our forefathers did against England in those glorious days of our grand and noble liberator, Gen. George Washington." While this document is plainly more than a year old, the rumors of frequent American desertions continue. One press dispatch recently attributed the stubbornness of the Filipino defence in Samar to the presence in that island of fifty American deserters, a hardly credible statement. None the less, it is a fact that an increasing number of officers and men in the service dislike what seems to them the hopeless task of subjugating the Filipinos, and think themselves fortunate when able to board transports for home. It is hardly necessary to say that the proper way for them to record their protests is by leaving the service properly and stating their views to the public.

Senator Hoar of Massachusetts delivered an address on "The Composition of American Citizenship," in the lecture course of the Young Men's Catholic Association of Boston, the other evening. Incidentally he expressed the opinion that the greatest honor ever paid to any nation in this world by another was the declaration by Japan, last summer, that she owes everything she is to us. He said that he deemed the two most glorious actions in our history, and among the most glorious actions in all history, to have been the declaration of our own independence, and the raising of Japan to her feet among the nations of the earth. He proceeded to declare his disbelief that "the American people are to be permanently in a frame of mind to blot out or wipe out either," and he considers that we have made temporarily a terrible mistake in departing from our traditional policy in the Philippines. On this point he spoke with great clearness and cogency:

> "I believe that, if our republic, with its might and irresistible force, had done with the Philippine people as we had done with Japan, its action would have found a response in what is best, and not in what is worst, in human nature. They would today be listening to our counsel, and informing themselves by our example. Their schools and universities would be filled with youth studying our language and history, fitting themselves to learn the great and noble story of the men who builded this republic. We should already have made of them a brave, honorable, and noble people, looking upon the present with satisfaction, and upon the future with hope. If, instead of that, they are exhibiting the traits which belong to weakness and subjection, it is we who are largely responsible. If the Filipino be treacherous, it is we that have made him treacherous; if he be cruel, it is we that have made him cruel; if he be savage, it is we that have dashed the cup of liberty and civilization from his lips."

Mr. T. Estrada Palma has been elected the first President of the Cuban Republic. In the eyes of Americans he ought to be the one best fitted to fill that position. He was the man who did most to enlist their sympathies in the movement to expel Spain from the island. Even those who did not approve of the war itself, were compelled to acknowledge that Mr. Palma was the chief organizer in this country of the public opinion which carried Congress off its feet and finally forced Mr. McKinley into the war party against his will. Therefore, Mr. Palma has a claim to be heard in the present crisis of Cuban affairs. In a widely published interview he says:

> "I will ask, with every expectation of the request being granted, that a reasonable reduction shall be made in the duty on sugar and tobacco, the two staples of Cuban agriculture. If this reduction is granted, the prosperity of Cuba will be immediate and great. If it is denied, it will mean ruin. There will be $500,000,000 employed in the sugar and tobacco industries, all of which will be lost if the American door is closed. The fields of Cuba will be desolated, and the sugar mills will be ruined just as thoroughly as they were by the Spanish incendiaries."

It is to be hoped that means will be

found to extend the needed relief at once. This is not the proverbial case where he gives twice who gives quickly, but one where he who does not give quickly gives not at all. The help must apply to the present crop. If we wait till next June, we might as well wait till next January. Bankruptcy and despair will overtake the planters; beggary and starvation will be the portion of their laborers. We have deprived Cuba of her Spanish market, and have not given her anything in exchange for it. We owe her at least what we took from her, and we are bound in honor to pay the debt in time to save her from ruin.

Germany's "little bill" about to be presented to Venezuela at the point of a bayonet, is, in part at least, made up of private claims of German citizens, and of defaulted interest on Venezuelan bonds. It is thus not wholly a question of infringement of the rights of Germans in Venezuela, or of the failure of the Venezuelan Government to live up to its contracts with foreigners. It is really this aspect of the matter, rather than a supposed disrespect for the Monroe Doctrine, which makes the German attitude important from the point of view of international law. No one questions the right of a nation to interfere for the purpose of collecting debts due its subjects abroad; but it has not hitherto been considered good policy to do so. England has washed her hands of such undertakings, on the ground that it would lead to endless friction, and keep even her great navy too busy. An unofficial council of foreign bondholders has existed for years in London, mainly to attend to exactly such delinquencies in South American and Oriental countries as Germany is now complaining of in Venezuela. If the German Government is deliberately to turn itself into a debt-collecting agency, it will have its hands full.

Advocates of the extension of the referendum will find little encouragement in an analysis of the official election returns from the four States in which Constitutional amendments were submitted in November. In none of the four States did one-third of the voters who went to the polls express their views on the proposed amendments. In Pennsylvania, where the campaigning was exceptionally earnest, the largest proportion, nearly 31 per cent., was recorded; but in Maryland only about one in five of those who voted showed any interest in the amendments, and in Virginia only about one in eight. Comparison of the vote in New York is not feasible, as the tickets bore no nominee for a State office, but in New York County the total vote on the amendment rose to the unusual proportion of 55 per cent. of the vote cast for Mayor. In Virginia the voters had the excuse that their labor might be in vain, as a Constitutional Convention was in session; but as to the other States, the only explanation is the ignorance or indifference of a large majority of the voters.

In some of the large cities to be specially affected by the approval of the pending amendments, a greater measure of interest was shown, and yet in those cities the Aldermanship of a ward was a more engaging issue than even a measure for the purification of the ballot. There appeared, too, the usual variation in the votes for the several amendments, according to their order on the ballot, even when one amendment was cognate to another. Thus, in Baltimore, where two amendments, affecting the representation of that city in the Legislature, necessarily went together, one received about 2,500 more votes than the other. Three of the counties in the State ratified one of these amendments and rejected the other; and if the entire State had voted that way, much confusion would have resulted, and Baltimore might have been deprived for a time of all representation. As it was, the amendments were approved by the large vote in the city—about 41 per cent. of the total—against a small adverse vote in most of the counties, and the Constitution was changed in an important particular by the affirmative vote of about 33,000 electors out of nearly 300,000 persons on the registry lists.

Those trades-unionists who have impugned the motives of the labor delegates to the recent meeting of the National Civic Federation must find their extreme views rebuked by the report of Mr. Gompers concerning the objects and work of that body, for it is unusually wise and moderate. While he stanchly upholds what he conceives to be the rights of labor, he admits that the new movement cannot be expected to abolish strikes and lockouts. All that can reasonably be looked for is that some such conflicts may be avoided when capital and labor mutually recognize each other's rights to a greater degree than they now do. One point of special interest in Mr. Gompers's report is his opinion of compulsory arbitration. The demand for such arbitration, he says, comes from "some mistaken friends" of the labor movement. The whole trend of his remarks is against State interference in industrial conflicts, and in favor of voluntary settlement of labor disputes by methods of conciliation.

Mayor Low's message to the Board of Aldermen illustrates once more the skill with which this shrewd student of municipal problems strikes at the very heart of the matter with which he has to deal. Postponing for a month a thorough discussion of city affairs, he devotes his opening address entirely to the question of blackmail in the conduct of the government, and declares that against this iniquitous system in all its forms his Administration will wage open war. He announces that no citizen or employee, from the largest corporation to the poorest bootblack, need pay one dime for protection from harm or for securing just treatment at the hands of the city government; he promises that the whole force of the Administration will be exerted, "continuously, aggressively, and in every possible way," to prevent and punish this sort of iniquity; and he asks the coöperation of the citizens and of the city employees in breaking up "the whole foul system." There is something inspiring about this ringing appeal to the public, "for the city's sake and for democracy's sake." Nothing about the new city Administration is more refreshing than the relations of frankness and openness which have already been established between the officials and the people. Not only have the Mayor and the heads of departments nothing to conceal; they are glad to take the public into their confidence, as Mr. Low did in his statement on Friday evening about the reported attempt by Tammany to secure control of the Board of Aldermen by bribery. The same spirit is manifested all around.

District Attorney Jerome has already begun an inquiry into the corrupt methods of furnishing supplies, and particularly hose, to the Fire Department, for which Commissioner Scannell and his go-between, Marks, were indicted. His action in referring the matter to the Municipal Affairs Committee of the City Club indicates a praiseworthy intention to utilize this and similar public-spirited bodies, like the Merchants' Association, in his effort to improve municipal conditions, so far as it is his duty and opportunity to do so. President Cantor and Superintendent Stewart have already signified a like intention of consulting the various architectural and fine-arts leagues and other bodies which exist for the improvement of the city. The Low Administration has wisely recognized the fact that citizens have a right to be heard in these matters, and that there is no excuse for the neglect and indifference with which protestants were treated by the Van Wyck Government. By calling in public-spirited organizations to help in beautifying the city, or in finding out the corruption in the various departments, whether in supplying asphalt, stone pavements, or fire hose, the new city and county authorities have hit upon one of the best ways of enlisting public sympathy and guaranteeing the thoroughness of their work.

The constant vigilance which is the price of civic beauty is illustrated in Paris in a movement to encourage the production of artistic signs. Initiated by the eminent military painter Detaille, the idea has been received favorably by the civic authorities, and there is every likelihood that some of the best painters and sculptors in Paris will lend their assistance to the work. There has of late been a feeling that Paris, beautiful as it is in its proportions, has become too uniform and monotonous. The present Prefect of the Seine has somewhat relaxed the strict censorship of the façades of new houses, in the hope that the city will gradually regain the picturesque aspect which it had before the Haussmann dispensation. The movement for artistic signs is inspired by this same spirit. M. Detaille feels that if the tradesmen will generally return to the habit of putting out distinctive signs, painted or sculptured, and the best artists will lend a hand, this will be the ideal manner of bringing art to the people. The idea is an admirable one, but its execution will involve a curious paradox. To have painted a sign-board, as many artists have done, is to a great artist what to have been a barefoot boy is to a multimillionaire. The Parisians may yet see grave members of the Institute repeating, out of sheer public spirit, the tasks to which formerly only sheer necessity could have driven them.

Comptroller Coler has been the most interesting figure of the municipal Administration which is just retiring. He began his career as a surprise, developed into a mystery, and ends as a disappointment. Mr. Coler was unknown to the city when he was nominated on the Tammany ticket in the autumn of 1897, and not much was expected of him when he was elected. But he turned out to be a most industrious official, whose activity was for a long time exerted in the public interest, without any evidence that he was trying to serve personal ends. His prompt and earnest opposition to the Ramapo job was of immense value in arousing the public and in solidifying sentiment against the swindle. His exposures of Tammany extravagance were also illuminating and serviceable. In fact, if his term had been only two years, he might have retired at the end of 1899 with a splendid record. Ambition for higher office overcame him. Until some time after the opening of 1900, he regarded it as his duty to serve out the term of four years for which he had been elected, and considered that it would be a breach of his obligation to the people if he should surrender the place to Tammany. But the passion for advancement took possession of him, and a few months later he actively sought the Democratic nomination for Governor. This exposed him to the suspicion that he had been "playing politics" in his reform work, and aroused such doubt as to his political stability that he could not be seriously considered for the anti-Tammany ticket, a year later. His career has thus proved somewhat disheartening, and it must serve rather as a warning than as an inspiration to young men.

Senator Stranahan has promptly followed up Gov. Odell's suggestions for a mortgage tax, and the plan of a recording tax of 50 cents per $100, in lieu of any annual assessment, is now formally before the Legislature. If the proposal affected a situation in which mortgages were not taxed at all, theoretical objections might be decisive. But the truth is that the situation as it exists to-day has become almost intolerable. Mortgages are not only taxed, but taxed with the greatest unfairness and irregularity, and at a rate nearly five times as high as the proposed recording tax. We have had instances called to our attention where small estates, restricted by testamentary proviso to investment in high-grade mortgages, have been assessed on personalty virtually to the full face value of the mortgages. This, it will readily be perceived, was tantamount to an income tax of 50 per cent. or thereabouts, and it could not be sworn off or reduced. One of the results likely to flow from the new mortgage tax has been pointed out by Mr. F. D. Tappen in an interview in the *Evening Post*. Under the present law, trustees and executors are practically prohibited from investing in mortgage loans the funds in their hands. The rate of interest on such mortgages is usually not above 5 per cent., and not above 4½ per cent. on city property. The tax is upwards of 2 per cent. It takes one-half of the income from the mortgage to pay the tax, because trustees and executors cannot escape paying it. On the other hand, mortgage loans made by savings banks and life-insurance companies are exempt, and those made by individuals, other than executors and trustees, generally manage to escape. It is Mr. Tappen's belief that, if the record tax were adopted in lieu of all other taxation on mortgages, a large amount of capital which is now withheld from it would seek that form of investment. Trustees would no longer be deterred from it. Private individuals would invest their own money in mortgages more freely than before, because a menace would be removed. The effect of new supplies of capital for mortgage investment would be to lower the rate of interest, to the advantage of the borrower.

There is not much to be said of the Crude Rubber Company's collapse, except that it adds another chapter to the story of 1899's financial delusions. We say delusions, because, quite irrespective of the merits of the enterprise *per se*, its confession of insolvency shows it to have been founded on last year's wildly exaggerated hopes and theories. The company was not organized in the period of highly expanded prices; in fact, it came into being when rubber market quotations were hardly as high as they are to-day. But the infatuation as to the permanency of high commercial prices, which caused so many companies to heap up original liabilities in excess of what the future could provide for, induced the crude-rubber combination to incur fresh liabilities, under the same delusion. Rubber, the company's managers inform us, sold as high, a year or more ago, as $1.15 per pound. On the basis of something like this were incurred the heavy liabilities which have resulted in the company's suspension. The rubber market is now down to something like 85 cents; the company's large holdings of material, bought at the higher prices, have had to be liquidated at such figures as have wiped out the company's capital and profits, and forced it into insolvency. As we have said, this episode differs somewhat from that of other concerns in which the exceptional trade prosperity of the moment was, so to speak, capitalized at the expense of the general public. But the delusion as to prices did the mischief in the one case as in the other.

Electoral reform is under discussion in the French newspapers, and while the Ministry is as yet uncommitted to any definite revision, the abuses of the present system must eventually call for legislation. The chief weakness of this system lies in the fact that each arrondissement, however small, is entitled to a Deputy, which leads to the most startling inequalities of representation. For example, the Third District of the Arrondissement of Nantes has 35,519 voters; the Arrondissement of Barcelonnette has 3,479. Each returns its Deputy, and each voter in the obscure Alpine village counts for ten in the large city. Not only does this inequality affect the membership of the popular Assembly, but it is the worse because the arrondissement, unlike the State with us, is not a political, but an administrative unit. It elects no officers, and has practically no political powers, but is a mere administrative division of the department. That this purely arbitrary division should be allowed to vitiate the principle of equal representation is one of the many absurdities which have resulted from the Revolutionary régime, when the political map of France was made over irrespective of history and in deference to a false logic. While it is doubtful if so radical a plan as that for minority representation proposed in *Figaro* by M. Jules Roche will be advanced, it seems probable that the question of electoral reform must be seriously considered by the Parliament now in session.

OUR IMPERILLED EXPORT TRADE.

In a special financial supplement, the *Evening Post* published on Tuesday week the opinions of a number of representative men concerning the business outlook of the coming year. The first one in the order of presentation was that of Secretary Gage, who consented to answer a few questions. Mr. Gage thinks that the prosperous conditions of the past year have not suffered any check; that our foreign trade will be maintained at its present volume, provided that we study intelligently the wants and habits of our customers abroad; provided, also, that we bear in mind that all trade is barter, and that we cannot continue to sell unless we buy. This is a pregnant thought, and was peculiarly appropriate in this locality at the moment it was uttered. On Thursday, the New York Chamber of Commerce emphatically voted resolutions, about treaties of reciprocity, which are really an alarm sounded by the closest and most interested observers of our foreign trade. They are active business men who, in their federated capacity, know no politics and swear by no economic theories. Their only concern is to promote the city's and the country's commerce. They might, as logicians, condemn the self-contradictory resolves of the Reciprocity Convention at Washington, but it is really in the guise of merchants that they speak their minds on that subject. What they say is, that a reciprocity which is terrorized by protection is not only a sounding brass and a tinkling cymbal, but is an immediate peril to our export trade. For these clear-sighted watchmen on the walls plainly perceive that the great industrial and commercial need of this nation is "new and wider markets for our products," and that the failure to secure them by reciprocal trade arrangements means not only that we shall get no added openings, but that we shall lose those we already have. The course of the head-in-the-sand protectionists and of the reciprocity advocates who take away with one hand what they give with the other, is, asserts the Chamber of Commerce, "likely to invite hostile legislation on the part of other nations against this country, to the great detriment of its commercial interests."

Such hostile legislation is not merely invited. It is openly advocated abroad. It is, in at least one important case, already formulated. The new German tariff, if enacted, will deal a heavy blow to the agricultural exports of the United States. Crushingly high duties will be laid on wheat and beef and pork products. The present duty on wheat is 3½ marks the metric cwt. of 220 pounds; the proposed duty is 6½ marks. On bacon the increase is from 13 to 35 marks, on pork from 17 to 30 marks, and on other meats from 15 to 30. Now, in 1900 we sold to Germany $6,495,000 worth of wheat and $2,700,000 of wheat flour, more than $2,000,000 of bacon and ham, and as much more of pork and other meats. Our cotton exports to Germany were, in the same year, of a value greater than $63,000,000. How much we ought to dread hostile legislation affecting this important export trade is obvious at a glance. What will Western and Southern Congressmen have to say to their constituents, what will the President have to say to the country, if supineness or sullen greed is allowed to imperil our foreign export trade?

The thing to keep clearly in mind is that hostile German legislation has not, so far, passed from threats to actual blows. The contingent aim of the higher duties was most distinctly set forth by the Chancellor in his speech to the Reichstag when laying the bill for the new tariff before it. Von Bülow said in so many words: "The new tariff is intended to supply a *better weapon* for conducting the negotiations for future treaties of commerce with other States." It did not mean, he asserted, the "abandonment of the policy of commercial treaties." It must be, he affirmed, "the most earnest endeavor of any responsible statesman to arrange treaties of commerce on acceptable conditions." But if treaties could not be arranged, why, there were the high duties for the products of foreign countries which stubbornly maintained high duties against German goods. Bismarck himself could not have been more explicit in laying down a policy of *do ut des*.

The danger to our trade in Germany is only a little more evident than in other countries. Austria will be inclined to enact tariffs against us, as soon as the Reichsrath can pull itself together to pass any laws at all. France knows the trick of maximum tariffs, and is ready to use them against us. As for Canada, her statesmen are rapidly passing over to the position that it must be either a treaty of reciprocity with the United States, or a hostile tariff that will cut our exports in two. As the Hon. John Charlton, M. P., writes in the January *Forum:*

> "Canada can give to the United States a kind of reciprocity that will make the volume of imports from that country nearly as lean and hungry as is the present scale of exportation to it. The simple formula for securing this result is to adopt the American tariff; and Canada is rapidly settling down to the conviction that there should be no unnecessary delay in taking this course, if proper concessions cannot be obtained."

These are but specimen clouds on our trade horizon. In them the Chamber of Commerce sees the promise of a disastrous storm. It is easy to pooh-pooh its words of alarm; to say that its members are only importers who are insidiously attacking the sacred tariff. They really are exporters as well as importers —exporters because they are importers— and their main anxiety just now is to avert a peril to our export trade. They are thinking of the farmer in the West and South, because they know that if his exports are checked by hostile legislation abroad, their imports will also be checked, and the general prosperity of the country impaired. Theirs is the plain business view of the situation. What, meanwhile, are our legislators at Washington doing? They are mumbling, with Senator Cullom, about their devotion to "the general principle of reciprocity," provided it does not run counter to "the general principle of protection." That is, they would be most happy to go North, if they could do it while walking South. If they had real statesmanship, they would be at least as far-sighted as business men, and would see to it that a stupid persistence in an outgrown and offensive and perfectly needless system of protection did not prevent this country from marching forward to that industrial and commercial conquest of the world of which it is capable.

THE GOVERNOR'S MESSAGE.

Gov. Odell's second annual message to the Legislature strengthens the impression which he has made during his first year in office. It is the work of an Executive who is, first of all, a business man, and who treats the affairs of the commonwealth from the standpoint of an administrator of a great corporation, in which the taxpayers are the stockholders. The Governor presents a very encouraging view of the State finances. The State debt, including the amount incurred for canal enlargement a few years ago, is only a trifle more than $10,000,000, and there was a balance of cash in the Treasury at the close of the fiscal year (September 30, 1901), of nearly $10,000,000. For the current fiscal year the revenues from indirect taxation are estimated at $15,000,000, leaving about $5,000,000 to be provided for from other sources. Of this sum, $4,200,000 can be taken from the surplus on hand. Therefore it is necessary to raise but $739,299 from the general property tax during the current year, and this is rendered necessary only by the Constitutional requirement of thirteen one-hundredths of a mill for the sinking fund. In other words, we have very nearly reached the ideal condition for which tax reformers have been so long striving, where the State can renounce direct taxation entirely, and leave the county boards to adjust their local taxation in their own way. Of course, the surplus in the Treasury now can be used only once. Therefore it is still necessary to provide a few millions from other indirect sources before the desired balance will be permanently attained.

The Governor makes some specific recommendations under this head which we think will command general approval. The measure to tax mortgages,

which failed as presented in the Stranahan bill, is brought forward in a new shape. It proposes to subject mortgages not to a yearly tax, but to one tax, which may be called a recording tax. The Stranahan bill proposed a tax of five mills per annum. The Governor proposes a tax of five mills for recording the mortgage, and nothing afterward. The total amount of mortgages annually recorded in the State is about $600,000,000. The proposed tax would therefore yield $3,000,000, and this sum would almost close the gap which remains to be filled in the State revenues from independent sources. Those who are opposed to any tax on mortgages will oppose this. They will say that, no matter how the tax is levied, it will fall upon the borrower, since the lender, in this case, will deduct from the amount of the loan the sum needed to pay the recording tax. Granted; but the rate of interest is on the down grade, and this tells in favor of the borrower. Is it not right that the State should share in this advantage? This tax should be in lieu of the present tax on mortgages —the tax which, as the Governor says, reaches only the mortgages in the hands of executors and trustees, while individual holders escape it entirely.

Another suggestion in the message relates to the taxation of companies incorporated in other States, but having their offices and doing business in New York. This is the weightiest part of the message in its financial aspect, and the one which will cause the greatest public satisfaction. Hitherto the State has assumed that "foreign" corporations (meaning those of other American States) are taxed at the place of their domicile. Consequently, the shares of such corporations are non-taxable in the hands of a citizen of New York. This is theoretically the right system, but it was never intended to apply, and ought not to apply, to companies which go to New Jersey, or Delaware, or some other easy-going State, to procure a charter, while carrying on their principal business here. They do this to avoid their fair proportion of the tax which they ought to pay for the protection that the State and municipal governments of New York give them. Moreover, they make no concealment of the fact that this is the reason why they seek charters in other States. They say that they do so because the burdens of taxation in New York are so heavy. The burdens in New York are not heavy; but, whatever they may be, they are enhanced to the citizens who do pay by the amount of capital withdrawn from our own corporations and invested in those of New Jersey, Delaware, etc. This transference is a form of cheating which has received the sanction of law. The corporations are not to be blamed for taking advantage of the law as it exists. Their leading counsel naturally advise them to go to the cheapest market for their charters. They would be fools if they did not, but it is time for the State of New York to demand her just share in this harvest. The specific recommendation of the Governor is very moderate. It is that foreign corporations doing business here shall be required to file a certificate of their incorporation and pay annually a tax of one mill per dollar as a franchise tax. On condition of doing so, their stockholders resident in New York shall be exempt from taxation on the shares so held by them. This addition to the public revenues, and the proposed tax on the recording of mortgages, would supply the needful amount to make the State independent of the direct or general property tax. If Gov. Odell succeeds in accomplishing this aim, his Administration will be a memorable one from the business point of view.

We must pass over the Governor's important recommendations regarding the State institutions. Quite in line with the business sense which prompts his questioning of present methods is his protest against the abuses of our system of receiverships for insurance and banking corporations. We heartily endorse his recommendation that all proceedings affecting such corporations under the Banking and Insurance Departments shall be under their control during the liquidation, which should do away with the excessive fees that are now generally extorted. Mr. Odell's practical sense is shown in his advice that the code be amended so as to compel the argument of appeals in capital cases within six months after conviction; that the Governor be empowered to assign justices of the Supreme Court to districts where they are especially needed; and that it may be wise to allow the temporary designation of county judges to trial terms anywhere in the State whenever necessary to clear the calendar.

As will be seen, this message is fruitful in valuable recommendations. The paragraphs under the head "Home Rule for Cities" will be read with great interest, because they embody the Governor's ideas regarding excise legislation at this session. It all comes to this—that, while the Legislature might extend local option on the liquor traffic for weekdays so as to cover cities as well as towns, he thinks that no measure for local option on Sunday traffic should be passed unless the question be first submitted to the people of the whole State whether they will approve the idea of allowing such a departure from the fixed rules which have hitherto prevailed throughout the commonwealth, and a majority do so approve. There are no signs whatever that a movement for such a State referendum will be pushed, and, as the Governor commits himself against anything else, this means that nothing will be done by the present Legislature about Sunday saloon-opening.

MORE BISMARCK REVELATIONS.

"He spares me no shocks," said Bismarck once, referring to the Emperor William I., "and I should be all the better without those little letters in his own handwriting which he does me the honor to write." Two or three hundred of these little letters are contained in the Supplement to Prince Bismarck's 'Recollections,' lately published in Germany ('Anhang zu den Gedanken und Errinnerungen von Otto Fürst Bismarck'). These missives from monarch to Minister are mostly hurried notes of birthday and anniversary greeting, often announcing presents or new honors for Bismarck, and are, in general, of small account, either political or literary, with their characteristic interlarding of French idioms and phrases. How the grandson has *changé tout cela!* But at two or three places in the correspondence (for many of Bismarck's replies are given) we see a suggestive lifting of the historic curtain.

New light, for example, is thrown upon one of the disputed points relating to the war with France. This is the renewal in 1870 of the candidacy of Prince Leopold for the Spanish throne after it had been, on French protest, officially abandoned in 1869. When Bismarck wrote about the matter to Marshal Prim, he said: "Pray do not forget that the King is supposed to be ignorant of all this." This has been taken as a clear proof of the duplicity of either Bismarck or the King, or both. But a letter now printed from William, under date of February 26, 1870, makes it clear that, in the beginning at least, he was a total stranger to the plot to wave the Spanish red rag again in the face of France. He wrote to Bismarck:

"The enclosure [not given] comes upon me like a bolt out of a clear sky. A Hohenzollern again a candidate for the throne of Spain! I suspected no word of this, and only lately was jesting with the Prince about the earlier bringing forward of his name, and both of them [father and son] dismissed the idea as a mere joke. When you have got the details, we must have a conference, although I, as head of the house, am *against* the affair."

Of course, the affair went on, nevertheless, and the world knows now how deliberately and astutely Bismarck employed the Hohenzollern candidacy to infuriate the French and make them declare that war in which he was burning to engage, if only he could avoid appearing the aggressor. A diplomat in Berlin said to Mr. Charles Lowe that he had heard Bismarck exclaim, in a moment of heat, "Oh, I have had experience in making other countries declare war upon Germany!" The Hohenzollern Spanish intrigue was one of the cases in point. We know now how Bismarck and Von Roon fairly forced Prince Anthony, on public grounds, to put forward Leopold again, and also how thunderstruck Bismarck was when the King telegraphed him from Ems that the candidacy was

once more withdrawn and the whole trouble apparently settled. The disappointed Minister was about to resign and go back to Varzin for good, when his chance came to "edit" the famous later dispatch from Ems, and so get his war, after all. In the whole matter, it is now evident, he left his royal master very much in the dark, and worked secretly behind his back.

The other important revelations of the letters relate to the crisis of 1875. Early in that year Europe took alarm at the apparent intention of Germany to attack France before that country could get upon her feet with the new and enlarged army she was planning to create. The Berlin *Post* had an inspired article, as it was taken to be, "Is War in Sight?" All the talk of the General Staff was of provocation, anxiety, and impatience. An Imperial order suddenly forbade the exportation of horses from Germany. Moltke said openly to the Belgian Minister, "They may say what they like; I look only at facts. France has just added 144,000 men to her army. That means the offensive within a short time, and we ought not to wait for it." All these ominous signs, with the indiscreet babblings of Herr von Radowitz, supposed to be deep in Bismarck's confidence, were reported to Paris by the French Ambassador at Berlin, and led, as the Duke de Broglie states in his book, 'An Ambassador of the Vanquished,' to prompt representations by the French Foreign Office to both the English and Russian Governments. What the Czar and Gortchakoff did, leading up to their grandiloquent dispatch, "The maintenance of peace is now assured," has been published. We have Bismarck's own sneering account of their fussy and needless intervention, as he calls it. What England did to avert the threatened war has not been so clearly known. A letter of the Emperor's to Bismarck tells much, and suggests more.

It bore date of August 6, 1875, and, in the midst of some unimportant matters, gave extracts from a correspondence which had passed between the Kaiser and Queen Victoria, and of which he did not think it right to leave his Chancellor in ignorance. The royal letters had related to the threat of war with France, and William had assured the Queen that there was nothing in the alarmist rumors on that subject; that it gave him pain to suppose that she thought of himself as a disturber of the peace of Europe, since he was convinced that no one could provoke a war without exposing himself to the execration of the civilized world. Thereupon the Queen replied, so he wrote to Bismarck, that, "without my knowing it, others besides Moltke who were very near to me had openly talked of attacking France. But she would not go farther into the matter, since the whole had now fallen into oblivion." The Emperor added that he had written to thank the Queen for her friendly letter, and to say that "as she had named no names, he would make no further investigation." "I'm so sorry!" (*thut mir leid*) was, at this point, written in Bismarck's own hand upon the manuscript of William's letter.

The Chancellor's reply, a week later, is a masterpiece of evasion and cynicism. It would have been highly interesting, he said, if the Emperor had urged the Queen to give him the name of the threatener of war. That exalted lady must be very sure of her ground to have taken so weighty and so unfriendly a step. However, suggests the innocent Bismarck, she can have referred only to Count Münster, the German Ambassador in London. That diplomat, we may add, indignantly denied later that he had been guilty of any war talk, indiscreet or calculated. But Bismarck goes on to defend both him and Moltke, on the ground that their remarks about the advantage of speedily attacking France were purely "academic," and were intended merely to let the French know that they could not count upon immunity under all circumstances. The English Government would be wholly wrong in taking the unofficial language of an Ambassador so seriously, and hence he thought that Queen Victoria must have had "other grounds" (a clear reference to the hated Englishwoman in Berlin, the wife of the Crown Prince) for believing the rumors of war to be true. Nowhere does Bismarck intimate that he thought himself suspected, or deny that war would have been forced but for "the pressure of other Powers" brought to bear upon Germany by this unfriendly English initiative.

Did he really wish and intend another war with France in 1875? Was his anger at Russia, on whom he took sweet revenge at the Congress of Berlin, simply because of her interference with a deep game of his, or because the firm attitude of the Czar actually prevented a war? We may never know. Bismarck's diplomacy was confessed by himself to be wholly unscrupulous, and it was often so tortuous, so subterranean, so fertile in alternative expedients, that one can never be sure that his avowed aims were his real ones. A very remarkable letter of his to the Emperor, now first published, betrays his moral point of view, and his method. It related to the charges of double-dealing brought against him by the Italian Gen. La Marmora, in connection with the events of 1866. Why, said the honest Bismarck, who "feared nothing but God," the "only way in which I could thwart the policy of Napoleon was to make it clear to Benedetti and the Italians, who kept nothing from Napoleon, that I was perfectly willing to wander from the path of virtue, and only needed time to win over your Majesty." This manœuvre, he adds, was "very useful," and he quotes with gusto an old French proverb—"a pirate and a half to catch a pirate"—which his antagonists should have had in mind. From the whole body of Bismarck letters in the two volumes, in fact, one bears away a deepened impression of the man's extraordinary force, of his unrivalled intellectual power, and of his relentless grinding on his way to his goal, with the rush, and with about the morality, of an avalanche. His greatness, the immense rôle which he played in history, no man can doubt; but his lack of the finer personal and moral qualities, above all a certain want of magnanimity in his attitude towards his colleagues and successors, becomes clearer with every fresh publication from the archives, and cannot but dim his lasting fame.

THE REVIEWER'S RESPONSIBILITY.

The assertion, freely made in France, that criticism is creative literature, seems all the more audacious inasmuch as, in that country, criticism and current book-reviewing are very much one and the same thing. This seeming paradox is the result of literary traditions which are almost exclusively French. What these conditions are is charmingly illustrated in a recent anecdote of Sully-Prudhomme of the French Academy, recipient of the Nobel prize for literature.

In the spring of 1865 young Sully-Prudhomme had published, with the aid of a friend, his first volume, 'Stances et Poèmes.' The problem with his fellows of the schools who recognized in Sully a rising genius, was how to get the great Sainte-Beuve to give at least a paragraph in his "Nouveaux Lundis" to the youthful poet. Accordingly the young Gaston Paris—since renowned as philologer, critic, academician, and director of the Collège de France, then merely a philologer of considerable promise—who had the advantage of Sainte-Beuve's acquaintance, called at the great critic's apartment and left, with a discreet note, his friend's volume of verse. Every Monday the poet's circle of admirers turned eagerly to Sainte-Beuve's column in the *Constitutionnel.* The laggard critic wrote about everything else—on the old poets, on astronomical fantasies by Flammarion, worst of all, upon modern poets other than Sully. As the months went by, the indignation of these young people knew no bounds. It was seriously proposed to march *en masse* to the great critic's door, and *conspuer* him for his lack, not only of critical insight, but of common civility. Fortunately, wiser counsels prevailed, and the *censor literarum* of that day was spared such a serenade as the present *censor morum,* Senator Bérenger, has several times undergone at the hands of his student protégés. The review, a very favorable one, appeared before Sully's friends had thought out a parliamentary method of applying *force majeure* to the

indolent author of the "Nouveaux Lundis."

The incident shows strikingly just what a literary review is in France. It is essentially an act of courtesy from a man of letters to a colleague. The reviewer, whose work is always signed, is responsible primarily to the brother-author whom he criticises, and after that to the craft of letters. Only very remotely is he answerable to the editor whom he serves, or to the general reading public. The result is that, with a free hand as to space and as to manner —except as far as considerations of professional courtesy may restrain him—the French reviewer is expected to give his work an absolutely personal flavor; and this means—in a country where are found writers with the engaging temperament of Anatole France and Jules Lemaître, with the doctrinaire tenacity of Brunetière and Doumic, with the scholarly clarity of view and sensitive appreciation of Gaston Paris and Gaston Boissier—that book-reviewing and literature may be as nearly one as they were when Sainte-Beuve was writing his "Causeries de Lundi."

There can be no doubt whatever that there is in France ten times as much readable reviewing as there is in England or America, while the skilled reviewer attains a popularity and prestige the like of which can be instanced in England only in the palmy days of the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Quarterly*. This is undoubtedly the reader's gain. Whether the great body of writers come off so well under this dispensation is open to question. To be benevolently reviewed by an elder brother of the craft is a rare good fortune for a young writer, and the most casual commendation from Jules Lemaître or Anatole France is worth more than the anonymous plaudits of the united press in England or America. But what of the great host of neglected authors in France? The dozen great critics who hold the fates of books in their hands review only what they will. Some of the critical journals in this country contrive to notice, in one way or another, practically every book which is submitted to their inspection. No French review of a popular kind so much as makes the attempt to keep up with the publishers' presses. Thus the great mass of books is relegated to oblivion, or, at best, to an obscure struggle for existence. Even the publishers advertise very parsimoniously, and, in the country which leads the world in the production of meritorious works in belles-lettres, the press gives a very minimum of attention to the producers of this class of literature. To be shorn of notoriety is their melancholy lot.

Since the machinery for puffing up an ephemeral reputation is much less highly developed in France than in the English-speaking countries, the French reader is spared the flood of perfunctory and even ignorant reviews which besets the English and American public. On the other hand, it is a question if the French do not unduly submit their literary judgment to the charming and sometimes capricious personality of their great critics. In many ways the comparatively impersonal method of the anonymous reviewer is fairer, both to the public and to the author, while critical journals which have represented consistently a fixed attitude towards literature attain an authority and influence that no individual critic can ever enjoy.

If America ever adopts the French mode of personal and eclectic reviewing, it will be less because it is converted to a new theory than because it is compelled by relentless conditions. Already it is impossible to notice, even if it were worth while, anything like the total product of the publishers. We admire the diligence of those journals which undertake to review all the books that pass through their offices, and marvel at the fortitude of the public which reads this mass of book notices; but the *Nation* is unable either to imitate the thoroughness of its contemporaries in this respect, or to strain in like manner the indulgence of its readers. Some two thousand books are sent to us every year by the publishers. All of these are promptly acknowledged in "Books of the Week." About one-half, and the majority of these in very brief form, are reviewed. If we always consulted our own inclination, or primarily the pleasure of our reviewers, the list might be still smaller. It would be very easy to fall back upon the French principle that the reviewer is bound only by the comity of the craft; but we feel that it is a healthful tradition that his responsibility is primarily to the public, which expects of him correct information and sound judgment, and hence that the reviewer, in his choice of books, must be guided by some broader principle than personal preference for the book, personal liking for the writer, or even natural benevolence for the beginner.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION AND AMERICAN DIALECT SOCIETY.

CAMBRIDGE, January 1, 1902.

The Modern Language Association, which met in Cambridge on Thursday, December 26, for a three-days' session, has reached its feminine if not its masculine majority. Founded in 1883 at a meeting in New York city, it has just celebrated its eighteenth birthday. The Association began with something over a hundred members, recruited during the first year of its life. It has now more than six hundred, not counting the two-score scholars from different parts of Europe who have accepted honorary membership with it. Its first volume of publications covered the first two years of its existence. It now prints each year, in regular quarterly instalments, a volume of some six hundred pages. It has outgrown a single meeting, and each year the Central Division convenes at the same time as the parent association in some place nearer the homes of members in the Central West. What has been done for the advancement of knowledge in this time? The tale is best told by the sixteen completed volumes which bear the Association's name. From the first these have been increasingly valuable, until now they contain many of the most important contributions to the modern literatures printed in any language. It is not strange that the members of this vigorous and growing body should feel some elation, some reason for congratulation over the past and hopefulness for the future.

There is also cause for congratulation in the meeting just closed, which has been one of the most successful in the history of the organization. From the opening session, when the Association was welcomed by the felicitous words of President Eliot, until Saturday noon, when the members gathered at the farewell lunch in University Hall, there was intense interest and no little enthusiasm. Not only did no unfortunate incident mar the meeting in any way, but the sessions were attended by more than the usual number of attentive listeners to the papers read and discussed. It was felt that every part of the programme had something not to be lightly missed. This does not mean that all did not also enjoy the social part of the convention, the notably pleasant reception by President and Mrs. Eliot, the charming talk on "The College Professor and the Public" by Mr. Bliss Perry of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and the numerous less important occasions for friendly greetings with others working in similar fields, or equally agreeable discussions of many problems connected with the routine work and investigation. All these were a by no means insignificant part of this educational gathering.

It is true that this convention differed in one respect from those of recent years. Such a gathering is always in one sense a small one. Only about one-fifth of the members of the Association ever attend, though nearly as many more are usually in session with the Central Division, as this year at the University of Illinois. But besides, owing to the extreme distance from the centre of the country, the representation was this year mainly from New England and the adjacent parts of New York State. A fringe of other States was represented by one or two members each, the largest number from Pennsylvania and Michigan, two from Ohio, and one each from Indiana and Wisconsin. The South, including Maryland and Kentucky, was fairly represented by ten members. If, however, the representation of New England was disproportionately large in number of members present, the Northern States west of New England more than contributed their share of papers to be read, or "read by title"—that is, presented for publication. To the programme the New England men contributed thirteen papers—or fourteen, if the report of the Pedagogical Section be counted. The Northern States west of New England were represented by an equal number, fourteen, if one from west of the Mississippi is included, as indeed it should be. The South had naturally the smallest representation; only two papers coming from that section.

In point of subject the distribution of papers is always a matter of comment. It had

been apparent for some time that those on English language and literature were considerably more numerous than those on any of the other modern languages forming a part of the Association. This is, of course, not only natural but right, and would be equally true of the mother tongue in any convention of scholars in any nation. This year, therefore, it is not strange that there should have been fourteen papers by professors and instructors in English to eight by those teaching German and seven by those teaching French and the other Romance languages. In English the papers were particularly well distributed over the whole field of our literature. Two treated subjects in Old English, three Middle English, four the modern literature, and five were of general scope, though naturally related in an indirect way to the modern period.

Beyond this it is not easy, in an untechnical account, to give an adequate idea of all parts of the programme. To say that Professor Cook of Yale proved the runic inscriptions on the Ruthwell cross to be later than usually supposed, and certainly considerably later than the Northumbrian poet Cynewulf; or that Dr. Schofield of Harvard gave a new and exceedingly important account of the home of the King Horn story, will convey but a slight idea of the importance which scholars attach to such close investigations. Such papers deal with a single point, or a very few points, but at their best settle these once for all, doing away for ever with much obscurity or useless discussion, and sometimes throwing a flood of light on kindred subjects. Nor is this a slight advantage. When they have been read and published, they become the property of every teacher who keeps up with his subject, and displace, in one little corner of knowledge, an obscure or imperfect or false statement with exactness and truth. They delight those who abhor misstatement even when not directly affecting character and life. But, besides such technical papers, there are, at every convention of the Association, a goodly number of more general nature, which would interest any intelligent hearer.

We may well begin with the address of Professor Sheldon, President of the Association, though this was not given until Thursday evening, the second session. Professor Sheldon spoke in his characteristically cautious way of "Practical Philology." emphasizing the linguist's relation to grammar and dictionary, and cautioning even him against neglecting the dictates of custom, which establishes somewhat different standards from those to be expected in a natural development of language. The philologist recognizes evolution of linguistic forms; he must still acknowledge, as must every educated person, the claims of fashion. Professor Sheldon also expressed a wish for a broader recognition in our dictionaries of both natural and acquired forms of the spoken language, and deplored in the strongest terms any conflict between the philologist and his sometime antagonist the literary critic—a sentiment which received the hearty approbation of his audience. One paper also in the session of Thursday afternoon not only was of general character, but brought out some profitable discussion. This was the report of the Pedagogical Section by its Secretary, Professor Mead of Wesleyan, on the value of rhetorical teaching through much practice in writing and individual correction—a practice now so general in the leading colleges and universities. The subject was suggested by an opposing view in the *Century* a year or so ago, the writer of which advocated a study of English literature without theme-writing as equally effective —a most remarkable position. It is not surprising that the paper read by Professor Mead, and made up from the opinions of various instructors over the country, showed a large majority decidedly in favor of the present plan, in spite of the vast amount of labor and expense involved. The one other paper of the afternoon which could not but interest every American was that of Dr. Walz of Harvard, on three Swabian journalists and the American Revolution. This presented in an entertaining fashion a careful investigation of the interest in the Revolution on the part of German writers, among them the poet Schiller.

Friday morning's session was introduced by an excellent paper on the influence of Montaigne upon Shakspere, by Miss Hooker of Vassar College. This influence, while before recognized, was exhaustively treated by the writer, who proved conclusively that one other must be added to the number of writers who have found the great French essayist a mine of philosophic truth and epigrammatic statement. But the paper which afforded the most entertainment and brought out the greatest amount of discussion in the whole convention, was that of Professor Thomas of Columbia on the amelioration of our spelling. Professor Thomas is not a "fonetic," much less a fanatic, reformer. From the paper read he certainly deserves to be characterized as a wit, with mind and heart upon the right side. He brought forward no radical scheme for accomplishing the much desired result; he posed as no self-satisfied leader in a great movement; but, with many a witty sally at the expense of extremists on both sides, and a quite inimitable manner which disarmed criticism from the start, he presented the anomalies and absurdities of our present cacographic mode, and added one very practical suggestion toward "amelioration." This was the education of our common-school teachers in the history of our spelling, the manner in which the astounding and absurd anomalies grew up, and the senselessness of preserving what has long become outgrown and useless. Such a plan would bring more quickly than anything else, he thought, a realization of the unnecessary burden upon young and old of what we call, with unperceived sarcasm, our "orthography," and hasten the time when even the school-boy would assist in rebelling against the illiteracy in form of a great civilized language. Professor Thomas also called attention to a fact which should be more carefully regarded. Our American copyright law, requiring books to be put in type in this country in order to obtain copyright, is really responsible for a deal of British instead of American spelling, where the latter is simpler. On the other hand, perhaps the chaos which this is bringing, in a small way, may assist in making evident the burden, and eventually in throwing it off.

The papers of Friday afternoon were excellent (not to deny the same characterization to those of other sessions). That of Dr. Schofield has been alluded to already. Mr. Hoyt of the Harvard Graduate School spoke on the legends of Horn and Beves, a study of the relationship existing between these two metrical romances of Middle English. The one other paper which deserves special notice was that of Professor Wood of Johns Hopkins on "Literary Adaptations in Gerhart Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*." At this session, also, the Association was again entertained by a paper, presented by Professor Scott of Michigan, on a "List of Hated Words." Professor Scott gave many amusing examples of words which had excited the antipathy of various persons, and some of the amusing reasons assigned for their dislike. The paper was a study in the psychology of language, to which, it may be said, a philological analysis would have lent some helpful suggestions. In the last session of the Association two papers were of sufficiently general interest to be briefly mentioned. One was by Professor Hulme of Western Reserve University on the influence of Chaucer upon Milton, which, the writer thought, had not been sufficiently recognized by critics. The other was by Professor Baldwin of Yale, who showed that the influence of Sterne's works upon French literature had been much underestimated.

The American Dialect Society met as usual under the friendly patronage of its elder sister, with which it has in many respects a common interest. Partly on this account, the Society makes little of its annual meeting, so far as programme is concerned. Its publication, *Dialect Notes*, is carried on without previous presentation of papers at an annual conference. The short session on Saturday morning was occupied wholly with brief reports of the financial and other status of the Society, and the election of officers for the ensuing year. With such a modest gathering, each year, always at the time and place of the Modern Language Association, the Dialect Society quietly carries on its investigations, and publishes its results as often as may be. This year, it is true, the Society was allowed for the first time a paper on the general programme—a desirable way of calling more public attention to its labors. As was appropriate, too, for a first year under this new arrangement, the paper, by Professor Emerson, the Secretary, was of more general character, explaining the aims and methods of the Society, answering criticisms that have been made, and urging the importance of the work from every standpoint. Professor Emerson called attention to the somewhat different character of dialect work in Germany and England, and the wisdom of following both models in our American field. He emphasized especially the need of local glossaries, to be based first of all upon the collections of Americanisms and other dialectal words already in print, and supplemented by such new words as may be locally gathered. There should be one or more of these for each State, after which there would be some prospect of combining them all in a dialect dictionary for the whole country. The reports at the annual meeting showed the Society in as prosperous condition as at any time in the past; but more members are needed, and more active workers, in order to accomplish all that is desired.

N. M.

LORD ROSEBERY.

OXFORD, December 20, 1901.

Lord Rosebery has performed one remarkable achievement: he has made himself for the moment the interesting man of English politics. We have all of us been talking, during last week, of what he was going to say at Chesterfield; we are all of us talking this week of what he has said. We are all of us wondering what is the real meaning of his speech, and some of us are wondering whether it means anything at all. The readers, then, of the *Nation* may possibly like to know some of the different views which, to judge from what one reads and hears, are at the present moment taken in England of Lord Rosebery's character and position.

Consider first the opinion formed of his Lordship by his many friends and admirers. He is, according to their view, the coming man. His ability is undoubted. He has been a successful Foreign Secretary. His tenure of the Premiership, it is true, was not marked by any kind of triumph, but his failure was due partly, it may be, to the disloyalty of colleagues, and certainly to the unkindness of fortune, which had placed him in a false position where no cleverness could avert absolutely certain defeat. And even after the rout of the Gladstonian Liberals, his Lordship, it will be said, remained the most remarkable of the Liberal leaders. His resignation of leadership has placed him in a situation absolutely unlike that occupied by any other politician. He stands before the country as a man who has risen above and is independent of party, and is prepared to be rather the servant of the nation than the leader of a faction.

This claim (they continue) he has made good by his recent speech, for he has spoken with a distinctness and plainness unknown to the chief men of the Opposition or to leading Ministers. He has uttered words suited, to use his own expression, for the Palace of Truth. The best evidence of the orator's sagacity and honesty is, that men of all parties find in his speech something to praise, and also something with which they individually do not agree. He has avoided at once the cant of pharisaic Liberalism and the cant of official optimism. He has summed up in the best words the best thoughts of us all, and, while he has pointed out the grave errors committed by the Opposition, he has also denounced the terrible shortcomings of the Government. He has warned the partisans who call themselves Liberals that they are many of them in character Tories, who cling to obsolete shibboleths at variance with the facts and the requirements of the times; he has told the Ministers who boast of their Imperialism that their blunders threaten the existence of the Empire, and that their incompetence may lose England South Africa, just as the dulness and the obstinacy of George the Third and Lord North lost England the Thirteen Colonies. He has shown himself the leader for whom we are all in search, who can rise above party and guide the country through the perils of a serious crisis. Lord Rosebery, in short, in the eyes of admirers who are ready to be his followers, if only he will consent to be their chief, is the statesman who can at the same time renovate the Liberal party and bring England triumphantly through the present war; and, to judge from Lord Rosebery's attitude and speeches, he himself shares the hopes of his admirers, and expects to prove the heaven-sent pilot destined to weather the storm.

Take next the judgment which may be passed on Lord Rosebery by less partial critics. To such candid friends—and his Lordship has few foes—his ability and his bona-fide desire to play a patriotic part may seem past dispute; but when this admission is made, his claim to become the leader of the nation may well be open to grave question. He has not, it will be said, given proof of any extraordinary capacity; his career as a Premier was marked by failure. The admitted difficulties of his position, though it was one to a certain extent of his own choosing, may indeed be an excuse for want of success; but the mere fact that a statesman has, on the one occasion when his powers were put to the test, shown himself unable to cope with the demands of a political crisis, is not of itself a reason for intrusting him at a most critical moment with the fortunes of the state; nor is it possible in 1901 to forget entirely the transactions of 1893 and 1894.

Lord Rosebery, indeed, according to the construction most generally put upon his speech, wishes now to have done with home rule. Unfortunately, the question will suggest itself, Why did his Lordship ever become a Home-Ruler? Admit, as fairness requires, that he was never very zealous for home rule; still, when he became the follower and later the successor of Mr. Gladstone, he must have believed that the policy of home rule was recommended by the dictates of political expediency. What ground, then, it may be urged, has any Unionist for trusting in the soundness of his Lordship's judgment? The question is the more serious because parts of the speech delivered at Chesterfield suggest a fear that Lord Rosebery is in 1901 misjudging the intentions of the Boers very much as he must in 1893 have misjudged the policy of the Irish Nationalists. He assumes that the Boers, in spite of the conduct and the language of their leaders, are not really fighting for independence, and are willing to seek terms of peace. This assumption bears a close resemblance to the credulity of Gladstonians who, with the evidence collected by the Parnell Commission before their eyes, persisted in the belief that the Nationalist leaders were at bottom loyal to the United Kingdom, or would certainly become so from the moment that the establishment of an Irish Parliament and an Irish Government should make it possible to impede the action both at home and abroad of the Imperial Government.

Let this, however, pass. Assume that in politics you must allow the existence of some sort of statute of limitations, and that the mere lapse of seven years is sufficient of itself to free a politician from liability for bygone errors of judgment. Even if this enormous concession be made, it is still (it will be said) very difficult to accept Lord Rosebery at the value put upon him by his adherents. The policy expounded in his long and able speech hardly differs essentially from the policy actually pursued by Lord Salisbury and his colleagues. In common with every Unionist, Lord Rosebery manfully maintains the justice and the expediency of the war; he repudiates all the charges of barbarism and cruelty brought against generals or soldiers; he trusts to the generalship of Lord Kitchener; he has no wish to recall Lord Milner; he maintains that the duty and necessity of the moment is to carry the war at all costs to a successful issue, and clearly believes that the annexation of the African republics to the British Empire is an irreversible act, commanded by considerations of necessity and justice. He, it is true, criticises with force many of the acts and words of the Government. So, too, do many Unionists. No human being either outside or, for that matter, inside the Cabinet can deny the commission of grave errors; but then common sense suggests the reflection, to which Lord Rosebery apparently gives little weight, that retrospective criticism is, even when sound and effective, no guarantee that the critic will, on the occurrence of a sudden crisis, show more wisdom or foresight than has been exhibited by the working statesmen whose errors it is so easy to deride. Even if it be admitted, as many will be glad to concede, that Lord Rosebery's urbanity and knowledge of the world might have saved him from some of the minor mistakes of language or of taste committed by particular Ministers, it is difficult to see any proof that he would, on the whole, have conducted the affairs of the nation with greater and more rapid success than the men at present in office.

The real cause, however, it will be said, for hesitating to accept Lord Rosebery as the leader who can rise above party and become the embodiment of the national will, lies, after all, far deeper than any doubts suggested either by the events of his past career or by the nature of his practical suggestions for the termination of the war. It is not clear that he possesses the instinct of leadership. All the men who from time to time have led the people of England have had but one characteristic in common. They have all been endowed with boldness and decision; they have all been men of strong and some of them men of iron wills. Can as much, it will be asked, be said of Lord Rosebery? The answer must appear to candid friends or hostile critics to be at best doubtful. A study of his career rather suggests that he is by nature the skilful and intelligent man of letters who, just because he stands a little outside the labors and the turmoil which occupy and harass responsible politicians, sees at moments a little further than do statesmen engaged in the wearying work of government and administration. But the habit of easy meditation detached from the responsibility of laborious action is not generally found favorable to strength of will. Literary talent is undoubtedly closely allied with one characteristic: the man of letters is almost always able and inclined to study his own attitude. Lord Rosebery may seem to critical observers an actor who first poses before himself with perfect honesty as the true patriot, and then, by the dignity of the attitude which has become natural to him, impresses the public with his own belief in his sagacity and his patriotism.

My aim has been to describe two different views of Lord Rosebery, each of which is at this moment, I believe, taken by many Englishmen. Which, if either, is the true

view of his character, is a matter for the future to decide. AN OBSERVER.

THE GRANDE MADEMOISELLE.—I.

PARIS, December 19, 1901.

The memoirs of the Grande Mademoiselle, daughter of Gaston d'Orléans and a niece of Louis XIII., are in every historical library. They are a very valuable document on a highly interesting period—all the more, perhaps, as they are very artless and devoid of all literary pretensions. Madame Arvède Barine has used them largely in writing 'La Jeunesse de la Grande Mademoiselle (1627-1652).' It is very readable, and has all the merit of her former works, already very numerous. Among them I will cite only 'Portraits of Women [Mrs. Carlyle, George Eliot],' 'Princesses and Great Ladies [Marie Mancini, Queen Christine, the Duchess du Maine, the Margrave de Bayreuth].' If I had to criticise these historical studies, I should say that the author does not enter enough into the spirit and atmosphere of old times; she cannot help being very subjective, and she interjects here and there words and remarks which savor too much not only of the present time, but even of Parisian life. There is at times in the expression of her thoughts what I should almost call a journalistic turn, which produces on the reader the effect of a dissonance in a succession of grave musical sounds.

The "Grande Mademoiselle" is certainly one of the most original figures of her time. "One cannot say," writes Arvède Barine, "that she figured in the foreground. Hers was a rather small genius . . . But this adventurous and picturesque woman was eminently one of those personages whom Emerson called representative. The spectacle of her agitated existence is a marvellous commentary on the profound transformation which occurred, towards the midst of the seventeenth century, in the sentiments of France." This transformation coincided with the civil wars and the troubles of the Fronde; and the Grande Mademoiselle was one of the actors in the Fronde. "In the first part of her life, none of the great ladies of the Fronde was more than she a heroine of Corneille, none had a more boundless desire for greatness, a more superb contempt of low passions—and among these Mademoiselle placed love." Generalizations are always dangerous: Arvède Barine would have it that the Grande Mademoiselle's early career is typical of the Cornelian spirit, while in the latter part of her life she represents the Racinian type. *Pauline* of "Polyeucte" and *Phèdre* of Racine's tragedy are two representatives of the passion of love, who, in Mme. Barine's mind, show the transformation that took place in the French mind and French manners from the time of Louis XIII. to the time of Louis XIV.

The Grande Mademoiselle, Duchess de Montpensier, was the daughter of Gaston d'Orléans and of a distant cousin of the royal family, Marie de Bourbon, Duchess de Montpensier. It is difficult to be too hard on Gaston d'Orléans; his portrait by Arvède Barine is only too exact. I will cite it, chiefly in order to show this author's *manière:*

"Her father," she says, "resembled our decadents. His nerves were out of order, his will abolished, yet he dreamed of accomplishing rare and singular deeds. . . . He was, *en chair et en os*, in the seventeenth century, the Prince whom our modern writers believe they have invented, and whom they like to introduce on the stage or in their novels; the living anachronism who has inherited the traditions of rugged ancestors, but who can place at their service only an enervated and unbalanced character."

At the age of eighteen, Gaston d'Orléans possessed the duchies of Orléans, of Chartres, the county of Blois, and a revenue of a million of livres. His wife was the richest heiress in the kingdom. She brought in dower the sovereignty of Dombes; the principality of La Roche-sur-Yon; the Duchies of Montpensier, Châtellerault, and St. Fargeau; a number of estates. Mademoiselle was born at the Louvre on the 29th of March, 1627; her mother died the seventh day after her birth. The child was educated at the Tuileries, which had not yet the dimensions they afterward acquired, and were then, so to speak, in the country.

She had a royal establishment, an army of servants and attendants. Her governess was a Madame de Saint-Georges, who knew the court well. She confessed afterwards that she was very badly educated; people spoke to her only of her high rank and of her great wealth. Madame de Saint-Georges was old-fashioned, and not one of those whom Molière afterwards described in the "Femmes Savantes." She believed that the greatest Princess in France knew enough if she knew how to read and write. The Memoirs of Mademoiselle show us the court of Louis XIII. and the great events of the time as they might be viewed by the most ignorant child. Cardinal Richelieu appeared to her a sort of monster, always ready to interfere with the amusements of the court. Speaking of the time when her father had left France, had become a rebel, and had remarried secretly with a sister of the Duke of Lorraine, she says:

"A great many things happened at that time. I was a child. I took part in nothing and could remark nothing. All I remember is a ceremony in which the Duke d'Elbeuf and the Marquis de la Vieuville were degraded from their orders. I saw their arms taken from the rank of the others; I asked the reason. I was told that this injury was done to them because they had followed Monsieur. I immediately began to weep."

When Mademoiselle came of age, the choice of a husband became the great preoccupation of her life. Would her husband be a King, or merely a Royal Highness? The first candidate, who amused her only for a moment, was the Count de Soissons, who was commonly called Monsieur le Comte, a cousin of hers, a brilliant soldier, but a very ordinary man, who had followed the cause of Monsieur in his second rebellion. M. Le Comte was killed at the battle of La Marfée, and Mademoiselle understood, so she says simply, that "they were not made for each other." Mademoiselle cast eyes on the Cardinal-Infanta, Ferdinand, the third son of Philip III., who commanded in Flanders the army of the King of Spain. He was Archbishop of Toledo, but he had not been ordained as a priest, and he might take a wife. The Cardinal-Infanta died on the 9th of November, 1641, after a very short illness. We read in the memoirs that the Spaniards were accused of having poisoned him, "for fear lest he should make himself master of Flanders by an alliance with France."

Soon afterwards the famous conspiracy of Saint-Mars opened the eyes of Mademoiselle to her own father's character. "Monsieur," says Arvède Barine, "surpassed himself in this crisis. He trembled and cried, he lied and denounced, with so much abjectness that the noise of his shame filled France and penetrated the Tuileries, where it threw Mademoiselle in despair. Her father deranged her theological ideas regarding Princes of the blood. How could a being who partook of divinity be so utterly contemptible?" When the Queen Henrietta of England, daughter of Henri IV. and wife of Charles I., took refuge in France, she thought of marrying her son to Mademoiselle; but the Prince of Wales was then very timid. He was younger by three years than Mademoiselle, and made a very unpleasant impression on her by his awkwardness. She tells us that at a representation of "Orphée" at the Palais-Royal, where she sat on a throne, magnificently dressed, with the Prince of Wales at her feet, she took pity on him. "My heart as well as my eyes looked down upon him; I had it in my mind to marry the Emperor."

She was for a time possessed with the idea of becoming Empress; so much so that when Ferdinand III. took a wife, she said: "The Empress is *enceinte* and will die in her confinement." Curiously enough, she did die, and Mademoiselle's hopes were revived.

"The desire to be Empress," she says, "which followed me everywhere, and which always seemed to me to be near fruition, made me think it would be well to cultivate beforehand habits which might be in conformity with the Emperor's humor. I had heard that he was devout, and, following his example, I became so devout myself that, after having feigned some time to be so, I experienced for a week the desire to make myself a nun at the Carmelites, but I confided this to nobody. I was so occupied with it that I could neither eat nor sleep. . . . I can say that during that week the Empire was nothing to me. I was not without some vanity in the idea of leaving the world at such a conjuncture."

This is certainly a most extraordinary confession, and we must agree with Arvède Barine when she says: "Having begun for political reasons to make the gestures and take the attitudes of devotion, she fell into her own trap and deceived herself to the point of wishing to enter a convent. There is no more curious example of the power of auto-suggestion."

After a short time, Mademoiselle's religious crisis was over, and she threw herself into politics, like so many great ladies of the time. "We have three ladies," wrote Mazarin to Don Louis de Haro, "who would be capable of governing three great kingdoms or of turning them topsy-turvy: the Duchess of Longueville, the Princess Palatine, the Duchess of Chevreuse." Her adventures are a part of the history of France. The daughter of Gaston d'Orléans had grown up in the belief that the Orléans branch of the royal family might reach the throne. From Charles VIII. to Louis XIII. the crown had been transmitted only three times from father to son. Before the birth of Louis XIV. Gaston thought himself almost on the throne. At the age of nine Louis XIV. was very ill, and it was thought for a moment that he would die.

Louis XIII. was in very delicate health. Besides the Orléans branch, there was a third, the branch of Condé, which was a little further from the throne, but the members of which were remarkable for their brilliant qualities. It is, therefore, not surprising that Mademoiselle prepared herself for the most exalted career. Her vanity was boundless; her ambition vague, but all the more ardent.

Correspondence.

VERBAL PREJUDICES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An *obiter dictum* in a paper which I read before the Modern Language Association last week has since appeared in a number of newspapers in a curiously distorted version. The following is a sample:

"A professor of the University of Michigan, being desirous of ascertaining the most hated word in connection with spelling-reform investigation, wrote to a thousand persons for their opinion, and was surprised when the majority replied that the most hated word was 'woman.' "

What I actually said was as follows:

"A considerable number of persons hate the plural form *women*, as being weak and whimpering, though the singular, *woman*, connotes for the same persons ideas of strength and nobility. It is for this reason, perhaps, that *woman's building, woman's college*, and the like have supplanted in popular speech the forms *women's building, women's college*, etc. It is noteworthy, also, that, in the titles of women's magazines and the names of women's clubs, the singular in most instances has been chosen instead of the more logical plural."

It will be noticed that *women* was not the best-hated word on my list. That bad eminence was reserved for *victuals*.

I take the opportunity to say that any one who has violent antipathies to particular words or phrases, not traceable to the meaning, will do me a favor by corresponding with me. All that I wish is (1) a list of such *verba non grata*, with (2) reasons for the dislikes, where reasons can be given.

Fred Newton Scott.

University of Michigan, December 30, 1901.

Notes.

We can make but a comparatively meagre selection from Macmillan Co.'s very numerous spring announcements: 'Napoleon Bonaparte,' by Thomas E. Watson, and yet another biography by J. H. Rose; the Life of Sir George Grove, by C. L. Graves; the third and last volume of Mrs. Hamilton's translation of Gregorovius's 'History of the City of Rome in the Middle Ages'; the second volume of Prof. William Ridgeway's 'Early Age of Greece'; 'A Short History of Germany,' by Ernest F. Henderson; 'The Story of the Mormons,' by William A. Linn; 'Source Readers of American History,' by Prof. A. B. Hart; John Richard Green's 'Oxford Studies'; 'History: Suggestions as to its Study and Teaching,' by Prof. Lucy Maynard Salmon, from whom we are to have also 'A History of the Appointing Power'; 'The Mastery of the Pacific,' by A. R. Colquhoun; 'The Island of Formosa: A Complete Account of its Condition, Political and Industrial,' by James W. Davidson, United States Consul; 'The Principles of Western Civilization,' by Benjamin Kidd; 'A History of Political Theories, Ancient and Mediæval,' by Prof. William A. Dunning; 'Democracy and Social Ethics,' by Jane Addams; a translation by Frederick Clarke of Ostrogorski's 'Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties'; 'The Genesis of Modern Constitutions,' by Prof. James Harvey Robinson; 'The Development of Cabinet Government in England,' by Mary Taylor Blauvelt; 'The Theory of Prosperity,' by Prof. Simon Patten; 'The Ivory Workers of the Middle Ages,' by A. M. Cust; 'Lessons from Greek Pottery,' by John H. Huddilston; 'The Chatsworth Van Dyck Sketch-Book,' with letterpress by Lionel Cust; 'The Diamond Mines of South Africa: Some Account of their Rise and Development,' by Gardner F. Williams; 'A Lexicon to the Poetical Works of John Milton,' by Laura A. Lockwood; 'What Is Shakspere?—An Introduction to the Great Plays,' by Prof. L. A. Sherman; 'Shakspere in Tale and Verse,' by Lois G. Hufford; and 'The English Chronicle-Play: A Study in the Popular Literature concerning Shakspere,' by Prof. Felix E. Schelling.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, will issue directly 'The Cloistering of Ursula,' a romance by Clinton Scollard.

In Prof. George R. Carpenter's brief life of Longfellow (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.) the excellent series of "Beacon Biographies" is prosperously continued. Considering the present widespread reaction against Longfellow's old-time vogue, Professor Carpenter's task was not of the easiest; but he has performed it in a fashion at once workmanlike and sympathetic. The account of events in the poet's life is clear and consistent, and sufficiently enlivened by local color. Indeed, with the full records edited by Mr. Samuel Longfellow, this part of the work was doubtless comparatively easy. The narrative of less external happenings in the development of Longfellow's mind and art is fairly intimate and no less clear. The final criticism of Longfellow's poetry is discriminating and just, yet rather unusually appreciative of his real merits. In short, the little book exhibits, in the phrase of the prospectus of the series, "the best contemporary point of view." Its chief virtues are clarity and good sense.

Mr. Strutt's 'Fra Filippo Lippi' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) is one of those compilations for which there seems a great demand, and the production of which at a moment's notice has been made easy. The receipt is so much Morelli, so much more of certain of his followers, a pinch of Cavalcaselle, sprinkled over with references to authorities (chiefly such Germans as have been of small use to the writer), full of nice plums in the form of illustration, and salted with caustic remarks against the laborious students who really "fished the murex up." There is not an idea, nor even a fact, in Mr. Strutt's book due to Mr. Strutt. Yet we can, for that reason, perhaps, sincerely recommend it. All that the person of culture need know about Fra Filippo he will find in this book. There are a good number of errors due to unfitness and haste, but they are not vital.

'Bright Days in Merrie England,' by A. Vandoren Honeyman (Plainfield, N. J.; Honeyman & Co.), is a pleasantly, though most naïvely written record of four-in-hand journeys in England. It is no more than a guide-book to famous roads and inns and show-places in several counties, but its numerous illustrations, from photographs, give it a certain interest for those who care for rural England, and the tourist may find his profit in the writer's sprightly comments on the comforts and discomforts that attend coaching. Oxford was the main starting-point of these excursions, but there are also chapters on the Isle of Wight and the English lakes. The literary gossip is sometimes amusing, as when, in comment on a picture of Marie Corelli's house in Stratford-on-Avon, we are told that "her splendid literary work has conferred additional honor upon this already world-famous town." The naïve enthusiasm and uncavilling enjoyment that pervade the book are as rare as pleasing.

The quaint volume by Jane De Forest Shelton, entitled 'The Salt-Box House: Eighteenth Century Life in a New England Hill Town' (Baker & Taylor Co.), takes its name from the local designation of the house built and occupied for five generations by the family whose history is herein given. Heredity, social position, and means were more favorable to this family than environment, which, from their isolation in a remote corner of Connecticut, made them less conspicuous in public affairs than many of inferior standing. On the other hand, we have an exceedingly pleasant picture of a comparatively rare phase of New England colonial life—that of a well-to-do family of the Church of England, with slaves and ample household appointments, somewhat after the pattern of English country gentry, yet with a distinct American flavor. We accompany it from one generation to another with all their widening interests and varying affiliations. The book is remarkable for the minuteness and accuracy with which every detail of domestic life is depicted. As is truly remarked in the preface: "There is not recorded a custom or a costume, an article of use or adornment, a habit of life or of manner, for which there is not authority for the period and locality designated." The gradual decay, through removal and thinning out, of the family life exemplifies the process by which so many homes in rural New England districts have been desolated. The final occupant of "the Salt-Box House," while of the ancient-maiden type indigenous to New England, was as unique and characteristic as the house she represented. The illustrations of this work are interesting and effective.

In 'The Wild Fowlers,' by Charles Bradford (Putnams), we have duck-shooting treated in colloquial fashion. The opening chapter, "Point-Shooting for Black Duck," suggests Mr. Barlow and his two famous pupils, Sandford and Merton. In the present instance that eminently good man and the two youths are represented by Dr. B——, and one "Peritus," a young companion. An attendant, in the person of a professional gunner (who speaks the dialect which one never encounters outside of works of fiction), is used to set decoys and as a foil to emphasize the correct language of his employer and his young friend. The copious conversation of Dr. B.—— and "Peritus" serves as a medium to impart information in regard to "shot-guns, ammunition, the natural history of wild-fowl, and

the chivalric sportsman's best method of taking the game." The remaining chapters are devoted to "battery-shooting," and are equally marked by garrulity. If there be one reason for printing this little volume, it may be found in the reproduction of two very beautiful drawings of wild fowl, by Mr. A. Thorburn.

The 'Handbook to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament,' by Frederic G. Kenyon, Assistant Keeper of Manuscripts, British Museum (Macmillan), while not a rival of "the standard works of Gregory and Scrivener," contains matter more recently available. On the palæographical side it is thorough and accurate, as the author's position would lead one to expect. The critical position is substantially that of Hort, but Mr. Kenyon wisely declines to accept the paramount authority of the Codex Vaticanus. To the four forms of the text named by Westcott and Hort: Syrian, Neutral, Alexandrian, and Western, he applies the first four letters of the Greek Alphabet. The more recent theories of Blass, while fairly stated, are regarded as not proven. The sixteen facsimiles in the volume are interesting, but in some of them the size of the letters has been so reduced that it is difficult to read the text.

The third volume of Dr. W. H. Allchin's collaborative 'Manual of Medicine' (Macmillan) deals with diseases of the nervous system, of which it gives a review in about four hundred closely printed pages. There are nine contributors to the volume, but, in spite of this, the text runs on smoothly and without obvious changes of style. The section on anatomy, written by the able hand of Prof. C. S. Sherrington, is a particularly strong feature of the book. The accounts of the various diseases are almost too condensed to be attractive reading, but are comprehensive and good.

Nothing remains to be said of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan), when mention is made of its conclusion by the third volume of the Supplement. Nothing, we mean, of the nature of this grand and disinterested enterprise. Between How and Wood, it is but natural to remark how many great names are gathered up from the dead of the period during which the main work was in progress. Victoria takes precedence with 112 pages, and Ruskin follows next with 23; but here also are Max Müller, Jowett, Huxley, Newman, James Martineau, Sir A. H. Layard, and many lesser lights, from Isaac Pitman to Orton, the Tichborne claimant. Of special interest to Americans are Fanny Kemble, Tom Hughes, Dr. McCosh, and W. J. Linton, whose wife also is recorded here, in obedience to the dictionary-maker's injunction not to put asunder what alphabetically belongs together.

The sixth volume in the second series of the great quarto Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office is distinguished at once by the fact that whereas in the first series only four and a half pages were occupied by the works of Galen, or commentaries upon them, the subsequent accessions fill seven pages, and go back as far as 1501. Guy de Chauliac, again, who was invisible in the first series, here fills a page with editions from 1480 down. These two facts show the persistency with which the marvellous collection is perfected in the older portion. Many complaints, and members affected, and branches of medical science—Gall-bladder, Glaucoma, Head, Heart, Gynæcology—requiring much space, occur in this instalment (G-Hernette). Even the layman can profitably resort to such topics as Health-resorts or Heating; and it is hard to say what common folks may not chance upon here—Goats, Gorillas, Giraffes, Guano, Grindstones, Handkerchiefs (their suppression being called for by one author in order to ward off contagious diseases like tuberculosis, etc.). This is not more surprising, perhaps, than Theophilus Garencieres's "true and genuine tincture of coral in physick, grounded upon reason, established by experience, and confirmed by authentical authors in all ages" (London, 1676). Goethe's works have found a place, and Goldsmith (for it is a moot question whether he was ever a physician) had to be entered. Garfield, for his case, and Guiteau for his insanity, Grant for his cancer, furnish other rubrics. And Dr. S. A. Green, prolific in much good matter, contributes his copy of the laws of Harvard College of 1855, with an introduction. To a Dutch edition (1652) of Hermes (Trismegistus) is appended a reference for his life and another for his portrait; and this is but a sample of the pains bestowed upon this invaluable repository of medical information.

M. Jules Martin's annual 'Nos Artistes' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff) passes in review, with portrait and sketch of career, 358 actors, actresses, operatic and concert singers, and dancers, and affords a valuable study of character and talent. The provinces vie with Paris in producing these lights of the stage, and even Sacramento, New Orleans, and Boston gave birth to as many actresses in this gallery. While many countries of Europe have contributed of their natives, if any one was born in Germany, it is, we believe, not revealed here. Among the female caprices are the withholding of place and date of birth, or at least year of birth, or the leaving the date to be reckoned by any one who will take the trouble. One actress alone supplies no portrait of herself. Notice is duly taken of rebuffs at the door of the Conservatoire. An American can but be struck by these physiognomies in respect of training and intelligence in comparison with the expressionless faces of the majority of the craft in this country. M. Martin supplies an index of names, though the arrangement is alphabetical, and adds historical accounts of the various theatres, of dramatic societies, etc.

The serial "Meisterbilder fürs Deutsche Haus" (Munich: George D. W. Callwey; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) runs on with twenty-four sheets to date, embracing latterly the Holbein Erasmus, Dürer's Hieronymus Holzschuher and "Feldschlange," Raphael's Sistine Madonna (in whole and in part), Rembrandt's "Raising of Lazarus," Michael Angelo's "Creation of Adam," Leonardo's "Mona Lisa," besides examples from Cornelius, Titian, and Velasquez. The inner pages of the wrapper of each plate discuss the picture, the artist, and the mode of reproduction. These pictures well deserve a place in the schoolroom as well as the home, and rare will be the direct art instruction which can compete with the silent influence of such masterpieces (daily viewed) in the formation of taste.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, No. 11, contains an account of a visit, on behalf of a German company, to some gold districts in the northern part of the province of Pechili by Dr. K. Vogelsang. He reports that the alluvium gold is apparently exhausted in the region visited, and the natives have stopped mining. Only a few places seemed to warrant a more extended survey. A carefully drawn map shows the geological features of the country immediately adjacent to his route. Dr. Herrmann concludes his examination of the history of the Pitcairn Islanders, particularly of the population statistics, since 1800, and maintains that, notwithstanding recent favorable reports of the present condition of the islanders, the facts show the inevitable tendency to degeneration of a mixed race of whites and natives leading a perfectly isolated life.

"Certain Aboriginal Remains of the Northwest Florida Coast" is the title of a memoir by Clarence B. Moore in the latest number of the Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. It is the result of the exploration of twenty mounds along the shores of Perdido, Pensacola, and Choctawhatchee Bays and Santa Rosa Sound. Mr. Moore describes a new form of burial, where a skull alone, or a skull with a few bones, lies beneath an inverted vessel of earthenware. A similar method of interment was practised in Georgia, but there the remains had been cremated, while evidences of cremation have not thus far been met with on the northwest Florida coast. A most striking collection of purely aboriginal earthenware has been obtained from the mounds and cemeteries explored. Its decoration, which is largely symbolical, and its make show a mixture of cultures. There are many of the life forms of the ware of the Middle Mississippi region, but the admixture of coarsely powdered shell found in that section does not appear in the clay of the Florida vessels. The complicated stamp decoration of Georgia and of the Carolinas is met with, but not the tempering of the clay with small pebbles to form "gritty ware." The paper is profusely illustrated. The same number of the Journal contains a shorter article, by the same author, on "Certain Aboriginal Remains on the Tombigbee River." The absence of cremated remains thereabouts, as well as in northwestern Florida, shows that the custom of cremation was not introduced by way of this region into the peninsula. It is probable that it passed through Georgia, where fragments of cremated bones, either covered with inverted vessels or placed in vessels capped by inverted bowls, are plentiful.

By the accidental dropping of a line on page 19, column i. of last week's issue, the third sentence of the closing paragraph was deprived of sense. It should have read: "Particularly interesting is the association of melancholia with disturbance of the central area of the parietal lobe."

—The editor of the *Atlantic* opens the new year with a somewhat mournful consideration of the "Cheerless Reader," who makes his days and nights unhappy with streams of sorrowful correspondence after each issue of his magazine. The "Gentle Reader" of the olden day is no more, and the "Cheerful Reader" shows signs of disappearing too; soon nothing but the "Intelligent Reader" will be left, and then "the world of

periodical literature will be a dismal world indeed." But perhaps the editor will come to think better of the situation by reflecting that it is really a high tribute to the character of a periodical when readers who cannot peruse an article which goes against the grain of their own habits of thought without a blow in return, still cannot leave it unread. The editor tells us that the *Atlantic* is to continue what it has been in the past, and that can only mean that it is to be a magazine with a mission. To any such the objecting reader is an inevitable accompaniment, and is really a sign that the remedies which it is administering to the body politic and social are taking hold. R. Brimley Johnson's article on "England in 1901" is a searching piece of criticism on present conditions and tendencies across the sea, and, in its most important facts and conclusions, equally applicable here at home. Mr. Johnson strikes a sturdy blow against "the magic illusion of phi'anthropy, by which a man is led honestly to believe that he is conferring a benefit on others by shaping them after his own image"; the primitive and unphilosophical assumption that all who cannot appreciate the blessings of our civilization should be wiped off the face of the earth; "the foolish process of remoulding nations on Birmingham patterns." As to the African situation specifically, the present conditions are inevitable "till something shall knock enough sense into us to shake hands with an honorable enemy." Mr. Rollo Ogden calls attention to "The New Powers of the National Committee." The chairmen of our party National Committees, by virtue of the large sums of money collected and expended under their control, and their hold upon official patronage, are threatening the independence of the executive and legislative departments of the Government. In other words, we are setting up a machine calculated to reproduce at Washington the situation which has been such a blight at various State capitals, preëminently Harrisburg and Albany. Professor See contributes an enthusiastic and heartening paper on recent progress in astronomy, upholding the view that this and kindred sciences are by no means finished; and he indicates pathways along which there still are hopeful chances of new and far-reaching discoveries. He pays high tribute to the deserving work of Campbell, now the director of the Lick Observatory. Doppler (not Doeppler) was the first to enunciate the widely applied principles of spectral determination of motion in the line of sight—and in 1842, not 1840. Also, Wollaston first showed the spectral lines in 1802, twelve years before Fraunhofer's map was made—not in 1826, twelve years after, as Professor See states.

—The last four volumes of the series entitled 'Modern Eloquence' (Philadelphia: John D. Morris & Co.; New York: University Publishing Co.), consist of three of Occasional Addresses and one of Anecdotes and Illustrations, with "indices" which turn out to be a "general index"; the anecdotes and illustrations being relegated to a topical classification of very limited aid to "practical utility." The Addresses are naturally of more permanent value than the preceding After-Dinner Speeches, and will compare not unfavorably with the Lectures; but they have been chosen with absolutely no discrimination for style or intrinsic worth. On either ground it would be impossible to include the two examples of Mr. McKinley's "modern eloquence." He is at one extreme of diction from (say) Judge Oliver Wendell Holmes, whose prose has few equals; and in commonplaceness the late President has here no superior. Hugo and Zola are in line with Englishmen and Americans. Among our own orators we encounter Phillips Brooks on Lincoln, Blaine on Garfield, Rufus Choate on Webster, Curtis on Lowell, Warner on Curtis, Schurz on Gen. Sherman, Olney on Marshall, Mabie on Poe. Here, too, is Clay's address to Lafayette, Charles Francis Adams on "A College Fetish," Dana on Journalism, Lowell on Democracy, Roosevelt on the "Strenuous Life" (in the same volume with Booker Washington on "The Progress of the American Negro"), Stedman on Stevenson. In the English contingent we remark Pater on Raphael, and Rosebery on Burns; also, Chamberlain on "Patriotism," speaking in 1899, before Kruger had gone to war for *his* patriotism, but with a prophetic flouting of "l'ami du genre humain," and an apology, echoically American, for the patriotic view "of the expansion of the Empire in which we seem to be fulfilling the manifest duty of our race." An early discourse by Henry Cabot Lodge to Harvard students on the "Uses and Responsibilities of Leisure" some will think to have been unduly neglected by its author in his own case. And Senator Hoar's Charleston laudation of South Carolina and Massachusetts, while suppressing even a remote allusion to his father's having been mobbed out of the State on his mission from the Commonwealth to protect her colored seamen in 1844, may mark the want of a sense of humor at least. These volumes, like the first six, are freely illustrated with portraits, mostly excellent.

—Far better specimens of the typographic art are the two volumes of select 'New England Society Orations' edited by Cephas and Eveline Warner Brainerd, and published for the New England Society of New York by the Century Company. What strikes us here is the general oblivion which has overtaken many and is rapidly overtaking more of the orators grouped together. To the country at large the names of Gardiner Spring, J. B. Romeyn, Philip M. Whelpley, C. B. Hadduck, Jonathan P. Hall, Samuel L. Knapp, George S. Hillard, and C. W. Upham are as unfamiliar as those of the present Cabinet Ministers of Italy. In a second plane of recession are John Pierpont, Horace Bushnell, Leonard Bacon, George B. Cheever, William Adams, R. S. Storrs, and Robert C. Winthrop. And at the end of the present century what will be the "*un*submerged tenth" of the remaining names—Webster, R. Choate, O. W. Holmes, Emerson, G. W. Curtis, W. M. Evarts, George P. Marsh, and Mark Hopkins? The value of this collection lies in the manifold playing upon a single string of "the day we celebrate," both in the practical application of New England principles to current events, and in the avoidance thereof. The historian of witchcraft, Charles W. Upham, speaking on Forefathers' Day, 1846, saw no peril to the Union except "on the part of those persons who feel themselves implicated in objectionable institutions maintained and cherished in some of the States." Add "a certain description of ignorant and insolent foreigners." In 1838, the Rev. Leonard Bacon, alluding to the murder of Lovejoy and the burning of Pennsylvania Hall, defended the Puritan treatment of the Quakers, who "deserved to be punished, not for their opinions, but for their actions," and found their successors in "the anti-slavery agitators of our day," who, in an age more tolerant of free speech, had the misfortune to be punished by mob rather than as were the Quakers of old (lucky dogs!) by law. The passage in which this comparison occurs will bear much study by one wishing to arrive at the orator's real attitude towards the abolitionists—especially if the student comes to it ignorant alike of them and of Dr. Bacon.

—'Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days' (T. Y. Crowell & Co.) is a brightly written series of studies by Geraldine Brooks. Only one of the ten women whose lives are here briefly but entertainingly described is likely to be familiar to the general reader. Martha Washington, the beautiful "Widow Custis," is a household word; but few people know anything about the life of Elizabeth Schuyler, the wife of Alexander Hamilton, or of Margaret Brent, the woman who governed Maryland, or in fact of the other patriotic and heroic beauties whose portraits adorn these pages. In the companion volume, 'Dames and Daughters of the Young Republic,' we move in a society a little less remote, and encounter the ill-fated Elizabeth Patterson, whose high spirit and beauty may win one's sympathy if one ignores her disposition, which was, to say the least, not ingratiating. Among the portraits here given are those of "Dolly" Madison and Emily Marshall. The latter's claim to a place in the series is frankly based on her personal charms, which were unquestionable. Are American women so universally charming nowadays that we take them as a matter of course, or is real beauty as rare as ever? Is it, in fact, conceivable that, given a twentieth century Miss Marshall, she could, by her mere appearance, shake the composure of the chief cities of this continent? At any rate, the lady who in her day left no one unmoved, from the President and the Judges of the Supreme Court to the workmen who forgot their dinner hour in the mere expectation of her passing by, has the right to rank as an historical personage, and the record of her triumphs can be recommended to while away a holiday half-hour. The general get-up of these volumes is pleasing, and the illustrations are pretty and appropriate.

—The present Duke of Argyll, better known as the Marquis of Lorne, had exceptional opportunities of studying the character of the late Queen of England. His biography of her, published by Harper & Bros. under the title 'V. R. I. Queen Victoria: Her Life and Empire,' does not, however, contain much information that is not accessible elsewhere. The most interesting of the particulars that have not previously appeared are the extracts from the journal of one of her Majesty's tutors, and the reminiscences of the Queen's childhood contributed by the late Duchess of Cleveland. Brief quotations are also made from a few of the Queen's letters to intimate personal friends. In the main, the author draws upon the usual sources, which he seems to have read rather carelessly. For example, his account of the royal travels in 1846 is so confused

that he places the Restormel mine in Guernsey instead of in Cornwall. His misquotation of her Majesty's favorite hymn, "Peace! Perfect Peace!" makes nonsense of the last line. His references to the history of the country outside of the personal record of court events are scrappy and misleading. It is obviously absurd to begin an outline of the Afghan question with a reference to the murder of Cavagnari, as it is also to introduce South African affairs by mention of Lord Carnarvon's proposals for confederation. It is, indeed, impossible to guess at the principle which has guided the writer in his selection of topics. A paragraph, for instance, is devoted to the death of Victor Hugo, whose recognition here appears to be due to the fact that he lived for a time in one of her Majesty's possessions. But the only events of English literary history that find a notice are the foundation of the *Illustrated London News* and the writing of 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men.' It is curious to note the Duke's comment on the succession duties, "which make country estates pay more than they can bear, and thus diminish to a serious extent the opportunities for occupation hitherto afforded."

—MM. Armand Brette and Edme Champion have published an interesting volume entitled 'La France au milieu du XVIIe Siècle (1648-1661) d'après la Correspondance de Gui Patin' (Paris: Colin). The letters of this singular but celebrated physician were published posthumously in 1683, and long enjoyed wide popularity. For example, the article on Patin in Bayle's 'Dictionary' contains the strongest testimony to their fame. "They are so well known by every one," says Bayle, "that it is unnecessary for me to speak of the author's merit." From the seventeenth century to the days of Sainte-Beuve, Patin's correspondence had a well-recognized place in French literature, never ranking among the masterpieces, but always claiming a certain amount of notice from its frank pessimism and downrightness of utterance. There are a great many of the letters, and latterly they have dropped out of sight a good deal, partly because Patin's professional reputation tends to decline, and partly because his correspondence is not only bulky but somewhat monotonous in tone. The present edition is based less upon enthusiastic admiration than upon the desire to render accessible a certain kind of historical evidence. Patin was a contemporary of Richelieu, Condé, and Turenne—a contemporary, also, of Louis XIV. and Colbert. He lived at a time when France was humbling the House of Austria in both branches, gaining fresh territory by the Peace of Westphalia, and shining forth in full splendor before the eyes of an astonished Europe. Yet Patin sees none of this. He is a caustic critic of prime ministers, he lashes the vices of society with fierce asperity, and nothing that occurs in either Paris or the realm seems to him really good. Doubtless such melancholy views are due to temperament, and the generation should not be judged by the witness of a sombre physician. Nevertheless, these letters deserve to be known and considered, the more because the times which they depict are so often judged by their brilliant achievements in arms and letters. As M. Champion says at the close of his introduction: "Aussi, plus Patin nous surprend, nous scandalise, et plus il nous rend service." There was at least one man who scorned the triumphs of Louis XIV. and saw what was least pleasant in an age of glory. MM. Brette and Champion print but a portion of the letters, and hope only to illustrate the value of Patin's strictures upon contemporary life. Selecting the period of the Fronde, they give the passages which best represent his attitude towards men and events. For ordinary purposes their abridgment will be more serviceable than the complete text, and in many ways it is better than the three-volume edition of Reveillé-Parise.

GREEN'S LETTERS.

Letters of John Richard Green. Edited by Leslie Stephen. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

It is now more than eighteen years since Green died, and although there have appeared essays upon him by Mr. Bryce, Mr. P. L. Gell, Mrs. Humphry Ward, and Mr. W. J. Loftie, besides those by Haweis and Freeman, the authoritative collection of letters with biographical comment is only appearing at this late date. Why the publication of his correspondence has been retarded we have no right to ask. That the delay cannot be traced to any want of devotion might be inferred, if other evidence were lacking, from the beautiful edition of his 'History' which Mrs. Green has prepared with such great care. Green had many stanch friends, too, and a devoted publisher. At any rate the work is now in print. As for the postponement, Mr. Stephen says in the opening sentence of his preface: "I must ask readers of these letters to take for granted that there have been sufficient reasons for the long delay in their appearance."

The book was worth waiting for, and it will have the effect of heightening Green's reputation as a man of talent and distinction, if not, in certain respects, of positive genius. The favorable impression is the deeper because the test is so severe. It was not one of those lives which make an inevitable appeal through the element of action. It was devoid of striking incident, or indeed of any incident at all save such as is supplied by the employments of a curate in East London, and by a constant change of residence in search of health. Nor has the meagre material which a quiet life affords been embellished by the special pleading of an enthusiastic biographer. No one now living is better qualified to write biography than Mr. Stephen. Both his gifts and his experience are quite exceptional. But in the case of contemporaries the biographer is expected to have known intimately the man of whom he writes. As it happens, Mr. Stephen's acquaintance with Green was slight, and upon this ground he thought himself unfitted to undertake even the task of editing the letters. "When, however, Mrs. Green came to the conclusion that, under all the circumstances, the proposed arrangement would be most satisfactory to her, I could no longer hesitate." We have said that the test is a severe one. Mr. Stephen feels placed under an imperative restriction by having known Green so slightly, and remains for this reason in the background. His part of the work is done to perfection, but it is relatively inconsiderable. The effect, favorable or unfavorable, depends upon the quality of the letters alone, and it is because they disclose Green's aspirations so clearly that they create a stronger sense than before existed of his ability and character.

Green owed nothing to fortune except the place of his birth, and a father, "of great tenderness and simplicity," who took an interest in the boy's questions and answered them by saying: "I do not know, but I will try to find out." He was born at Oxford in 1837, and came of humble family. His grandfather was a tailor, his father a "registrar and maker of silk-gowns for Fellows." There seems to have been no sign of genius in previous generations; and though Green received financial assistance from relatives when he was an undergraduate at Jesus College, he was but little indebted for his success to the influences which are communicated by highly educated parents and a refined home. This fact is the more remarkable inasmuch as he developed great delicacy of perception, and an innate refinement which the self-made do not always possess.

At school and college, Green began to show originality, but his interests carried him beyond the bounds of a stereotyped curriculum. Gibbon "arrived at Oxford with a stock of erudition that might have puzzled a doctor, and a degree of ignorance of which a schoolboy would have been ashamed." Green's case was doubtless similar during the years of his residence at Jesus. Like Gibbon, too, he gained from his studies at Oxford little profit and less pleasure. For Jesus College and its Welshmen he grew to entertain a positive dislike, which, after it had been softened by years, was expressed in the form of banter. "I don't love Edward First (as I showed t'other day), but I wouldn't abuse him so if he had really hung those bards. But he didn't." And of Jesus College he says: "£5,000 are spent annually in that vile place on 'Welsh Education.'"

While Green's career at Oxford was undistinguished by a Hertford or an Ireland, he did not leave the University without giving some hint of his strong predilection for history. Besides attracting the notice of A. P. Stanley, he wrote a series of papers upon "Oxford during the Last Century," which is marked by the best qualities of his later work, extreme vivacity and solid information. Unfortunately, these articles were buried in the columns of a local newspaper, and brought the author neither distinction nor encouragement.

In the choice of a profession, Green was largely influenced by the teaching of F. D. Maurice. Under the spur of enthusiasm he decided to enter the Church, and the work which he did as a clergyman between 1861, when he was ordained, and 1869, when he abandoned the clerical character, was of the most honorable and disinterested kind. Despite his wretched health, his growing fondness for history, and the gradual change of his theological opinions, he kept practical duties manfully before him until the last. The cholera of 1866 found him at his post in Stepney, where he worked, in the words of Mr. Gell, "as officer of health, inspector of nuisances, ambulance superintendent, as well as spiritual consoler, and burier of the dead." Mr. Stephen adds: "On one occasion he found a man dangerously ill in an upper room. Some big draymen in the street refused to help. Green therefore tried to carry the man down stairs. His slight frame was unequal to the effort, and the two fell

from the top to the bottom of the stairs together."

At length liberalism broadened into a state of mind which involved doubt upon important matters of Christian faith. Green, however, had no wish to vex the Church with his heresy, and withdrew from the priesthood upon the valid plea of ill health. Thenceforth until his death he supported himself by writing for the *Saturday Review*, editing for Macmillan, and publishing books on English history. During the last ten years and more he was struggling with consumption—a doomed man fighting with all his might to do his work, and do it well. After many trials success came with the publication of his famous 'Short History'; success, but not health. Mrs. Humphry Ward has described "the afternoons, in his later years, when the pretty house in Kensington Square was the centre of a small society such as England produces much more rarely than France. Mr. Lecky came—Sir Henry Maine, Mr. Freeman, Mr. Bryce, Bishop Stubbs sometimes, Mr. Stopford Brooke, and many more. It was the talk of equals, ranging the widest horizons, started and sustained by the energy, the undauntedness of a dying man. There in the corner of the sofa sat the thin, wasted form, life flashing from the eyes, breathing from the merry or eloquent lips, beneath the very shadow and seal of death—the eternal protesting life of the intelligence."

Such in briefest outline were the events of Green's life. The letters begin a short time before he left Oxford, and cover, almost exactly, the years 1860-80. He lived until 1883, but towards the end he was prevented by illness from writing letters, save at the longest intervals. During the period in question his chief correspondents were Prof. Boyd Dawkins, the late Professor Freeman, Mrs. Creighton and her sister, Miss Olga von Glehn; Miss Stopford, afterwards his wife, and Mr. and Mrs. Humphry Ward. He must have written to many others, but the vast majority of the letters here given are addressed to those who have been mentioned.

The charm of a volume like this vanishes beneath the abridgments of the reviewer. Long quotations, were they possible, might do something towards expressing the wit, or the animation, or the good feeling which so abound; but Green's gifts were versatile, and quotations, however copious, could illustrate only a part of his activity. His letters were like his conversation. Mrs. Humphry Ward emphasizes the essential feature of both when she says: "His talk *gave* perpetually; much of the previous talk of the world has not been a giving, but a gathering and plundering talk. But Mr. Green's was talk of the best kind, abundant, witty, disinterested; and his poet's instinct for the lives and thoughts of others, his quick imagination, his humorous and human curiosity about all sorts and sides of things, made pose and pedantry impossible to him." Generosity is a fine trait, but its practical value depends much upon the resources at command. Green always made free with what he had, and his profuseness meant the more to his friends because it flowed from an unfailing source of intellectual, moral, and human interest. Ill health so long continued and wearing brought with it moments of physical depression; yet the mind was ever eager, the will and spirits ever ready to revive.

Mr. Stephen, with true insight, observes of Green that "though no one was more thoroughly English in his sympathies, no one had less of the quality connoted by the 'Anglo-Saxon' of ordinary discourse." His letters bear out this view conclusively. He was far more open to stimulating impressions than most Englishmen are, even among the élite. Without yielding to a weak eclecticism or losing intellectual vigor through imitation, he drew from all quarters and profited by his docility. The subjects of his leading works are English, and he felt that the Englishman ought by his superior opportunities to reach a truer conception of history than is within the grasp of the German pragmatist. It may be said, and this is quite true, that he had not mastered the historical literature of Germany. Here, in point of detailed knowledge, lay one of his limitations. At the same time, he admired Ranke and Pauli, appreciating their love of thoroughness, praising their erudition, and knowing quite well the nature of their methods. As a rule he was on the watch for the best in thought and literary standards which foreign nations could supply. From early days he had a great love of French prose. From the time of his first visit to Italy he became enraptured with that land "of enchantment and the arts." The older he grew, the more cosmopolitan were the sentiments which he announced. Having begun at the feet of Maurice, he drew close in middle life to Hellenism. He was forty years old when he wrote thus:

"But these owls always get between one's soul and the sun—as if sunshine was something dangerous. Ah me, I fear I shall always be more Hellenic than Christian—but life, life in all its energy and brightness and quick movement, life in all its quick interchange of laughter and tears, why do these men fear it so and preach it down? They preach it down! They go their way and the sun shines on, and the world laughs for freedom and for joy!"

England has her great poets and her unpoetic millions. Perhaps all that has just been said may be compressed into the statement that Green, besides having the national virtues of energy and determination, was gifted with imagination. Unlike most Englishmen, he went through the world with his attention alert and his sympathies undulled by contact with the commonplace. To be a perpetual curate in Stepney was not, with him, to be made insensible by "endless rows of monotonous streets." He caught the poetry of East London: "Poetry in the great river which washes it on the south, in the fretted tangle of cordage and mast that peeps over the roofs of Shadwell, or in the great hulls moored along the wharves of Wapping." And it was by virtue of an answering emotion that he seized upon the best which men had done in the past or were doing about him.

It would be ludicrous to set down, item after item, an epitome of the tastes and aptitudes which these letters reveal. The main thing is that they are alive with the sparkling spirits of the writer, or, when serious, that they are instinct with a sense of strong and penetrating earnestness. Green began letter-writing with a view to perfecting his style, and the results are at first amusing, because each phrase is the product of sedulous care. The writer is keeping a copy against the possible loss of such an elegant composition. But soon, wonderfully soon, a change becomes noticeable. The undergraduate disappears, and his place is taken by a young lion, whom John Douglas Cook is glad to have on the staff of the *Saturday Review* in its best days. Carlyle's contributions to the 'Edinburgh Encyclopædia' differ little more from 'Sartor Resartus' than Green's letters of 1858-60 differ from those of 1865-70.

The staple of letters is friendship, and Green was a good friend. Having lost his parents when very young, and having passed his boyhood among somewhat uncongenial surroundings, he took the keenest delight in the affection and the marks of affection which he afterwards received. Mrs. Ward, the wife of his first rector, he loved and mourned as a son might do. Beneath the fun and gossip of his letters to Professor Boyd Dawkins there is always an undertone of tenderness. He was considerably younger than Freeman, who remembered him as "little Johnny Green." Afterwards, when both were working hard on English history, acquaintance ripened into friendship. Freeman got Green his chance to write for the *Saturday Review*, and they exchanged letters constantly. In these the younger man shows proper respect towards his senior, but without dropping a tone of outspoken criticism when it is called for. Then, after a frank statement of opinion, the letter may close: "Yours in all Johnnyhood, J. R. G."

On the whole, the best part of the correspondence is that which is addressed to women. Green's enthusiasm and sprightliness make him at times seem almost feminine. Better still, he had an intuitive regard for ideas and emotions that are rarely understood by men. When writing, for example, to Mrs. Creighton or Miss von Glehn, he speaks less of events than of men and women; he gives freer play to his fancy; his persiflage has a gayer ring. He loved to write light articles for the *Saturday Review* on "Children at the Beach," the "Buttercup" or débutante, and the "Ethics of Flirtation." In politics and religion Green was a liberal, but above all other things, he was a humanist. Hard work did not check the abundance of his humor, nor did ill health or religious doubt lessen his sympathy for every kind of generous endeavor. The tragedy came at the close, when the complete happiness of his married life was cut short by the disease against which he had battled with almost unexampled courage. It is with these words that Mr. Stephen closes his notice of Green's last years:

"Sir Lauder Brunton said that his force of will and enthusiasm for his work had kept him alive for two years longer than any doctor would have thought possible. He told his wife that what had kept him alive was his dread of separation from her. Many years before, he had said, I know what men will say of me; they will say, 'he died learning.' Mr. Humphry Ward adds that they will also say, 'he died loving.' "

We may hereafter speak of the way in which these letters are likely to affect the estimate of Green's historical writings. Here it may be said that they depict to the life a brave, enlightened, high-spirited, and most talented man.

BEERS'S ENGLISH ROMANTICISM.

A History of English Romanticism in the Nineteenth Century. By Henry A. Beers. Henry Holt & Co. 1901.

Our readers will remember that in a review of Professor Beers's earlier volume, 'A History of English Romanticism in the Eighteenth Century,' some exception was taken to the definition and delimitation of the subject. Now, in the preface to the present volume, he reasserts that by "Romanticism" he means nothing more nor less than mediævalism, and expresses the hope that "this second volume may make more clear the unity of his design and the limits of his subject." This hope is, in a measure, realized. His wisdom in confining his attention chiefly to the bellettristic aspects of his subject is even more evident than in the first volume, yet enough is said of the characteristic artistic, economic, and religious movements of the late lamented nineteenth century to produce that impression of completeness in unity at which Professor Beers has aimed. There are, indeed, numerous passages in which the lack of perspective implied in practically limiting the Romantic to the "Gothick" causes a certain inadequacy in the criticism. In general, Professor Beers is at his best, not where the demand is for sustained historical erudition, or strict analysis with fine, unblurred distinctions, but where there is need of taste in forming and realizing an impression, and play for a gift of humorous and picturesque phrase in expression. He is not the final systematic historian of the thing which most critics have agreed to call English Romanticism; he is an agreeable essayist on a few of its manifestations.

The initial study of Scott is, in respect to originality, coherence, and vividness, easily the best in the book. It is so full of apt and telling criticism in detail that it will be well to quote some pregnant sentences from it *passim*, so as to convey the drift of the criticism:

"The key to Scott's romanticism is his intense local feeling. That attachment to place which, in most men, is a sort of animal instinct, was with him a passion. . . . His absorption in the past and reverence for everything that was old, his conservative prejudices and aristocratic ambitions, all had their spring in this feeling." "Scott [this in a comparison of "Helvellyn" with "Fidelity"] was a lover of dogs — loved them warmly, individually, so to speak, personally; and all dogs instinctively loved Scott. Wordsworth had a sort of tepid, theoretical benevolence toward the animal creation in general. Yet, as between the two poets, the advantage in depth of feeling is, as usual, with Wordsworth." "Scott is always a little nervous when the lover and lady are alone together." "His show passages are such as the fight in the Trosachs, Flodden Field, William of Deloraine's ride to Melrose, the trial of Constance, the muster on the Borough Moor, Marmion's defiance to Douglas, the combat of James and Roderick Dhu, the summons of the fiery cross, and the kindling of the needfires—those romantic equivalents of the λαμπαδηφόροι in the 'Agamemnon.'" "The eighteenth-century historians were incurious of *life*. . . . Gibbon covers his subject with a lava flood of stately rhetoric which stiffens into a uniform stony coating over the soft surface of life. Scott is primarily responsible for that dramatic, picturesque treatment of history which we find in Michelet and Carlyle."

From the romantic point of view, all this is, in its way, admirable criticism, and the final impression we derive of Scott as a modern Don Quixote, a little less mad, is, we believe, as just as it is vivid. It is to be regretted that in the course of so excellent an essay we should find a reference to the idiots in "MacArthur's Hymn," who complain that "steam spoils romance at sea." Indeed, the proof-reading throughout the book is none of the best.

The two chapters which follow upon "Coleridge, Bowles, and the Pope Controversy," and "Keats, Leigh Hunt, and the Dante Revival," exhibit the same characteristic qualities as the "Scott." In both many readers will see defects springing from the exclusion of Platonism and the Orient from among the sources of "romantic" inspiration. It is a strange definition of Romanticism which must be wrenched to make it cover "Thalaba" and the "Ode on the Intimations of Immortality," or "Epipsychidion" and 'Vathek.' Nevertheless, like all of Professor Beers's writing, these chapters are full of felicitous judgments and memorable sentences. The differentiation of Keats's romantic subjects from Scott's is particularly good. Granting the romantic programme proposed by Ariosto in the opening lines of the 'Orlando Furioso,' Scott, says Professor Beers, "took for his theme *arme* and *audaci imprese*, while Keats sang of the *donne*, the *amori*, and the *cortesie*." He was the poet of the lute and the nightingale, rather than of the shock of spear in tourney and crusade. His "Specimen of an Induction to a Poem" begins—

> "Lo! I must tell a tale of chivalry."

"But he never tells it."

The succeeding chapters, dealing with "The Romantic School in Germany" and "The Romantic Movement in France," were, of course, essential to the full rounding of the theme; while they move rather perfunctorily, they are still very readable. In view of the fact that Professor Beers's self-chosen subject has to do with mediæval *motifs* in nineteenth-century literature, it is a little odd that, in speaking twice of the singularly romantic effect of the horn in "Hernani," he makes no mention of its very obvious relation to the famed blast that Roland blew at Roncesvalles.

In the discussion of "Diffused Romanticism" and "The Pre-Raphaelites" there is much that is stimulating and suggestive, and a little that is perplexing. Writing of Swinburne, Professor Beers says: " 'Laus Veneris' follows a version of the tale given in Maistre Antoine Gaget's 'Livre des Grandes Merveilles d'Amour' (1530), in which Venusberg is called 'le mont Horsel.' " If Professor Beers has had the advantage of perusing Gaget's book, a description of the copy would be of the highest interest. It has been suspected by a skeptical generation that the half-page of old French prefixed to "Laus Veneris" is a *jeu d'esprit* of the creative imagination. At any rate, there is no such work in the library of the British Museum, and no mention of either Gaget or his book in Quérard, Larousse, Lacroix, or Chevalier, in the exhaustive 'Bibliographie de l'Amour,' or in the thirty-four fat folios of the 'Universal-Lexicon.' We fear that the seeker after the 'Livre des Grandes Merveilles d'Amour' is likely to experience the disappointments of one who would acquire for his collection the novels of Arthur Pendennis or the tracts of Dr. Primrose.

The final chapter, treating of "Tendencies and Results," is suggestive again, but inconclusive. The trouble is, that Professor Beers has chosen to adopt too narrow conceptions of both Classicism and Romanticism. It is perfectly true, as he urges in his preface, that one has the right to start with any conception that will help him attain the end of his discourse; but confusion and inconclusiveness are sure to follow an attempt to confine a notion essentially various and vague within too strict bounds. Thus, Professor Beers's tendency is to consider all Latin humanism classic; whereas there is certainly a sense in which Virgil, the father of it all, is one of the most romantic of poets. Again, he is given to writing as if Classicism were a sort of iron shirt or strait-jacket for the muse, a thing abhorred of the poet. But, if we mistake not, the true classical spirit is simply the desire to live up to the highest standards in art and life, only presupposing an objective accumulation of such standards. Viewed from this angle, the classic and the romantic come to seem two perennially existing tendencies, and temperaments, opposite, indeed, but complementary rather than contradictory or mutually exclusive. From this point of view, Romanticism is a process of which Classicism is the attainment. Poets and artists seek the strange and the beautiful, each in his own way, until from their practice so-called classical standards are evolved. But no sooner do these become fixed than there ensues a new adventuring after beauty and strangeness, and a "romantic" period begins. If we give heed to such considerations as these, the "romanticism" of the last two centuries will appear not a "return to the mediæval," or to "nature," or to anything else, though these formulæ may describe certain of its aspects. It will be seen to be, rather, a resumption of the general course of literary evolution after an eddy of formalism, which, by reason of obvious social and political causes, had exhibited, as a matter of fact, less than usual of the true classical spirit.

Life and Times of William Lowndes of South Carolina, 1782-1822. By Mrs. St. Julien Ravenel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901. Pp. x, 257.

William Lowndes, the subject of this sketch, was born February 11, 1782. He was the youngest and only surviving son of Rawlins Lowndes, one of the best-known Revolutionary leaders of the South, President of South Carolina in 1778, and a prominent member of the Legislature which voted for a convention to ratify the Constitution. It is interesting to note that the father was a strong opponent of the new frame of government, declaring in the debate that he wished for no other epitaph than the words, "Here lies the man who opposed the Constitution because it was dangerous to the liberties of America." William was taken to England in 1789, where the characteristically unfeeling treatment which he received at school in punishment for a misdemeanor brought on rheumatic fever, and doomed him to invalidism for the rest of his life. He returned to Carolina in 1792, and finished his school life five years later, his teacher informing his father that the boy "had learned all he could teach him, and was beyond him." He then studied law, and in 1804 was admitted to the bar.

Although his education was distinctly English and Carolinian, Lowndes's political thinking had early begun to take a wider range, with the result of detaching him more and more from the Federalism which then dominated his State. How much such a change of opinion counted was shown in the strong objection raised to his marriage to a daughter of Thomas Pinckney, younger brother of Charles Cotesworth Pinckney. Lowndes was charged with being "a Republican," "a Republican-Democrat," a wanderer from Federalism; and the good offices of his friends were necessary to overcome the parental opposition. Years afterwards, commenting on the tenacity with which the Pinckneys held to their political creed, he observed that he had never been able to change his wife's opinions; and she in fact remained throughout a stanch Federalist. The practice of law proved distasteful, and after a year Lowndes withdrew, and until 1810 devoted himself mainly to the management of his estate. A series of articles in the Charleston *Courier* in reply to James Stephen's 'War in Disguise'—an attack on Jefferson's commercial policy—attracted attention, and led to Lowndes's election to the General Assembly, where he seems to have had an important share in the readjustment of the plan of representation then made, and which continued in force until 1866.

In 1810 he was elected to Congress, where his elder brother, Thomas, had represented Charleston from 1800 to 1805. With him went Langdon Cheves and John C. Calhoun, with both of whom he maintained thereafter an unbroken friendship. Clay, then Speaker, put Lowndes on the Committee on Commerce and Manufactures. Early convinced that the troubles with England and France could be settled only by war, he worked diligently for an increase of the navy, at that time, thanks to Jefferson's policy, wholly unprepared for active service; and he even seriously entertained the idea of entering the army. He was strongly opposed to the "caucus principle," which he characterized as "abominable," and refused, with Cheves, Calhoun, and others, to attend the caucus which renominated Madison. After the declaration of war, he tried to get a commission in the army, but withdrew his application on finding "that it would only be given on political grounds, and would not allow of active service" (p. 113). At the next session he was assigned to the Committee on Military Affairs, but, though still criticising the Administration for its temporizing policy, was unwilling to embarrass it by adverse action. He joined with Calhoun, however, in opposing Gallatin's proposed confiscation of the money accruing from the sale of imported goods which had been seized, and which was held by the Treasury, and, with Calhoun and Cheves, voted with the Federalists in favor of the remission of penalties under the Non-Intercourse Act.

In 1814, being then a member of the Committee on Naval Affairs, Lowndes voted for Calhoun's bill repealing the embargo, and put himself on record as unalterably opposed to privateering. He also supported Calhoun's plan for a bank, offered in opposition to that of Dallas. In 1815 he became Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, and proposed and defended the tariff of 1816. There seems to be some reason for thinking, however, that Lowndes was not fully convinced of the ultimate goodness of the measure, but advocated it rather as "the best possible for the time" (p. 154). He was now a recognized power in the House. In 1816, and again in 1817, he declined the war portfolio, being determined, according to his biographer, "to be absolutely independent of all administrative favors" (p. 156); he also refused offers of the mission to France, and special missions to Constantinople and St. Petersburg. In the Fifteenth Congress he carried a bill abolishing the internal war taxes, and saw his favorite plan of a sinking fund successfully under way. In 1818 he supported Forsyth's bill against filibustering, and in one of his most notable speeches upheld the view of John Quincy Adams, then Secretary of State, on the question of recognizing the South American republics. He also made two speeches in favor of the banks. His last speech of the session was against the approval of Jackson's course in the Arbuthnot-Ambrister affair.

At the close of the session Lowndes went immediately to Europe for his health. His notebook is filled with observations on canals, factories, banks, hospitals, asylums, roads, politics, etc.; and his tall, striking figure, keen and varied interest in affairs, and unusual powers of conversation made a distinct impression upon those whom he met. In England, however, he failed, partly through his own fault, to meet some people, among them Lord Holland, whom he particularly wished to see, and in consequence conceived the existence of a pervading prejudice on the part of Englishmen against Americans. In France Gallatin helped him to interesting acquaintance. Thence he went to Italy, still continuing his copious record of whatever he saw. He returned to America in October, convinced that "nothing can make a man so proud of being an American as travelling in Europe" (p. 197).

In the great debate over the admission of Missouri, Lowndes, now Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, at first spoke but little, devoting himself to the Spanish treaty and tariff revision. His defeat the next year by Taylor of New York, in the contest for the Speakership, was a great disappointment, the office being the only one which he seems ever really to have desired. When the Missouri Constitution came before Congress, Lowndes drew up the report advocating its acceptance, and opened the debate with one of his greatest speeches. But his health was now rapidly giving way, and he was absent a good deal from the House. He returned to his seat in December, 1821, and in March presented a report from a select Committee on Weights and Measures, "proposing ways for insuring accuracy and uniformity." With the hand of death visibly upon him, it is strange to find him offered, and seriously wishing to accept, the French mission. The climax of his public career came a few days after his return to Washington in December, when the Legislature of South Carolina nominated him for President. The endorsement bade fair to bring him into rivalry with Calhoun, but death intervened. His health continuing to fail, Lowndes determined on a voyage to Europe, but died on the way, October 27, 1822, and was buried at sea.

Mrs. Ravenel has told in an interesting way the story of Lowndes's career. The loss or destruction of valuable papers has made the material scanty, and less use than could have been wished has been made of official documents. Enough has been drawn upon, however, to enable the author to construct a pleasant and useful biography of a South Carolina leader whose political tenets were also reasoned political convictions, whose public honors came unsought, and whose influence upon his generation, aside from that ascribable to unusual powers of exposition and argument, was due most of all to his lofty independence and keen sense of political and personal honor.

The Two First Centuries of Florentine History. The Republic and Parties at the Time of Dante. By Prof. Pasquale Villari. Translated by Linda Villari. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

By this translation of her husband's book, Signora Villari has placed American students of Florentine history, and of Dante, under real obligation. In Italian the work has been known piecemeal for a long time, as much of it originated in lectures which Professor Villari gave in Florence, in 1866. These lectures he printed from time to time as magazine articles; then collected them in book-form, in 1890; and finally reissued them, with revisions and additions, in 1893. The result of this method of cumulative composition is naturally a series of important monographs, and not a consecutive narrative history. But the author frankly warns the reader of this fact, and of the further drawback that arises from the monographs being written at different times, so that the more recent are based on a wider knowledge of the subject than the earlier. For, thanks to Professor Villari's own researches, begun more than forty years ago, our knowledge of early Florentine history has been immensely extended. He has done most himself, and he has guided and inspired a notable group of younger men, who have studied in detail, with scientific zeal, almost every aspect of the period.

But, while a narrative history, cast at a single fusing, is usually to be preferred, it may be doubted whether, for several of the topics which Professor Villari deals with, the monograph is not the proper vehicle. Such subjects as "The Family and the State in Italian Communes," and "The Commercial Interests and Policy of the Greater Guilds in Florence," require to be treated by the massing and analysis of a multitude of minute facts, and not by narration, which best suits the chronicling of events. The same applies to the "Introduction," in which Professor Villari, after rapidly sketching the course of Italian development from the fall of the Roman Empire to the rise of the communes, states the philosophy of that epoch, as he sees it, announces the lines on which he proposes to investigate his main theme, and sums up its significance. We quote his summing up, because it will serve better than much reviewing to introduce the reader to Professor Villari's position as an historian of one of the vital crises in human development, and to his purpose in this particular work:

"It should not be thought that the Commune arose to champion the rights of man or in the name of national independence. Nothing of the kind. The Empire was still

held to be the sole and universal fount of right. Almost to the close of the fifteenth century, in fact, all cities, whether Guelph or Ghibelline, foes or friends of the Empire, continued to indite their state papers in its name. The revived republics always acknowledged its supremacy and their own dependence—almost, one might say, as though, in claiming a new and more general exemption, they only sought to be, as it were, their own dukes or counts. They combated the nobles and combated the Empire; but, victory once assured, they recognized the authority of the Emperor, and prayed him to sanction the privileges they had won. Nor was the destruction of the Empire at any time desired by the Popes; its protection was often indispensable to them, and they too recognized it as the legitimate heir of ancient Rome, and consequently as the only source of political and civil rights. Their purpose was to subject the temporal to the spiritual power. Therefore, during the rise of the Commune, theocracy and feudalism, Papacy and Empire still subsisted together, and always in conflict. The Commune had to struggle long against obstacles of all kinds; but it was destined to triumph, and to create the third estate and people by whom alone modern society could be evolved from the chaos of the Middle Ages. This constitutes the chief historical importance of the Italian Commune" (pp. 36, 37).

After this profound generalization, Professor Villari traces the history of Florence from its mythical origin, through the Roman and post-Roman times, to the coming of Charlemagne and the new feudal order, out of which, two centuries later, the Commune issued. He describes with sufficient minuteness the affairs of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the rise of the people, the guilds, the private and civic life, and the great current and counter-current of the Papacy and the Empire. But it is the thirteenth century to which he properly devotes three-quarters of his space. Then definite parties sprang into being; then policies and personages with conflicting ambitions emerged; and then, finally, after generations of such a nervous and violent career as in recent times we associate with the semi-savage Spanish-American republics, the people triumphed. We cannot review Professor Villari's chapters in detail, but we can commend them almost without reserve. He succeeds as admirably in depicting every change in that kaleidoscopic story as in his generalizations. To take a single instance, we may cite his account of the chaos of factions which followed the downfall of Giano della Bella, and led to the banishment of Dante; he renders a permanent service here by showing how little the *grande politique* of Papacy and Empire, and how much the ambitions of grasping individuals, had to do with that terrific feud which shattered popular government in Florence beyond repair. Corso Donati's private schemes, his vindictiveness, his arrogance, his masterfulness, counted for more than the world-rivalry of Pope and Emperor in causing this calamity. Professor Villari ends with the abortive expedition of Henry VII. into Italy.

Signora Villari has made a readable translation, with only an occasional slip, like the use of such forms as *arisal* and *destroyal*, to indicate that her long residence in Italy has left any trace on her idiomatic English. This volume is provided with an index and more than twenty illustrations, which the original lacks. We wish that room might have been found for the rare Florentine chronicle which Professor Villari printed as an appendix to his Italian work.

Nova Legenda Anglie: As collected by John of Tynemouth, John Capgrave, and others, and first printed with new lives by Wynkyn de Worde A. D. MDXUI. Now re-edited with fresh material from MS. and printed sources by Carl Horstman, Ph.D. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

Few people, perhaps, will be found to share the taste of Renan, who asserts in one of his essays that if condemned to a life of seclusion and limited to the choice of a single work with which to while away the hours of loneliness, he would select out of all books in the world the 'Lives of the Saints.' Nevertheless, the value of these productions has long been recognized, not only as reflections of the religious life of the Middle Ages, but as often embodying fragments of folk-lore and saga which might otherwise have perished. Among the workers in this field Dr. Horstman holds undisputed preëminence, as far as the Saints' Legends in their English forms are concerned, and he has still further increased the obligation of mediæval students to his industry by the two handsome volumes containing the Latin collection called 'Nova Legenda Anglie,' which have just issued from the Clarendon Press.

As is set forth in Dr. Horstman's introduction, this collection of lives of the saints of the British Isles exclusively is really due to John of Tynemouth, who lived in the first half of the fourteenth century although it passes more generally under the name of Capgrave. It is possible that the latter is responsible for the rearrangement of the lives in alphabetical order—not to speak of some other changes—which is already observed in certain manuscripts of the 'Nova Legenda' dating from the fifteenth century; but this is conjectural. At any rate, it was in this alphabetically arranged form, with some omissions and additions, that the work was first printed in 1516 by Wynkyn de Worde; but Dr. Horstman has restored from the unique Cotton manuscript the portions of the original collection omitted in the first printed edition, and has endeavored, moreover, to emend the text from the manuscript, and from the primitive lives on which the collection is based, wherever such were obtainable. Dr. Horstman does not make clear by what principle he was guided in his choice of readings, but, as the variants are given at the bottom of the page, the matter, perhaps, has no great importance.

It is to be regretted that considerations of cost and delay have compelled the editor to issue his work with an introduction, valuable, as far as it goes, but admittedly incomplete, the most obvious omission being in regard to the discussion of sources. Many will feel this deficiency, especially in the case of the lives of the saints of Celtic origin, often so closely connected with Celtic saga. An indication of the varied literature which has grown up about these legends would have been of general interest to scholars. As it stands, the introduction is devoted mainly to a detailed account of the different forms through which the collection has passed, and an investigation regarding the author's life. In this latter connection the editor gives very convincing reasons for the belief that John of Tynemouth filled the office of historiographer at the famous Abbey of St. Albans, in which capacity he composed his valuable 'Historia Aurea' (still unedited); and makes it probable, moreover, that he was a victim of the pestilence of 1348-49—a considerably earlier date for the death of this worthy than that which has been hitherto accepted. In the light of these investigations of Dr. Horstman, the article on John of Tynemouth in the 'Dictionary of National Biography' appears to be a tissue of errors.

The mixture of national with religious feeling which distinguishes this collection will, to people of English descent at least, give it an additional interest. Besides, the work in this new edition will be, doubtless for some time to come, the most generally accessible of the collections of the lives of saints in Latin—the language, of course, in which practically all of them were originally composed. We accordingly commend Dr. Horstman's publication to the attention not merely of students of hagiography, of whom it is to be presumed there are but few in this country, but to the wider circle of scholars in general who occupy themselves with mediæval life and literature.

The German and Swiss Settlements of Colonial Pennsylvania: A Study of the So-Called Pennsylvania Dutch. By Oscar Kuhns. Henry Holt & Co.

This is a painstaking presentation of the outward aspect of Pennsylvania German life. Made from the records and investigations of other writers, in the main, the picture is somewhat cold in color, and the reader misses that sympathetic interpretation of Pennsylvania-German kindliness, charity, hospitality, and integrity, in great and small matters, which the author, himself a Pennsylvania German, it might be thought would have been well qualified to give. He has, however, kept any racial sympathy which he may have felt with his subject well in hand. If this be a defect, it is largely compensated for by the exactness and care of the study. Still, our author occasionally trips up. After saying that the German Palatines who settled in New York, were often confused with their Dutch neighbors, in the note on page 216 he includes at least two Dutch surnames in a list of alleged German and Swiss families. An example of understatement is found on page 205, where we read: "Missionaries like Spangenberg and Post were of the utmost value in keeping the Indians quiet for many years, and many important embassies were intrusted to their care." The important services of Frederick Christian Post, the great Moravian peace-maker, who, in the French and Indian war, robbed the French of all their Indian allies on the Ohio, would scarcely be estimated at their real worth from so diffident a claim in his behalf. A sentence on page 226 would convey to the reader not acquainted with the facts that love for music was a new thing with the Pennsylvania German, whereas at Bethlehem a century ago choral societies and orchestras gave many public concerts each year, and introduced musical instruments and the music of the great composers of the Old World into the American colonies very many years before the cities of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston en-

joyed any such opportunities for musical culture. The extraordinary energy, initiative power, and executive capacity possessed by such a man as Dr. Brumbaugh, the present Commissioner of Education for Porto Rico, who within two years has done so much to Americanize fifty thousand Porto Rican children, and who is a pure Pennsylvania German, are qualities difficult to reconcile with the author's theory that the people of whom he writes are less strong than the Anglo-Saxons in these elements of character.

Many of the most interesting facts presented in this book are relegated from the body of the page to a footnote. In one such we learn that the wife of Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, the late Gov. Russell of Massachusetts, Archibald Lampman, Bayard Taylor, Spencer F. Baird, and Judge Jeremiah S. Black were of Pennsylvania German stock; William D. Howells springs from the same race. Among the curious parallels to the mingling of English and German in the Pennsylvania-German dialect Mr. Kuhns cites such mirth-provoking phrases as "walke in le lane," "il dig up un clod del terre," and "l'owner del park vient al gate del park pur hunter," presented in the law French of England in the sixteenth century.

The Care of Books: An Essay on the Development of Libraries and their Fittings, from the Earliest Times to the End of the Eighteenth Century. By John Willis Clark, M.A., F.S.A. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

The very earliest collections of books seem to have been connected with government and religion. At least the earliest of which we have any knowledge—those of Assyria—consist chiefly of public records, decrees, and devotional writings, and were naturally housed in the palaces and temples. So in Greece, and later in Rome, temples were favorite locations for public libraries, though, with the increase of wealth and luxury, private collections were made, often more for ostentation than use, so that, as Seneca tells us, a library had come to be as necessary a part of a rich man's house as a bath-room. Pope's Timon, showing his books to his visitors, calls attention to their "dated backs" and sumptuous binding; but his Roman prototype could not do this, as his books had neither backs nor binding. They were rolls of papyrus or parchment, the text being in short columns transverse to the length of the papyrus, which was rolled up by the left hand while it was unrolled by the right, and the title was written on a slip of parchment attached to the end. Such rolls were kept in pigeon-holes, like wall-paper at a modern paper-hanger's, where a sample of the pattern takes the place of the Roman *titulus*. After the *codex*, or leaved book, came into general use (considerably after the Christian era), presses or book-cases were employed, as in the Vatican Library, of which our author gives a copious and detailed account.

In the Middle Ages the great libraries grew up in the monasteries. Each monastery needed, of course, the books used in the service, the rule of the order, the Scriptures, and some treatises on theology; and around this nucleus a collection grew. The Benedictines especially favored the collection, production, and copying of books, and enacted minute rules for their care and use by the brethren. Other orders followed the example, and Mr. Clark has spared no labor in investigating their various regulations, which furnish very curious reading.

When these collections grew so large and their use by readers so extensive as to make a special library-room necessary, the old presses were found inconvenient, and hence grew the lectern system. The library was fitted up with reading-desks on which the books were laid, each book being usually fastened to a light chain running on a rod, to prevent abstraction or displacement. In front of each desk was a bench for the reader. A quite perfect example of a library of this kind still exists in Zutphen, Holland, with the old books still chained to the desks.

As books and readers multiplied, the lectern system was found unsatisfactory, and what Mr. Clark calls the "stall" system was introduced. The ends of the double lectern were carried up high enough to allow additional shelves above the desk, upon which the books stood upright, so that the reader, without moving from his place, could command a number of volumes. The next step was to discard the chains, which in public libraries was done in the eighteenth century. This allowed the removal of the reading-desk and doubled the space available for books.

All these systems contemplated the desks or shelves as set at right angles to the walls; but in the south of Europe the plan of setting the shelves against the walls was first introduced (Mr. Clark thinks) in the Escorial of Spain, in the sixteenth century. This plan was followed in the Ambrosian Library at Milan and the Mazarine Library in Paris, with the addition of a second story of shelves, accessible by a gallery. We have now reached the period of truly magnificent libraries, capable of containing tens and hundreds of thousands of volumes. The later devices for gaining additional space, such as those in use in the British Museum, do not fall within the limits of the work before us.

Not the least interesting part of this volume consists of information about early private libraries, and the use of books in connection with the private life of the Middle Ages, as exemplified by reproductions of old drawings and illuminations. The whole work is profusely and beautifully illustrated, and will delight the hearts of book-lovers.

A Japanese Miscellany. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mr. Hearn's "honorable" offering—to talk in Japanese style—for this book year consists of six stories, or rather condensed novels; three chapters entitled "Folk-lore Gleanings"; and six light essays, to which he gives the name "Studies Here and There." His text is marked by the customary lushness of rhetoric that in flavor is rather French than English, while there seems no lack of sensitiveness to things visible and invisible in Japanese life. He catches upon his page the subtle tints and aromas of a life and civilization unique by reason of their island growth during a thousand or two years. Yet we ask whether it is not time to cease the endless and monotonous reiteration of the words "honorable," "august," etc., in expression of the idea conveyed by the Japanese prefix *o*, which certainly gives a false and exaggerated notion of the commonplaces of Japanese life. The North American Indians are much like their probable relatives, the Japanese, not only in having no simple term signifying "brother" (or sister), but instead "older brother" or "younger brother"; in using terms of address that always imply superiority or inferiority; in impersonality of speech; in weakness of pronoun terms; and in using prefixes and expressions which imply honor to the person addressed or to anything belonging to him, and more or less depreciation of self and what belongs to self. Yet it would seem absurd to render phrases, substantives, and the "hooks and eyes" of speech, whether Japanese or Iroquois, in what in English smacks of pomp and stilts. Especially in some of the studies of what is already nearly commonplace — studies which are of the lightest possible texture, even though decorated with abundance of felicitous phrase and grandiose diction—does this mannerism border on the absurd, while in metrical sentences it becomes ridiculous. For example, one of several hundred instances in the children's song (p. 177) runs (italics ours):

> "Under the willow-tree
> Sir Mandarin-duck
> Being shone upon by the morning sun,
> His *honorable* color is dark.
> If the *honorable* complexion be dark," etc.

The "stories" are as tiny crystals, evaporated out of enormous bulk of mother liquid. They open great windows into popular superstition. That "Of a Promise Kept" tells how, in order to make good his word, a man who has committed hara-kiri sends his ghost to report. The story "Of a Promise Broken" is of a man who vows to his dying wife that he will bury a bell with her in his garden, and not marry again. Yielding to his friends, he takes a new wife, who soon hears the bell ringing in the garden, and is finally dragged out, mangled and beheaded by the ghost of the first wife. Another is the story of prayers to the pest-god, who answers by taking the life of another person of the same name and transfusing the soul into the body of the sick girl; the convalescent becoming, according to a decree of the Court, the property of both households. Other stories are of the paintings of brutes and demons, done with such artistic genius that they turn to life. These are the commonplaces of folk-lore and art stories in "the artist nation."

Japan not only is called the Land of the Dragon-fly, but is extraordinarily rich in varieties of the insect itself. In "picture-poems," as the author calls them—mere jets of fancy fixed in words, the measured ejaculations that note a fact—the *tombo* flies before the mind's eye in many a dainty conceit. The statement of such fact, in its method, shows a tender sentiment and keen appreciation, both of color, the delicate veining of the dragon-fly's wings, and its grace and swiftness of movement. The chapter on Buddhist names of plants and animals shows how fully the faith and cult of India have become the basis of popular education and culture, touching the imagination and enriching the folk-lore. As Christianity in Europe, so Buddhism in Japan, has given a new outlook on nature

and a poetic vocabulary. For example, the Japanese name of the hammer-headed shark is *nembutsu-bo*, or the priest who chants prayers ("Namu Amida Butsu") — with a hammer and gong. Instead of a pulpit-pounder, the devout Japanese have a prayer-banger. The modern French name of shark, according to Littré, is, as Mr. Hearn recalls, only a corruption of "requiem," implying that for the man caught by a shark there was nothing to be done but to chant his requiem.

A long and rich chapter on the songs of Japanese children, including lullabys, shows how rich is this department of nursery lore. Among the "Studies," that of "The Case of O-Dai," a young girl, compels thought. At the command of "two English missionary women," she casts away the *ihai*, or ancestral tablets, and is soon exiled from society, and vanishes for ever, "flung into the furnace of a city's lust. . . . Perhaps she existed only to furnish one example of a fact that every foreign missionary ought to try to understand."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Craig, W. J. The Works of Shakespeare: The Tragedy of King Lear. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Hardesty, Irving. Neurological Technique. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
Hunt, Gaillard. The Writings of James Madison, Vols. I., II., and V. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Kidson, Robert. Town Ballads and Songs of Life. Published by the Author. 50 cents.
Komensky, J. A. The Labyrinth of the World. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Legg, L. G. W. English Coronation Records. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $12.50.
Lockwood, L. V. Colonial Furniture in America. Scribners. $7.50.
Marx, K., and Engels, F. Le Manifeste Communiste, II. Paris: Georges Bellais.
Meehan, J. F. Famous Houses of Bath and District. Bath (Eng.): B. & J. F. Meehan. 10s. 6d.
Meindl, Vincenz. Sir George Etheredge, sein Leben, seine Zeit, und seine Dramen. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Meynell Alice. Later Poems. John Lane.
Michelson, Truman, and Jewett, J. H. From the Rig-Veda. Cambridge (Mass.): Published by the Authors.
Müller, Margarethe, and Wenckebach, Carla. Glück auf. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles, Lap-Leisurely, Vol. VI. Henry Frowde.
O'Neill, Moira. The Elf-Errant. London: A. H. Bullen; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Price, E. D. The Letters of Mildred's Mother to Mildred. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Private Journal of Sarah Kemble Knight: Being the Record of a Journey from Boston to New York in the Year 1704. Norwich (Conn.): The Academy Press; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., Scribners, etc. $1.50.
Purves, G. T., and Patton, F. L. Joy in Service. American Tract Society. 50 cents.
Ross, Janet. Florentine Villas. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $25.
Stables, Gordon. In Ships of Steel. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Tolman, A. H. Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar. Globe School Book Co.
Valentine, E. U. The Ship of Silence, and Other Poems. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Walker, H. de R. The West Indies and the Empire. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 7s. 6d.

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The Week.

In the act of voting almost unanimously on Thursday for a Nicaraguan canal, the House made it altogether likely that the canal may really be constructed at Panama. All that was really signified by the passage of the bill was an overwhelming desire that an Isthmian canal be dug somewhere or other, and a renewed confession by the Representatives that they are not able or willing to legislate seriously, and that they prefer to leave everything to the Senate. In casting 102 votes, as against 170, for an amendment favoring the Panama route, the House gave the plainest kind of hint to Senators to go ahead and buy out the Panama Company, in the perfect assurance that the unterrified Hepburn and all the rest would meekly acquiesce. Indeed, Hepburn himself could advance no stronger argument for his bill than that the action of the House upon it could easily be reversed if the all-wise Senate so asked. The whole exhibition on the part of the House was melancholy, and even shocking. Openly to shirk responsibility, to rush like sheep to pass a bill which every man who voted for it must have known to be improperly drawn and to have no chance of becoming law, and without a blush of shame to call upon the Senate to do the work of the House—how could a great assembly stand more palpably self-condemned? Several Representatives, we are glad to say, were conscious of the humiliation involved in such shiftless legislation, and openly protested against the leadership which had brought the House to so insignificant a pass.

As for the terms of the Nicaragua bill itself, the admission of slovenliness could no further go. The bill is precisely the same (except for changing an 8 to a 4), down to the smallest word, as that passed by the House last May. All that has happened since then is completely ignored by the high and mighty Hepburn. The report of our own Canal Commissioners, to secure which Congress voted $1,000,000, simply does not exist for him. Take one item. The expert Canal Commissioners estimated the cost of a Nicaraguan canal, exclusive of the sum required for the right of way, at $189,000,000. The Hepburn bill provides that the total cost, right of way and all, shall not "exceed in the aggregate $180,000,000." He has thus quietly raised his estimate of last May by $40,000,000, but still professes to know more about it than any mere engineer who has studied the problem on the spot.

The speech made by Mr. Hepburn on January 7 on his Nicaraguan Canal Bill was disreputable in more than one particular. It contained the immoral suggestion that the canal, when built, should be free of tolls to American ships, meaning that there should be discrimination against foreign ships. This is in the teeth of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, upon which the ink is scarcely dry, which declares that there shall be no discrimination whatever in the use of the canal for or against the ships of any nation. When Mr. Hepburn was pressed for an explanation of his words on this point, he said he hoped that Great Britain would give consent to discrimination in favor of our ships, although he must have known that the whole aim of British diplomacy (and of our own, too), until this time, has been diametrically opposed to discrimination in tolls. Mr. Hepburn said that our war-ships would go through free of toll anyway—a statement that can be true only in the sense that, as we are to build and own the canal, the tolls will be taken out of one pocket and put into the other. Under the treaty there is no more chance of discrimination in tolls on war-ships than on merchant ships.

It is disreputable in another sense that Mr. Hepburn seems not to have read the report of our Isthmian Canal Commission. In a colloquy with Mr. Reeves of Illinois he said that, inasmuch as the Panama Company had no right to sell out to the United States without the consent of the Colombian Government, it had forfeited its concession; and Mr. Reeves apparently assented to that view. Yet on pages 219 and 220 of the Commission's report there is a letter from Admiral Walker to M. Hutin acknowledging receipt of certain correspondence between the latter and Señor Silva, the Colombian Minister at Washington, showing that the Colombian Government had authorized him (Hutin) to enter into negotiations with the purpose of selling the Panama Canal to the Government of the United States. This statement, which was published in the newspapers months ago, cannot be questioned or ignored without disputing either the genuineness of the letters or the authority of the Colombian Minister to commit his Government. As no such question was raised by Mr. Hepburn, the natural inference is that he has not read the report of the Commission. It seems, however, that one Congressman who took part in the debate, Mr. Mann of Illinois, had actually familiarized himself with the contents of the report, for he said that he did not agree with Mr. Hepburn that the Panama Company had forfeited its rights by offering to sell its concession to the United States. Mr. Mann also, while favoring Mr. Hepburn's bill, dashed the hopes of the latter in reference to discrimination in tolls, by pointing to the clause in the new treaty which forbids it—a very simple but very necessary reminder to the Chairman of the House committee having charge of this important matter.

The new Ship-Subsidy Bill which has been introduced by Senator Frye, is made up of two entirely distinct parts, the first relating to mail subsidy, and the second to general subsidy. These not only are kept entirely distinct in the provisions of the act, but rest on entirely different principles. The mail subsidy, if justifiable, can be given only on the basis of value received by the Government in the carrying of the mails. If the Government does not receive value for what it pays, the system has no justification, and the payment must be regarded as a mere bonus. It is not difficult in this case to pass on the question of value received. The present bill, so far as it relates to mail subsidies, merely amends the Postal Subsidy Act of 1891 by increasing the compensation to vessels and altering their classification. The Act of 1891 was preëminently in the interest of the American Line, and the amendment now before Congress, by means of that concealment of special gifts under technical provisions which was such a feature of the former subsidy bill, is still more directly a gift to that line. The limit of the tonnage of the vessels of the first class which are to receive the highest subsidy, has been apparently so fixed as to exclude every American vessel afloat except the four ships of the American Line. During the last fiscal year of the Post-Office Department, the American Line carried about 71,000,000 grams of letters and 641,000,000 grams of printed matter, for which the Government, under the Act of 1891, paid it $528,536. During the same year the Cunard Line carried almost twice this weight of letters (137,000,000 grams) and 835,000,000 grams of printed matter, but received for the service only $213,103; and the White Star Line, which carried about 62,000,000 grams of letters and 326,000,000 grams of printed matter, received but $91,591. That is, the Government is now paying to the American Line for an irregular service a rate about three times higher than it pays for service by other lines carrying the same mails, and this on a theory of "value received."

Congressman McCall has introduced a bill to restore the provisions of the McKinley tariff relating to personal bag-

gage, and to remove the $100 limit. We do not see any sound objection to such a return to a civilized method of treating Americans coming home from Europe. It would cease to make our customs laws a laughing-stock to foreigners, and a source of humiliation and often actual danger to our own citizens so unfortunate as to desire, or to be compelled, to travel abroad. We know it is said that the present barbarous law is necessary in order to head off the operations of swindling tailors and smuggling milliners, who would otherwise bring in dozens of trunks full of garments for their customers, under the guise of "personal baggage." To all such cheating we are, of course, as much opposed as any one, but there is reason in all things. What is the secret service for, why do special agents of the Treasury exist, except to unearth and run down such frauds on the revenue? We read all the while of the arrest of diamond-smugglers, and we are sure that the suave milliners and the slippery tailors could be caught in the same way. Why should a whole nation be forced to suffer for their sins? We have no objection whatever to seeing Paris-made gowns and London-made suits dragged from the trunks of smugglers and made to pay the duty which the law provides; but why force 200,000 American travellers to suffer in purse, in feelings, often in health, and always in patriotic pride, merely in order to catch a few tricky milliners and defrauding tailors?

The President's readiness to hear the appeal of Rear-Admiral Schley from the findings of the Court of Inquiry should reassure people who have believed in the existence of a gigantic conspiracy against this officer. In ordinary court-martial cases, in both the army and the navy, where the sentence does not involve dismissal from the service, the President is not expected to pass upon the findings, although he has the right to do so. The same is true as to courts of inquiry. In both cases, however, the etiquette and discipline of the service demand that the papers shall come up to the Commander-in-Chief through the regular official channels—in this case through the Secretary of the Navy. The President's action in the matter is final. Only in rare instances has Congress set aside the action of a court-martial which has received Executive approval, by restoring a dismissed officer to active service. President Roosevelt's action will, it is to be hoped, finally end the matter, and will prevent the Schley adherents from claiming that any tribunal has been closed to them. There is no reason to believe, however, that the President will reverse the findings of the entire court in regard to Schley's negligence, disobedience of orders, and evident incapacity for his high position, while there is good ground for accepting the press statements that he will veto any bill to exonerate or promote a man who has been so overwhelmingly condemned by three of his fellow flag-officers.

Close upon the warning of the London *Times* concerning the probable inadequacy of our bank currency at a future period of stringency, comes the news from the Treasury that the volume of notes outstanding is decreasing as rapidly as the law will permit. The maximum rate of decrease now allowed by the National Bank Act is $3,000,000 per month, and this limit has been reached for December and January, while further applications for more than another month in advance have been filed. At this rate, a large part of the increase in bank circulation under the law of March 14, 1900, will have been offset by corresponding withdrawals before the end of next September. The usual autumnal demand for currency with which to move the crops will then be felt in its full strength, just as the circulation has lost much of its recent gain in volume. This situation is far more serious than appears on the surface. Large numbers of new banks have been organized under the law of 1900, and, should the circulation fall to its old level, the decline will mean that the conditions of note-issue are even less attractive to-day than they were under the unmodified bank act. A strong demand by the lately organized banks for the recently issued bonds, in order to make their necessary deposit, and the present strength of the Treasury, are undoubtedly responsible for the unexpectedly high price of the 2 per cent. bonds, and the consequent unwillingness of banks to invest more largely in Government securities than they are compelled to do. This is merely a repetition of the too familiar experience with our bank currency. When stringency arrives, and the delays at Washington make it impossible to get notes in time to give relief, we shall probably awaken from our satisfaction with present currency conditions. Why not act now upon some one of the plans so often suggested to Congress, before the difficulty becomes acute?

The prevention by arbitration of two threatened strikes indicates that the year is opening with omens favorable to industrial peace. Strikes averted by arbitration naturally make less noise than those which actually occur, but it was none the less a real service that was rendered by the Arbitration Committee of the National Civic Federation in composing the differences between the Clothing Manufacturers' Association and its employees. Had it not been for the work of a sub-committee which met representatives both of the employers and of the men, a strike involving from 40,000 to 55,000 garment-workers would probably have ensued. On a smaller scale, but quite as interesting, is the outcome of the dispute between a Brooklyn shoe-manufacturing firm and its employees. Mr. Stark, State Mediator of Industrial Disputes, who was lately chosen as the fifth member of a committee intrusted with the decision of the question at issue, has given his verdict in favor of the employers. While the Civic Federation Committee has had to depend solely upon its own tact, and the sense of fairness among those to whom it appealed, the decision of Mr. Stark is supported by a forfeit of $10,000, agreed upon by both parties to the dispute in the Brooklyn shoe factory. The difference in the character of the two decisions is, perhaps, due to these differing conditions of arbitration. The Civic Federation Committee made concessions to both disputants. Mr. Stark gave his verdict unequivocally for the employer. A definite decision is much more likely to be rendered when the judge feels that he has final power in his own hands than when he must negotiate in order to secure its acceptance.

The most important question in the railway world to-day is the one on which Mr. James J. Hill addressed a convention of farmers and stock-growers at Fargo, N. D., on Friday. His speech was a defence of the combination recently formed for merging the Great Northern, the Northern Pacific, and the Burlington systems into one corporation, the Northern Securities Company. It was a very strong argument, if not wholly conclusive, and had a considerable effect upon an audience whose prejudices ran pretty strongly the other way. Mr. Hill asked the question whether the people of Minnesota and the Dakotas would have objected to the building of the Burlington lines by the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific Companies, if the Burlington Company itself had never existed, and if its territory were unoccupied. If not, then why should they object to the purchase of those lines when already built? A critic might answer that the first question at issue relates to the merger of the two Northern lines, before the Burlington comes into the field of contention at all, and that the second question relates to the amount of securities issued for the Burlington, which are virtually a fixed charge upon the whole combination. As these questions are soon to come before the courts, we shall not discuss them, but merely point them out as elements of the problem. It is quite true that the Northern Securities Company is not the first of its kind in the United States. The Pennsylvania Company, which was formed to bring and hold together the Pennsylvania Railroad and its Western connections, has existed for a quarter of a century without adverse comment, and it is reported now that it has embraced the

Baltimore and Ohio within its ample folds.

Mr. Belmont's failure to carry the election in the Seventh District, and, incidentally, to supply the Democracy with the intellectual and moral leadership which it sorely needs, irresistibly recalls that magnificent tribute of the negro orator to the retiring Governor of South Carolina, in the old carpet-bag days. "He reached the Governor's chair," said the eloquent toastmaster, "in the face of great opposition; he leaves it with none at all." So of Mr. Belmont it may be said that his nomination was one of the most bitterly contested ever known, but that his defeat has been received with universal acquiescence and even cheerfulness. His campaign was one long series of unfortunate misunderstandings. The candidate misunderstood Croker, and Croker misunderstood him; he failed to develop elective affinities with Murphy, and could not, do what he would, put himself *en rapport* with Battery Dan Finn. The crowning misunderstanding was with the voters of the district, and this was so colossal that it turned Muller's Democratic majority of 4,332 in 1900 into a plurality against Belmont of 394. There must be a moral of some kind in such figures, and, for our part, we think it is an artistic one. It will be observed that Mr. Belmont was slaughtered in the house of his friend, the art connoisseur, the Hon. "Nick" Muller. Richmond County alone made an overturn of more than 2,300 votes. This, in our judgment, was due to the low views of art that Mr. Belmont stood for in the eyes of the Staten Island voters. He thought he could palm off upon them a rubbishy painting, given to Muller purely in the way of friendship, worth only $200, and the work of an artist so insignificant that he could not even recall his name. If it had been a Corot or a Diaz, the result, we are firmly convinced, would have been different. It is necessary to raise art, hand in hand with politics, to a "higher plane."

The annual banquet of the Institute of Electrical Engineers on Monday evening was a testimonial of the profession to Signor Marconi. It expressed their appreciation of his wonderful achievements in sending electrical signals across the Atlantic Ocean by the wireless system. Hitherto there has been doubt in the public mind whether this achievement was well authenticated or not, since the experimenter himself had not published any statement of the facts signed with his own name. His speech in the presence of such men as Alexander Graham Bell, Elihu Thompson, and Professor Pupin, and the approving letters of Mr. Edison and Mr. Tesla, will convince everybody that the reports sent out from St. Johns, a few weeks ago, were true. But this is not all. The public are now prepared to accept more than has heretofore been claimed by the inventor. He now says that he has devised a method by which the messages sent by the wireless system can be kept secret. This is accomplished by attuning the sender and the receiver so that the latter will respond only to a particular note. This is not a new conception. It was brought out and exhibited by Elisha Gray by wire transmission in 1876. Of course, nobody then suspected that the same effects could be produced by aerial transmission. The commercial consequences of Signor Marconi's discoveries cannot now be estimated, but they are likely to be of the highest importance.

There is every reason to anticipate that the Government of Newfoundland will oppose the renewal of the *modus vivendi* concerning the French shore. The renewal of this temporary arrangement for the year 1901 was regarded as a great concession to the home Government, and was made only in consideration of the difficulties of the general foreign situation which confronted the Salisbury Ministry. It is doubtful if the Provincial Government will listen again to such an appeal. It is hard to see how Mr. Chamberlain can refuse to move in this matter. As things now stand, the Newfoundlanders have the grievance of being shut off from about 800 miles of their own coast, and suffer the humiliation of seeing what is virtually foreign sovereignty exercised in various exasperating forms on their own territory. It has been interestingly shown by Mr. P. T. McGrath in the *North American Review* for January that the French claim of an exclusive concession on the west coast exceeds the stipulations of the treaty of Utrecht; that the right to fish and use the coast for purposes incidental to the fisheries is concurrent, and not exclusive; and that America, by the convention of 1818, acquired equal rights on this coast with France and Newfoundland.

The probably unique spectacle of a Prime Minister publicly rebuking a Minister of a friendly Power was witnessed on January 8 in the Reichstag. To be sure, Count von Bülow, when he spoke of unfriendly criticism of the German army, did not mention Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. It was clear enough, however, that, when he dwelt on the impropriety of justifying an unpopular policy by adducing foreign examples, he had in mind the speech in which Mr. Chamberlain paralleled the British policy in South Africa with the German campaign against the *francs-tireurs* in 1871. These pot-and-kettle comparisons, the German Premier felt, were peculiarly odious when made between nations which have had guerrilla wars on their hands. Now it should be said that in this very courteous rebuke Count von Bülow was far from following his own counsel of "leaving foreign countries out of the discussion"; for a rebuke, it was quite as explicit as if Mr. Chamberlain had stood in sackcloth and ashes before the Reichstag. From this introduction into German parliamentary procedure of the methods of debate most thoroughly exemplified in our own Senate, Lord Rosebery should draw a text for his next academic discourse "On a Certain Acerbity in the Colonial Secretary."

Whatever may be the effect of the spectacular return of the Imperial Court to Peking, there is little doubt that that city will remember the autumn of 1900 as the Romans still remember the spring of 1527, when the troops of the Constable Bourbon sacked the town. That the effect of the foreign occupation and of the numerous punitive expeditions was exemplary, even upon the populace of Peking, should not be assumed too lightly. The Chinese of Pechili have certainly learned to fear the foreigner, but it is by no means certain that they are not waiting their chance for revenge. One must remember, too, that the great mass of the subjects of the Emperor will never so much as learn of the humiliation of the court, of the ceremonious apologies, and of the heads of Ministers offered to the envoys of the Powers—or, if they learn of these at all, will hear some official version which bears the color of a triumph over the "foreign devil." We are likely to forget how insignificant a fact the sacking of the Imperial City is to the other provinces of China. We Americans probably feel quite as keenly the almost forgotten burning of Washington in the war of 1812. One must recognize, then, that if there has come about any real reform in Chinese conditions, it has not been through any change in the attitude of the people toward the foreigner, but through some change in the character of the court and of the viceroys. We know that for the moment the court has been reorganized upon the basis of friendliness to the foreigner. What we do not know is how sincere this attitude is, and it is certain that no more in China than elsewhere is it grateful to kiss the hand that smites. If the Empress Dowager and the Emperor really fear the foreigner, we may suppose that they will put down relentlessly the anti-foreign societies which, as things go in China, will always be a possible cause of disturbance. But it is quite as likely that the court feels that the return is virtually a triumph; that the sojourn at Singan, the ancient capital, proved that the Powers, Russia excepted, can do no more than touch the empire at its borders. It should be remembered, too, that the court returns in its own time, and, on the whole, upon its own terms.

THE TREASURY SURPLUS.

The menace to business interests consequent upon the withdrawal of money from the banks into the Treasury, in excess of the Government's disbursements, has been the subject of standing comment in the newspapers for a generation, and at times of angry criticism and objurgation against the statesmen at the head of the Treasury Department. Various plans have been devised for securing the automatic, or at least the regular, return of the surplus funds of the Government to business channels. A bill to accomplish this end, which was introduced in the House last week by Congressman Sulzer of New York, merits attention. According to our recollection, this plan was first suggested by Secretary Gage in a public address, but he has never seen fit to embody it in an official report as a formal recommendation to Congress. He may have apprehended the censure of the smaller banks of the country if he should suggest any plan that would omit them from the list of depositories of the public funds, whereas Congressman Sulzer is exposed to no such animadversion. We understand that the essential features of this measure will be embodied in a more comprehensive measure, to be adopted by the House Committee on Banking and Currency, and to be reported for consideration during the present session. Accordingly, we shall offer some reasons why the principles embodied in it should be favorably received by Congress.

The measure proposes that the Secretary of the Treasury be directed to deposit all surplus funds belonging to the United States Government with national banks having a capital of not less than $500,000 and a surplus of not less than $500,000—such deposits to be made without requiring United States Government bonds as security; that on such deposits the United States Treasury shall receive interest at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum; that such deposits shall be a first lien on the assets of the bank; and that no deposits in any one bank shall be greater than the combined capital and surplus of such bank. The plan as originally suggested by Secretary Gage provided that the deposits should be made in the banks of the central reserve cities, New York, Chicago, and St. Louis. This restriction would spare the Treasury some trouble in the handling of the funds, but it would probably be impracticable to secure the adoption by Congress of any plan which should draw a line against such cities as Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans, and exclude their banks from participation in the deposits.

The present methods of restoring the surplus funds of the Treasury to the money market depend upon the abundance of Government bonds in the market and the price at which they can be bought. If the Secretary decides to use his surplus in buying the bonds outright, he lessens the total amount outstanding, and increases the difficulty of his next operation. If he decides to deposit his surplus in national banks, he must have Government bonds as security therefor. This is a requirement of law, and he has no discretion to take anything else. The law was passed nearly forty years ago, when the supply of Government bonds was abundant and increasing and the price was correspondingly low. Opposite conditions prevail at present. The bonds are scarce, the price is high, the demand for private and trust investment is increasing as the supply diminishes.

The proposed measure would look to a first lien on assets of the banks for security of the deposits, and, instead of exacting Government bonds as a pledge, would require the payment of interest for the money deposited. A calculation has been made by the statistical department of the Treasury, showing that, if the law regulating Government deposits in the banks had been such originally, not only would there have been no loss, but there would have been a gain of $32,000,000 in the way of interest. This ought to be a decisive argument in favor of the change. It may be argued that it would be unfair to the regular customers of the banks to give to one depositor (the Government) a superior lien on the assets in case of failure. That feature, however, exists in the present law. The deposited bonds are a part of the assets of the depository banks. They are the choicest assets, and upon these the Government has the first lien. If they should decline in value, there is another provision of law which gives the Government a first lien on the remaining assets.

The practical question is not whether the security of the proposed plan is exactly equal to that of the existing system, but whether it is sufficient to protect the Treasury. We think there can be no doubt on this point. By restricting the deposits to banks which have capital and surplus equal to $1,000,000, by limiting the amount of deposits in any particular bank to the measure of such capital and surplus, and by leaving to the Secretary a discretion in the choice of the depositories, so that he may exclude any bank which rests under his suspicion, it really seems as though any doubt were mere cavilling, especially when we consider that the Governments of the Old World deposit all their collections in banks without any special security whatever.

A SECRETARY OF COMMERCE.

The presumption is always against the establishment of a new office. It must prove its right to exist. To this rule of sound politics the proposal of an additional branch of executive government, to be known as the Department of Commerce, is no exception. The country should not demand or approve it, nor should Congress vote it, if it is intended simply to provide a parcel of unoccupied patriots with pleasant sinecures. It is doomed in advance if it contemplates merely the erection of what Burke's sarcasm, directed against the reconstructed Board of Trade, described as "a sort of gently ripening hot-house, where eight members of Parliament receive salaries of a thousand a year, in order to mature at a proper occasion to a claim for two thousand."

President Roosevelt urged in his message the creation of a Secretary of Commerce. His recommendation has received the endorsement of many merchants and manufacturers, and on Thursday the bill introduced by Senator Nelson to establish the new department was favorably reported by the Committee on Commerce. It provides that "it shall be the province and duty of said department to foster, promote, and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishery industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States." Here is certainly a vast field of activity. The President's language was even broader; the new department, he declared, should be but one phase of "a comprehensive and far-reaching scheme of constructive statesmanship, for the purpose of broadening our markets, securing our business interests on a safe basis, and making firm our new position in the international industrial world." In a recent article, Mr. A. B. Hepburn urges that "the time has arrived when Congress should broaden its policy, and aid our people in commanding the markets of the world." "How better can this be done," he asks, "than by creating a Department of Commerce and Industries, charged with the supervision and promotion of commerce and trade?"

It is not easy to see precisely how a Secretary of Commerce could succeed in conquering the markets of the world when confronted by a Congress which resolutely refuses to make the slightest concessions to foreign countries. Neither is it possible that, under our system of government, he should ever possess the powers of the "foreign section" of the Ministries of Commerce in Continental countries, which is charged with the preparation of tariffs and customs legislation, the enforcement of maximum or minimum rates, and the negotiation of treaties of commerce and navigation. It is, however, entirely possible that a Department of Commerce should wield an enormous influence in domestic industry. The present drift of public opinion suggests that it might be made the agency for exerting the authority to regulate interstate commerce. It is easy to conceive of a Secretary who should have

somewhat the same relation to the business interests of the country as that held by the Comptroller of the Currency towards the banks. If the bill now pending and designed to secure publicity in the accounts of corporations should be passed, the new Secretary might be vested with the power both of ascertaining and publishing the facts of domestic business. It was some such idea as this which led Mr. Dill, in his recent address at Chicago, to say, "No man in the United States, not barring the President, will exercise such a potent influence over the future life of this country as the Secretary of the Department of Commerce."

That any man will be endowed by Congress with such powers as these, or that his functions will be permitted to expand along the lines suggested by Mr. Dill, is, to say the least, highly unlikely. About all that can be expected of the new department is that it shall faithfully conduct the work now done by scattered bureaus, like the Life-Saving Service and the Bureau of Navigation in the Treasury Department, the Census and Patent Offices in the Interior, and the Foreign Commerce Bureau of the State Department, and others, which are to be brought together. To these is to be added a Bureau of Manufactures. The Department would thus serve the same purpose as the British Board of Trade. That body at present consists of six offices. One deals with commercial statistics, one with the inspection of railways, general oversight of their rates, and the granting of patents, and one with marine matters, including the examination of seamen and the inspection of ships. A harbor bureau is intrusted with lighthouse and quarantine control, a financial office has charge of life insurance and bankruptcy matters, and another section deals with all questions involving sea fisheries.

As a measure intended mainly to relieve the existing departments of irrelevant work, Senator Nelson's bill commends itself as business-like. The Treasury would be stronger if it could be freed from the necessity of performing multifarious unrelated duties, and could confine its attention strictly to its financial operations. The same may be said of the other departments affected, for the bureaus they would surrender are such only as do not accord with their general scope, and have been assumed from time to time under stress of circumstances. On the other hand, the various offices and services united under the Secretary of Commerce could doubtless be made to work together in far greater harmony than now. Uniformity in our Government publications and in our commercial statistics would alone be a vast gain. Beyond such a practical, every-day end there seems at present little reason to expect much. Yet we recognize the fact that a man of broad views and energy might make of the new Secretaryship, if he were so minded, a powerful agency for imbuing the nation with those enlightened conceptions of foreign commerce upon which it must act if it is to rise to the height of its great opportunity.

CURRENCY REFORM IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Recent dispatches from Manila, disclosing the currency confusion which is vexing the merchants in that city, should call fresh attention to the report of Mr. Charles A. Conant, Special Commissioner of the War Department, which has recently been published. The difficulties lately experienced by the Philippine Commission in maintaining the artificial rate of exchange between American gold and Mexican silver ought to result in concentrating attention upon the settlement of the Philippine monetary question. The Commission itself recommended a plan to attain this end nearly a year ago, but no action was taken. Its suggestions, however, are vividly recalled in Mr. Conant's report. Of the four methods proposed for dealing with the monetary question, he agrees with the Commission in selecting that which provides for the adoption of a gold standard, with a legal-tender silver coin, known as the "peso," of limited coinage, containing twenty-five grams of silver, and exchangeable for 50 cents in American gold. The question, after all, involves no large matters of theory, but is mainly one of detail. That the special circumstances of the case admit of a transition to the gold standard, the opinion of the Philippine Commission sufficiently attests, and that such a step will be beneficial is fully established by Mr. Conant's investigation.

The solution of the Philippine banking question, if we were to stay in the islands, would not be so easy. In dealing with it Mr. Conant has had to break fresh ground. According to him, the principal needs of the islands are two —better banking facilities, including mortgage banks, and a suitable note-currency. Some means of making agricultural loans is an immediate necessity. The present methods of cultivation are antiquated, and capital is needed in order that more modern modes of production may be introduced, and good seed, draught animals, and tools provided. Some idea of the difficulties under which the Filipino farmer now labors may be gathered from the single fact that the interest charged on farm loans by small money-lenders is from 25 to 40 per cent.

The need of a flexible bank currency is experienced with peculiar force in the Philippines. At present the people have no paper currency except the notes of the Spanish-Filipino Bank, which are of small and decreasing volume, and such paper currency as may come to the islands in the pockets of visitors. How extensively paper would be employed if suitable agencies for issuing it should be supplied, may be seen from a comparison with the situation in Hong Kong, where, notwithstanding the large supply of Mexican silver in circulation, not less than 10,000,000 pesos in notes are in daily use.

Mr. Conant thinks that a certain guarantee of permanence in policy might be afforded by Congressional rules for the government of mortgage banks. The several institutions should have capitals of not less than $250,000, their loans on real estate should be limited, they should lend not more than 10 per cent. of their resources to any one person, and they should be subject to visitation and inspection. When he comes to take up the issue of bank currency, his report is much more radical in character. Mr. Conant proposes that the notes shall be issued by branches of our own national banks, under bond-deposit requirements much less rigid in character than those now in force. Of course all the usual reasons for recommending branch banks hold good for the Philippines. But there are two considerations which have special force there. In the first place, the issue of notes could not safely be intrusted to small independent institutions. Further, it is not to be expected that national banks of large capital will be established at Manila, for the restrictions under which they do business would not permit them to find a profitable field. If the notes are to be issued by national banks at all, therefore, they must be issued by branches of institutions in the United States. Mr. Conant recommends that the power be granted to national banks, established either in the Philippines or in the United States, to establish branches, both here and throughout the islands. He provides, however, that branches established in the United States shall be prohibited from discounting commercial bills and from making advances upon securities, when such transactions are carried on within the United States. Such restrictions would make branches in this country little more than agencies for conducting a foreign exchange business.

The system suggested for the issue of notes is a variant of the plans so often proposed in this country during recent years. Mr. Conant would have the notes issued only by banks with capitals of at least $500,000. Such institutions would be required to deposit the minimum $50,000 in bonds which is now required of national banks with capitals of $200,000 or more. Their notes would be made a first lien upon all the assets of the issuing bank, as well as upon the $50,000 of bonds, and would be limited in amount to 50 per cent. of the paid-up capital of the issuing bank. To make assurance trebly sure, a guarantee fund for the redemption of notes of failed

banks should be established by a tax of ½ of 1 per cent. upon the circulation actually outstanding.

Whatever be done about establishing a system of banks in the Philippines, it is necessary to determine the status of the institutions which already exist there. These are at present principally controlled by three banks, two of which are owned in England and have branches in the islands, as well as elsewhere. The third is the Spanish-Filipino Bank in Manila. It claims by Spanish charter the exclusive privilege of note-issue until 1928. Its circulation is now about 2,100,000 pesos, though it is being gradually reduced. Its directors are willing to comply with proper regulations for the conduct of business. For these reasons, Mr. Conant recommends that this institution be permitted to maintain its note-issue on the conditions proposed for our own national banks, except that its circulation shall be allowed to expand to 100 per cent. of its capital instead of 50 per cent.

Mr. Conant's recommendations are unquestionably sound, though whether Congress can be induced to follow them is another question. We see no reason why those which relate to the introduction of the gold standard should not be adopted without delay.

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

It is plain that the Carnegie Institution is to be not a university, but an auxiliary to all the universities of the land. Its aim will be to initiate and foster pure research, leaving the investigator free to pursue his studies wherever his duties or his convenience may dictate. Assurance is given that all branches of scholarship will be impartially considered, that natural science will have no preference over the humanities, but that both will be recognized according to the ability and promise shown by their devotees. This great institution will, presumably, erect no stately pile of buildings, confer no high-sounding degrees, build up no imposing list of famous teachers to form its visible faculty. It will, on the contrary, aid in the search for truth only those who have passed the pupil's stage and are fit, themselves, to lead others in research. The greatness and generosity of the thought which prompts such a foundation will never find adequate material expression. Hundreds of investigators, each following the line of his preference and capacity, each adding to the stock of human knowledge, each measurably relieved of the hard material conditions which are almost inevitably the scholar's lot—this will be the Carnegie Institution in effective operation. The spectacle is only for the mind's eye, but it yields nothing in impressiveness to crowded lecture-rooms in stately buildings, and all the visible pomp and circumstance of university life.

Such, so far as one may gather from the brief and somewhat arid expression of intention given to the press as yet, is the ideal of the Carnegie Institution. To make it effective is a task of far greater delicacy and difficulty than that which confronts the administrator of a university. The university has its students under constant observation, while its professors are habitually under the stimulus of friendly association and professional rivalry. The Carnegie Institution will require a peculiar tact of its administrators—nothing less, indeed, than the ability to discern the promise of investigators who have only begun to display their quality, and the insight and diligence to select from the thousands of professed investigators in the country the scores or the hundreds who are worthy of the extraordinary support and encouragement offered by this unique institution.

That the distinguished scholars, statesmen, administrators, and men of affairs who make up the Board of Trustees fully realize the gravity of this problem may be unhesitatingly assumed. The public, however, may not so fully recognize the fact that the practical efficiency of the foundation will depend upon sub-committees of eminent specialists which must make the actual awards of fellowships, prizes, and subsidies. The Board of Trustees could not, if it would, examine the individual applications, or fairly weigh the credentials of aspirants in the remoter fields of scholarship. If, for example, a Western scholar or group of scholars should request support for a concordance of the major Buddhist writings—a desideratum in the Oriental field—it is certain that the Board of Trustees would lay the matter before the recognized leaders of Oriental study in this country. It may fairly be assumed, then, that, corresponding to the faculty of an ordinary university, the trustees of the Carnegie Institution will gradually appoint standing committees of noted specialists, to which the duty of actually choosing the beneficiaries and administering the subsidies for research will be intrusted. Such committees, it is almost needless to say, should be of the highest professional character. The appointment of a few advisers on the basis of academic notoriety, rather than of scholarship, would mean the cheapening of Mr. Carnegie's benefaction, so far as these scholars, falsely so called, had it in charge. It would be possible, indeed, through favoritism, or even through mere frivolity, largely to vitiate the usefulness of Mr. Carnegie's gift. His trustees cannot be too much on their guard against specious adventurers who sail under the colors of scholarship. While one might regret in passing that the officers of our older universities are not more largely represented on the Board, fortunately its composition gives every assurance that its members will not appoint to these vital positions on the advisory committees men unworthy of so great a trust.

The distinction of the Carnegie Institution over similar foundations lies chiefly in the power to initiate disinterested research. Other institutions—the academies, for example, both here and abroad—reward research successfully completed. The very useful work of publication and distribution of learned works is already undertaken by bodies like the various academies—the Smithsonian Institution, notably—and the university presses. Beyond these useful and dignified functions, the advisory committees of the Washington foundation will have the privilege of surveying minutely their respective fields, and deciding where lies the most pressing need and the greatest promise, with the assurance that no scholarly enterprise once advisedly undertaken will be cramped or deformed for lack of financial support. It would be foolish to forecast minutely the course of an institution which is so auspiciously founded and organized, but one may venture the prediction that a series of great co-operative investigations in the field of science, philosophy, letters, and art will be the most enduring monument of this "invisible university," as they seem to be its most logical reason for being.

POPULAR APPRECIATION OF SCIENTISTS.

Something of the mediæval notion of science as a variant of the black art seems to survive in certain popular modes of speaking of modern scientists. Marconi is a "magician"; Edison, a "wizard." Nor are these phrases purely chance-sown. They well express the real mental attitude of millions of honest folk towards science. To them it remains a region of wonder and mystery. Any miracle may come out of it any day. Tesla's fevered dreams are as credible as Marconi's sober and guarded forecasts. To one in this state of mind the scientist necessarily appears akin to the medicine-man. He is the thaumaturge of to-day. The multitude thinks of him as a being of quasi-supernal and romantic powers. This is, as we say, a distinct survival of the ancient conception of science, as it is figured for us by De Maistre under the image of a sort of Sibyl, with an unearthly air of the supernatural about her. There is in all this little resemblance to Huxley's definition of science as simply "organized and trained common sense."

It must be confessed, too, that the popular fondness is for the spectacular side of science. Its marvels, its theatric displays, its visible revolutions obviously wrought, are the only real triumphs of science in the judgment of the

general. A name must have the luck to be hitched to some great discovery affecting every-day life if it is to be sure of a tablet in the impromptu hall of fame erected by the press and by the public which gets its ideas from the press alone. Of the true spirit of science, of the joys and ardors of its pursuit in silence and obscurity, there is not the pervasive appreciation which some rash praisers of the age assert. A bread-and-butter science, a kind of Caliban chained to useful offices, is held in sufficient and widespread admiration; but for scientific method as such, for the scientific worker who does not happen to emerge from his laboratory with a miracle in each hand, there is not the common and intelligent enthusiasm depicted in orations on modern progress. Even a great scientist and great benefactor of humanity in one, like Behring, may remain practically unknown and unhonored by the commonalty. It took the bestowal of the Nobel prize for science upon the discoverer of the anti-toxin treatment for diphtheria, to remind most people of so much as the name of one of the most rigorous scientists and triumphant students that ever lived.

At the same time, it is true, we believe, that there never was so general an impulse to pay honor to science, and do homage to the scientist, as exists at the present time. It is a part of our proud consciousness of superiority over the past. The advances which civilization has made are perceived to be largely the work of science, pure and applied, and we feel that we are but paying a just debt in exhibiting our delight to honor, even if somewhat unintelligently, the typical figures among our scientists. This was perhaps the most striking thing about the celebration in connection with Berthelot, the other day. All France was there represented, official and learned, and the ceremonies almost took on the character of a national fête. Yet the Minister of Public Instruction was obliged to confess, in his speech of felicitation, that he should have to leave it to others to say exactly what was Berthelot's title to scientific distinction. Indeed, to the outside public, the recondite researches of the great chemist must have been wholly caviare. He had not even had the good fortune, like Pasteur, to attach his name as a tag to processes of food-preservation or to treatment of disease. Never mind that, was the apparent reflection of the French public—Berthelot is a true savant; he is one of the glories of France, and the nation cannot do too much to honor him. It was a characteristic attitude of the time. Any civilized country would have felt and done the same.

In this large and vague way, the scientist no doubt has the modern world at his feet. The peoples are not ungrateful. They know their benefactors and their luminaries. Let it not be thought, however, that the man of science who boldly utters a conviction in conflict with popular belief will escape without rebuke or suffering. There was one discordant note in Berthelot's jubilee. He is a Positivist of the most thoroughgoing kind, and, in his modest little speech of acknowledgment, he made no concealment of his belief that he, in his old age, was merely a flickering light "on the point of being quenched in eternal night." It was to this confession of unfaith, we presume, that the *Journal des Débats* alluded when it said:

"It is to be regretted that, on the day when all the world, without distinction of opinion, was honoring in his person French science, he chose, by certain words of his discourse, to express personal convictions, and to emerge from the scientific domain to touch upon what concerns solely the individual conscience."

We say nothing of the justice of this criticism. We cite it simply to show the limits which are still put upon the acclaim awarded the scientist by the modern world. Beyond them he steps at his peril. If, like Huxley, he feels himself the discoverer of moral and religious, as well as scientific, truth, and, in uttering it, does so in his spirit of wishing that his epitaph might be, "He tried to help the people," he has to lay aside the authority of the savant, and take his buffeting like an ordinary polemic. Luckily for their work, few scientists feel, as Huxley did, that woe will be upon them if they preach not their gospel. They are, no doubt, happier, and probably are more useful, when they are content, like Darwin, slowly to instruct those who do preach. And we think that the hortatory instinct of science—especially when it is *ultra crepidam*—is abating as the years pass by. It is not so "earnest" as it used to be, in Bagehot's sense of the Englishman's native earnestness—that is, a vehement desire to make all the world think just as he does. To let knowledge do its own work, all in good time, is now, we think, the commoner resolve of the scientist. And he has come to see, too, that his guesses at the great riddles of existence may be no better than another man's; and that, in any case, he would do well to take the poet's advice, and

"Note not the pigment the while that the painting
determines humanity's joy and pain."

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

WASHINGTON, January 1, 1902.

In point of numbers, the Washington meeting of the American Historical Association, December 27-31, was one of the most successful ever held. Of course, comparatively few of the sixteen hundred members of the Association will ever gather at any one place, however central or interesting the place may be; but the attendance this year was especially gratifying. The experiment of holding over Sunday was tried this year for the first time, and while the rain kept all but the most venturesome indoors the effect of including the extra day was certainly not shown in any decrease of attendance the following week, or in any complaint at the added time and expense. As was the case last year, the American Economic Association held its meeting in Washington simultaneously, two sessions taking the form of joint meetings of the two bodies.

The opening session, on Friday evening, was made notable by the address of the President, Charles Francis Adams. Relying upon "leave to print" for the complete exposition of his ideas, Mr. Adams chose to present informally and without notes an epitome of what he had written. His thesis, in substance, was the proposition that the Association, as the great organized historical body in the United States, might well undertake to pronounce upon the merits of some of the great political questions which from time to time stir the country, and, by settling once for all the facts in the case, help to remove such issues from the field of controversy and give them definitive settlement. As illustrations, Mr. Adams adduced the questions of slavery, the tariff, currency, Trusts, and Imperialism as the chief of those which had engrossed public attention within his own memory, and pointed out that to none of them had historical scholarship contributed at the time much of anything in the way of solution. The contention, vigorously and entertainingly put, was not, of course, new, nor, we may add, were its inherent difficulties greatly lessened by Mr. Adams's forcible discussion. If all citizens were as patriotic as they are well-informed, or if political campaigns turned upon facts rather than upon sentiment and machinery, there might be a place for the public meeting which Mr. Adams suggested should be held by the Association in every Presidential campaign; but it is unlikely that the Association will feel that its usefulness lies in that direction. It is significant, in this connection, that the plan for a monographic history of America which was recommended by the council last year, and referred back for further consideration, was this year reported upon adversely; the main reason for the change of heart being, it was understood, the practically unanimous feeling of the council that the Association would be going beyond its province if it were to put its official imprimatur on such a work, however valuable the work might be.

The second joint session, on Monday evening, brought out an extremely interesting paper by Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell of Harvard, on the comparative amount of party legislation in the House of Commons, Congress, and certain State Legislatures. Some colored diagrams, prepared with extraordinary labor, were peculiarly suggestive as illustrating the possible usefulness of graphic statistics in this field, though the results as a whole were too fragmentary to make generalization from them safe. A highly condensed paper by Professor Seligman of Columbia, on "Historical Materialism and the Economic Interpretation of History," called out a keen reply from Professor Cheyney of the University of Pennsylvania, who objected to "interpreting" history, whether by economic or other standards, save after exhaustive study of

the facts, while for large reaches of the subject the insufficiency of assured data formed, in his opinion, a bar to "interpretation" at all. The discussion, though highly entertaining, was one-sided, neither aspect of the case being stated in a well-balanced way, though it served to call attention to the mischief which has been wrought by scholars who, rating the economic aspects of things as of most worth, have assumed to find therein explanations which, unfortunately, do not always bear rigid historical examination.

The other session of most general interest was undoubtedly that of Saturday morning, devoted to the subject of public records and record-keeping. A paper by Professor Salmon of Vassar, on an American School of Historical Studies at Rome, was unimportant, but the one by Mr. Robert T. Swan, the Massachusetts Records Commissioner, on the work of his office, was a remarkable summing up of the solid results of ten years of well-directed effort. Thanks to Mr. Swan, the historian can now expect, with some confidence, to find in the towns and cities of Massachusetts, in available shape, the records in which alone the course of institutional development in the colony and State is to be studied; and he cannot do this as yet in any other State. Professor Burr of Cornell gave a summary account of the principal classes of European archives, together with useful practical suggestions for those proposing to undertake historical researches among them; and Mr. Herbert Putnam outlined the great work which the Library of Congress is carrying on in the interest of historical investigation. By the courtesy of Mr. Putnam, the session was held at the Library, which was opened on the occasion for special inspection, and the members of the Association were entertained there at luncheon.

Of the other papers read, the most important, perhaps, were those of Professor Robinson of Columbia, on recent literature of the Reformation, notable for its praise of Jansen; and of Professor Emerton of Harvard, on the chronology of Erasmus's letters. The final session, on Southern history, was full of promise for the continued spread of sound historical work in the South. A much-anticipated paper by Professor Turner of the University of Wisconsin, on the diplomatic antecedents of the Louisiana purchase, was, in the absence of the author, not read. The church-history section continues to languish, a mere handful of people being in attendance. With the amount of good work in church history now being done in this country, it would seem as though a session of the Association devoted to the subject ought to be able to maintain itself with vigor; but, at the present rate of decline, the section, formally a part of the programme, seems threatened with extinction. In most of the sessions there was a lack of informal discussion, the so-called discussion which appeared on the programme generally resolving itself into another paper of ten minutes instead of twenty in length.

Thanks to the vigorous policy of the Council and the wise management of the Association's limited funds, the manifold activities of the Association continue to flourish. Probably no learned society in the United States is carrying on so many important undertakings. Socially, the Washington meeting was less beset with formal "functions" than recent ones have been, but the opportunity for the cultivation of personal acquaintance was all the greater in consequence, and was favorably commented upon. Unfortunately, the meetings do not yet offer much in social ways to women, although the women members are numerous; nor is Canada, although included in the field of the Association, much represented. A meeting at Toronto or Montreal would doubtless go far to solve the latter problem, but the solution of the former has not yet been found. The Association meets next year at Philadelphia, with Capt. A. T. Mahan as President.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION IN WASHINGTON.

January 6, 1902.

All things considered, it is doubtful whether the American Economic Association has ever had a more satisfactory session than the fourteenth annual meeting held in Washington on December 27-30. The programme was not particularly brilliant, there was no extraordinary incident, but, in the general qualities that constitute a successful meeting—representative attendance, sustained interest, social intercourse—the days in Washington left nothing to be desired. The meeting was, indeed, not without its sad note—a sense of loss that came to many of those present from the absence of familiar faces. The distressing deaths of Profs. Richmond Mayo-Smith of Columbia and Sidney Sherwood of Johns Hopkins add to the long list of economists cut off in the very prime of scientific manhood. President Hadley's incisive criticisms would have been a welcome contribution to more than one debate. Professor Taussig's temporary absence, Professor Ashley's departure to his Birmingham post, Professor Jenks's studies in the Far East, and Dr. Rowe's and Mr. Willoughby's activities in Porto Rico were all noted, in this connection, with regret. Yet to him who contrasted the meeting with the one last held in Washington, eleven years ago, the evidence was overwhelming as to how bravely the torch is being passed on. Both in numbers and in influence the economic circle is growing. Still far removed from the class whom the lamented Herbert B. Adams was fond of describing as "alte Herren," the little group of American economists who returned to this country some thirty years ago, with the substantial equipment of European scholarship, to find only grudging academic recognition, could look about and behold at least two distinct generations—their pupils and their pupils' pupils—toiling manfully where only solitary workers long struggled.

The opening session of the meeting was held on Friday evening with the American Historical Association, and was devoted to the presidential addresses. For the economists, President Ely presented a most suggestive paper on "Industrial Liberty." He contrasted the eighteenth-century concept, that industrial liberty was something to be achieved by negative political action, with the modern view that true liberty means the expression of positive powers of the individual, and that it can be reached only after a long and arduous constructive process. Liberty cannot be an absolute ideal, because authority is needed in society in order to secure the harmonious coöperation of its various elements, and without social authority we could have no production of wealth, and we should lack the material basis of that large and positive liberty which enables us to employ our faculties in the common service. This social authority rests, for the most part, upon the great institutions of society—property, vested interests, contract, and personal conditions. To only a limited extent is there a direct political basis for the authority whereby one man brings into harmonious coöperation other men, in the work of production. The basis of social authority is, for the most part, institutional. On the other hand, Socialism furnishes us with no sufficient ideal of industrial liberty. Going to the other extreme from anarchy, it would find a political basis for that social authority through which the industrial coöperation of men is effected. It would limit the range of free choice, and restrict liberty, although to a less degree than anarchy. The true ideal lies midway between anarchy and Socialism, and may be termed the principle of social solidarity. According to this principle, the great institutions of society must be conserved, but developed in the interests of liberty positively conceived. There must be a carefully elaborated and wisely executed regulation of economic relations.

With no less interest but with perceptibly greater dissent, the economists heard the fluent address of President Charles Francis Adams of the Historical Association upon "An Undeveloped Function." Animated, apparently, by the sentiment of the dear old lady who discouraged the study of ancient history upon the ground that we should "let bygones be bygones," President Adams urged a livelier interest on the part of scholars in that politics which is present history, and himself set an unmistakable example by a discussion, as original as it was unhesitating, of the two conspicuous problems of the day—Trusts and Imperialism. At a subsequent session of the meeting, historical sentiment paid its respects in no uncertain tones to the economic interpreters of history. But the castigated only chuckled, for examples of the historical interpretation of economics were still a refreshing memory.

International trade was the general topic of the second session, with papers by Mr. Brooks Adams and Mr. Worthington C. Ford, and discussion by Mr. George E. Roberts, Mr. Charles A. Conant, and Professor Emery. Mr. Adams undertook to analyze the meaning of the recent expansion of the foreign trade of the United States, and found the key in a law of civilization in accordance with which "the centre of human society is shifting very rapidly, the seat of mineral production and of commercial exchanges is migrating westward, the lines of transportation are straightening to correspond, and London is ceasing to be the universal mart." If the United States push her consequent advantages home and drive her rivals to extremity, she appears to lie open to two methods of attack. European nations, singly or in combination, may attempt commercial exclusion somewhat on the principle on which Napoleon acted against England; or they may adopt a policy which will lead to war, such, for example, as dis-

regarding the Monroe Doctrine. In illuminating the future and in marking the path toward danger, lies the opportunity of modern economic inquiry.

Mr. Ford's message was less alarming. A careful review of the more important incidents connected with the recent experience of the leading nations of Europe in tariffs and commercial treaties, leads to the conclusion that a combination among European nations against the commercial interests of the United States is a safely remote possibility. "There are too many oppositions to be overcome, too many competing interests to be harmonized, too many political considerations to be altered, to allow a general consensus of opinion and action." Where mischief may be done is in the isolated action of each nation of Europe against the trade of the United States. The damage to our interests may be all the greater because of the conscious imitation of regulation by more than one Power. To conciliate opposition by wise concession is the part of true statesmanship; to offer a better use of our undeniably great resources is the true economic policy of the United States, and this betterment cannot be obtained by wilfully closing the best markets to our profits. The tariff should not be an implement of offence, of commercial war, but one of revenue and commercial peace.

Of very great significance was the fact that economic theory was less prominent in the programme than ever before. Saturday afternoon's session was nominally devoted to theory, but both Professor Carver's paper on "Some Theoretical Possibilities of a Protective Tariff" and Professor Tuttle's study of "The Position of the Workman in the Light of Economic Progress" stood in as immediate relation to applied as to theoretical economics. Dr. Carver attempted to demonstrate, by characteristically acute reasoning, (1) that a tariff duty is not necessarily paid by the home consumer; (2) that a protective tariff may be so framed as to raise wages; (3) that a protective tariff may be so framed as to attract labor and capital from the less productive into the more productive industries—judged from the standpoint of the community rather than that of the individual business man. Professor Tuttle urged the larger recognition of the laborer's property right in industry, and suggested the possibility of State indemnification for labor discharge due to industrial invention. The study of the labor problem thus introduced was continued in the evening session by Mr. Alfred H. Stone's entertaining paper on "The Negro in the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta," and by Mr. Herman Justi's detailed account of "Conciliation and Arbitration among Miners in Illinois," with discussion by Mr. L. G. Powers of the Census Office and Hon. Carroll D. Wright of the Department of Labor.

Monday afternoon was devoted to public finance. The opening paper was one of the most interesting of the meeting, "Porto Rican Finance: A Comparative Study of Spanish and American Systems of Colonial Finance," by Dr. T. S. Adams of the University of Wisconsin, who, as assistant to the Treasurer of Porto Rico, had rendered important service in the financial reorganization of the island. Dr. Adams's paper was a critical account of the financial methods prevailing in Porto Rico prior to the American occupation, and of the changes introduced during the period of American military government, together with an outline of the comprehensive reconstruction effected under civil rule. The Americanization of Porto Rico, Dr. Adams summarized, has meant, from the fiscal viewpoint, first, a substantial reduction in the burden of taxation; second, a simplification of the system of taxation; third, a relative increase in the taxation of accumulated property as opposed to the sale, consumption, and transfer of property; and, finally, a shifting of the centre of gravity of the consumption taxes from the consumer of codfish and pork to the consumer of rum and tobacco. "Whether the two classes of consumers are different or not," he concluded, "is, I must confess, a doubtful question. It is to be hoped, however, that under the present arrangement the peon will get a little more codfish and a little less rum."

In the discussion which followed, Professor Hollander of Johns Hopkins, late Treasurer of the island, after noting the mutual obligation in successful financiering of the financial theorist and the financial administrator, reported as to the actual working of the new revenue system. For the five months ending November 30, 1901, the ordinary receipts of the insular treasury have been $1,000,542.62. The ordinary expenditures for the same period have been $881,976.64, making an excess of receipts over expenditures of $118,565.98. Or, comparing actual with estimated receipts, it appears that, in each of the three essential sources of insular revenue, the actual receipts have justified the budgetary estimates, and in two cases by comfortable margins. In financial matters five months constitute an insufficient period for safe prophecy as to the results of a twelvemonth; but, considering the facts at hand and the tendencies now evident, there seems full reason for supposing that, with no disturbing factor or unexpected occurrence, the aggregate budgetary estimate for the fiscal year will be safely realized. It would be ridiculous to suppose that all further occasion for financial legislation in Porto Rico has been removed. But it is only time, experience, and specific conditions that will clearly indicate where and when—without any departure from fundamental principles—omission, amendment, or addition is desirable. In any event, it seems no unwarranted optimism to believe that, both in subjective appreciation and in objective fact, a secure and enduring financial basis has been laid.

The Committee on Uniform Municipal Accounts and Statistics, through its Chairman, Mr. M. N. Baker, brought the report of 1900 again before the attention of the Association. In the year which has elapsed, the Committee reported, it has become generally accepted that the interests of good municipal government and the intelligent solution of certain mooted questions of municipal policy demand that municipal statistics be collected and published, and that such statistics, to be of prime service, must be based on uniform municipal accounting. The prior recommendations of the Committee relating to State boards of municipal control and the publication of State summaries of local activities, it was added, might be left with advantage until the movement obtained more definite shape and greater force. The annual summary of the United States Department of Labor was commended, and the question was raised as to what the present Census Office might undertake with advantage in the way of municipal statistics. A similar committee has been appointed by the National Municipal League, and is coöperating in the attempt to formulate a general system of uniform municipal accounting and in the collection of statistical summaries of municipal activities.

The active discussion of the Committee's statement by Mr. Charles E. Curtis of New Haven, Dr. Roland P. Falkner of the Library of Congress, Dr. Edward M. Hartwell of the Boston Statistical Department, clearly illustrated the dependence of any systematic study of local finances in the United States upon the prior collection of statistical and descriptive material. It is absolutely certain that no one who has lacked opportunity to acquaint himself by actual experience can realize adequately the crude, chaotic condition of the public records of the ordinary American city, and the difficulties and embarrassments encountered by the investigator in studying the situation and by the legislator in improving it. Some evidence of this is afforded by Professor Clow's recent monograph on the city budget, in which, with no small industry and persistence, a path has been blazed in a dense financial wilderness. The keynote of the debate was, however, progressive effort; and emphasis was laid upon the fact that, while the agitation for uniform municipal accounting might very properly be continued, yet earlier results of no small consequence might be expected from the collection of statistical summaries, projected or in progress by public agencies.

The final session of the meeting was held on Monday evening, again jointly with the American Historical Association. The economists' contribution to the programme was a thoughtful paper by Professor Seligman of Columbia, on "The Economic Interpretation of History." Critical examination was made of the successive objections commonly urged against the doctrine of "historic materialism": First, that the theory of economic interpretation is a fatalistic theory; second, that it rests on the assumption of historical laws whose very existence is open to question; third, that it is socialistic; fourth, that it neglects the ethical and spiritual forces of history; fifth, that it leads to absurd exaggerations. Professor Seligman's reasonable conclusion was that, as a philosophical doctrine of universal validity, the theory of historical materialism can no longer be successfully defended. But, in the narrower sense of economic interpretation of history—in the sense, namely, that the economic factor has been of the utmost importance in history, and that the historical factor must be reckoned with in economics—the theory has been and still is of considerable significance. Professor Cheyney of the University of Pennsylvania discussed the paper entertainingly, and characterized economic interpretation as misleading, because of its *a-priori* method, and as premature because more complete historical writing must precede any effort at intelligent interpretation.

The meetings of the Council disclosed a

gratifying state of affairs in the internal economy of the Association; the increase of membership during President Ely's administration being especially encouraging. For the ensuing year, Professor Seligman succeeds to the presidency, Professor Fetter becomes permanent instead of acting Secretary, and Professor Hollander takes the chairmanship of the Publication Committee.

A GLIMPSE OF CUBA.

December, 1901.

It is perhaps owing to our habit of looking at the West Indies on maps which cover a great area, that the visitor who travels through the island is surprised to find it so big. It is larger than Pennsylvania or Louisiana, almost as large as England, and much bigger than all the other West India islands put together. In so wide an area there are diversities of physical character and aspect so numerous that no tourist, unless he had spent many months in journeying to and fro through the country—a slow process where railways are few and roads bad or wanting—could undertake to render a general account of it. But a few general impressions may be worth giving, so scanty is the knowledge which most of us have about the island whose fate now lies in the hands of Congress.

Broadly speaking, it is a country pleasing to the eye and often very pretty. It is verdant, being for the most part well watered; and though there are large tracts of nearly level ground, one is seldom out of sight of some hill sufficient to relieve the monotony of a flat. Where there are pastures, the grass is luxuriant. Where there are woods, the trees have the rich luxuriance of the tropics. Many bear clustered flowers, others support climbing plants gay with brilliant blossoms. The most romantic regions are to be found in the southeast, where some of the mountains reach a height of eight thousand feet—a height all the more imposing because several of the highest tops rise not far from the sea, and thus display the full stateliness of their proportions. But, both in the west end of the island and in other places here and there through it, there are fine groups of hills, whose boldness of line and profusion of wood make them beautiful objects. Some parts of the south coast, such as that which stretches east and west from the city of Santiago de Cuba, are specially charming, for here are bold cliffs and rock-encircled bays, with forest slopes above. In other places the shore is bordered by a fringe of coral isles, usually called cays, all thickly wooded, through which the coasting steamers thread their way, happy in having no longer to fear the buccaneers, or, in later days, the coast pirates, who found in this maze of islets safe retreats whence they could issue to pounce upon a passing vessel.

It is also a healthy country. The yellow fever which used to give it a bad name has now been discovered to be a preventible disease. Already the efforts of the American administration have, for the moment, practically stamped it out in Havana and Santiago; and there is reason to hope that if the measures now taken are rigorously maintained, this deliverance will be permanent. Malarial fevers occur in some places, but are apparently less frequent and formidable than on the Gulf coast of the United States and of Mexico. Now that they too have been ascertained to be mainly, if not wholly, due to infection through a mosquito, they too may be largely averted. Almost everywhere one is struck by the freshness of the air, which is far more agreeable and invigorating than that of Florida or southern Alabama. One has a sense in the aspect of the sky and the feel of the breeze of being within reach of the sea; and there are indeed few parts of the island which are more than forty miles from salt water. Thus the heat, having regard to the latitude (for nearly the whole of Cuba lies south of the Tropic of Cancer), is moderate and bearable. Sunstroke is said to be extremely rare.

Further, it is a naturally rich country. In the plains and undulating regions the soil is usually deep and fertile; and the rains of the hotter months (for there is no very great difference between the temperatures of summer and winter) are sufficient to make artificial irrigation needless, except in comparatively few places. Nearly every tropical or sub-tropical crop can be grown in one district or another. There are immense stretches of pasture-land, covered by luxuriant grass. There are vast forest tracts, chiefly on the mountains, some of which remain almost unexplored to this day, because the cost of transportation in regions ill supplied with roads or railways has made it not worth while to cut the wood. There are mines of iron, copper, and manganese, and there may well be other minerals also, for the resources of the island have been very imperfectly ascertained. Few countries make upon the passing traveller a stronger impression of great natural wealth.

But Cuba is an empty country. In its 46,000 square miles there are only some 1,600,000 inhabitants, against 6,000,000 in Pennsylvania. Porto Rico, with only 3,600 square miles, is less than one-twelfth in size, but has about half as large a population. One is everywhere struck by the fewness of the inhabitants. It is not only that vast tracts of mountain and forest remain in their primitive wildness. Even level and open regions, fit for village or pasture, are practically a solitude, with only a few negro huts here and there. One sees deep-soiled plains without sugar-plantations, luxuriant meadows and grassy hillsides without cattle. This desolation is no doubt partly due to the too protracted insurrections, in which many plantations were laid waste, many sugar-factories destroyed, and nearly all the cattle slaughtered. But, even before war came in to devastate the land, the country must have had a population far beneath that which it could support. Agriculture and stock-keeping would alone, without counting mining or any kind of manufactures, provide employment and food for at least five millions of persons. There is only one considerable city, Havana; and only three or four others with populations exceeding thirty thousand, all of them on the coast. The interior has scarce anything to show but wretched villages composed of the huts of colored people.

How far this desolate condition of a land which nature has blessed is due to Spanish misgovernment, how far to the inferior quality of the inhabitants, it would need many pages to discuss. That there was deplorable and long-continued misgovernment, and that the present inhabitants are slack and backward, has been amply known to all the world. The presence of a large number of negroes, and the existence of slavery (though in no very harsh form) down to a recent date, account for a good deal of slackness in the people; and this fault was intensified by misgovernment, while it tended to perpetuate that misgovernment itself, for a more energetic race would not have so long borne with the corruption and maladministration of Spanish officials. At present one of the crying wants of the country is more labor and better labor. The colored population seems to occupy a sort of middle place between the intelligent and industrious negroes of Kentucky, Tennessee, and northern Alabama and the half-savage negroes of Hayti. They are not sunk deep in sloth and superstition, but they are not progressive; and if Cuba is to become prosperous, it will hardly be through them. The hopes of the better class of Cubans are chiefly fixed upon immigration from old Spain. This immigration is now proceeding at a great pace, but, unfortunately, the immigrants, who are mostly thrifty and hardworking fellows from the northern provinces of Spain, do not generally bring women with them, so it is feared that they will, through intermarriage with the blacks and half-breeds they find in the island, decline in a generation or two nearer to the level of that inferior element. Besides, it is hard for any European race, even for a race from southern Europe, to retain its vigor of body and mind under a tropical climate. It will be interesting to see what the results are; but those results can hardly be estimated before the end of the century on which we are now entering.

There is also another impression which the visitor receives and by which he is startled: Cuba is not a good country for insurrections. Except in the east, in parts of the southern coast, and in a few districts of the west, the country is generally pretty open and level and comparatively easy for the movement of regular troops, and comparatively unfavorable to insurgent bands. It is true that the source and the strength of the rebels lay in the mountainous and forest-clad east, where the negro population is largest. (The bands were chiefly composed of negroes, though many of the leaders were whites or mulattoes.) But in the last rebellion the rebel bands were practically in command of the level and undulating parts of the interior to the south and southeast of Havana and Matanzas, though it ought to have been easy for the Spaniards to hold these districts. The Spanish Government had a vastly preponderating force, exceeding (as one is told) 200,000 men, while the strength of the insurgent bands, who were, moreover, armed with inferior weapons, seems never to have reached 30,000 at any one time. Besides, the Spaniards had complete command of the sea—an enormous advantage in a country with bad roads, and most of which lies within thirty or forty miles of the coast. These facts make it all the more extraordinary that the two great insurrections should not each of them have been quelled within a few months, or at any rate driven into the less accessible parts of the island. People in Cuba explain the phenomenon by saying that the Spanish officers, or at any

rate some important persons among them, did not really wish to stamp out the insurrection, whose continuance gave them opportunities of enriching themselves through extra pay and through contracts for military stores and supplies of various kinds. If this be true, these officers overplayed their game with a characteristic want of foresight, for any one might have predicted from the beginning of 1897, if not earlier, that foreign intervention was approaching. It is, at any rate, clear, that, if the Spanish officials really wished to suppress the insurrection, there must have been extraordinary incapacity and probably a great deal of corruption among them, for the balance of military strength was altogether in their favor, and a large part of the population was always on their side.

During the last few months Cuba—that is to say, the intelligent part of the Cuban population, and especially those who have something to lose or to gain—has been agitated by two questions: the promised departure of the American administrators and the promised arrival of Sir William Van Horne, the Canadian railway magnate, who has undertaken a large scheme for the construction of a trunk line through the east and east-central parts of the island. These two events are intimately connected, for with the withdrawal of American administration a new chapter in Cuban history will open, and no one knows what sort of government will be created, what sort of order will be kept, what sort of facilities for agricultural and commercial development will be provided. Yet it is largely upon these things that the success of railway schemes must depend. Whatever opinions any one may hold as to the need for American intervention in 1898, or as to the policy which Congress and the Executive have followed since then, there ought not to be any difference of opinion as to the admirable spirit in which Gen. Wood and his principal subordinates have discharged their difficult task, or as to the substantial value of the work they have done for Cuba. But these topics are too large to be entered on at the end of a letter.

Correspondence.

CANADA AND ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, T. W. Balch, states that there is nothing to arbitrate in the dispute between Canada and the United States over the boundary between Alaska and our northwest territories. Whether this is so may be learned from the notes exchanged between the United Kingdom and the United States upon the subject up to and including those of October 20, 1899, fixing a provisional boundary. Here it will be found that the problem at issue involves the interpretation of a treaty made between England and Russia in 1825, whose terms are ambiguous, requiring for their true construction a consideration of the state of geographical knowledge at the time the document was signed, a reference to the correspondence which led up to it, and the application of well-known principles of international law.

Article iii. of the treaty provided that, from a certain point at 56 degrees north latitude, "the line of demarcation shall follow the crest of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as its point of intersection with the 141st degree of west longitude." The whole region is highly mountainous, and the question arises, what are the mountains whose crest is to be followed?

Article iv., section 2, provides that where the crest of the mountains is more than ten miles from the shore, the line shall be drawn parallel to the sinuosities of the coast, but never to be more than ten marine leagues from it. Upon this ground the United States raises the contention that the boundary is intended to be throughout not less than thirty miles from the ocean, whereas the language of the document is "not more than."

Further, the question arises, what is the "coast" spoken of? In the negotiations which preceded the treaty of 1825, the Russian plenipotentiaries distinguished between the "coast" of the main ocean and the shores of inlets. Canada takes her stand upon the sense in which the term was used by those who drew up the treaty. Is that position so clearly wrong that it is not even open to argument?

Your correspondent says: "The evidence in the case is all in favor of the United States, and shows that they are entitled, by long, uninterrupted occupancy and other rights, to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland from Mount St. Elias down to the Portland Canal." Why, then, is the United States unwilling to submit its claims to an impartial tribunal?

Canada sought to have this frontier ascertained in 1872, shortly after the purchase of Alaska by the United States, but without success, although Hamilton Fish, the Secretary of State, was favorable. In 1892 an international survey commission was appointed to ascertain facts and data, and the commission made a joint report on December 31, 1895, accompanied with elaborate maps and photographic views. Up to this time Vancouver's maps, made in 1792, were the standard and only original authority, except that the shores of the Lynn Canal had been surveyed in 1881. In 1898-99 the British delegates to the International Commission, including Lord Herschell, offered certain terms to the United States, and, in the event of these not being acceptable, they expressed their willingness to refer the whole question to arbitration on the lines of the Venezuela boundary treaty. That treaty provided that adverse holding for fifty years should make a good title, and also that such effect should be given to occupation for less than fifty years as reason, justice, the principles of international law, and the equities of the case required. The United States Commissioners refused both offers, making, however, a counter-proposal that, in the event of their consenting to arbitration, it should be provided beforehand that the settlements on tidewater made on the authority of the United States should continue to be American territory, even though they might prove to be on the British side of the line. In other words, they demanded that Canada should yield her rights as a preliminary condition to having those rights determined.

The claims put forward by Canada are made in good faith, and based upon grounds which, if disputable, are none the less solid. The issue is precisely of the kind to which arbitration is suitable. Yet the United States, which insisted upon arbitration in the Venezuela boundary difficulty, refuses it here, acts as judge and advocate in its own cause, and decides that there is "nothing to arbitrate."

R. W. Shannon.

Ottawa, Canada, January 11, 1902.

STERNE'S INFLUENCE IN FRANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reviewing last week (January 9) the December meeting of the Modern Language Association, "N. M." says: "Professor Baldwin showed that the influence of Sterne's works upon French literature had been much underestimated." This conclusion would hardly be possible, in view of the studies of M. Texte. At any rate, my point was, that the influence of Sterne in France, being the influence almost exclusively of 'Tristram Shandy,' and leading only to a certain kind of imitation, could hardly be called literary. Of Sterne's best art, the 'Sentimental Journey,' the only direct literary influence known to me, in spite of the many French translations, is the 'Voyage autour de ma Chambre' of Xavier de Maistre. Instead of "underestimated," therefore, the word should be *misinterpreted*. I shall be obliged by this correction—the more, if it lead to any suggestion of further evidence for or against my actual conclusion.

Charles Sears Baldwin.

Yale University, January 11, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. Clarke Conwell, The Elston Press, Pelham Road, New Rochelle, N. Y., will publish directly 'The Art and Craft of Printing,' by William Morris, being a complete record of Morris's speeches and writings on this theme and his work at the Kelmscott Press, with reproductions of many ornaments and sample pages. Mr. Conwell also announces as in press Morris's 'Some Notes on Early Woodcut Books.'

A study of Robespierre, by Hilaire Belloc; 'The Apostles' Creed: Its Origin, its Purpose, and its Historical Interpretation,' by Dr. Arthur C. McGiffert; and 'Through Science to Faith,' by Dr. Newman Smyth, are forthcoming from Charles Scribner's Sons.

D. Appleton & Co. open, this month, their "World Series" with 'Britain and the British Seas,' by H. J. Mackinder; and will also have ready 'Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression,' by Theodore E. Burton.

'The Life of a Century: 1800 to 1900,' by Edwin Hodder (London: Newnes; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), is a popular compilation, occupied mainly with the history and development of the British Empire during the period which it covers. Its record of mechanical progress takes a wider range, including even an account of the steel skyscrapers of New York. The book makes no pretension to philosophical or literary value, but it is likely to answer well enough its purpose of supplying "a readable narrative," and it is, in the main, accurate, though not quite free from political partisanship. It contains over five hundred illustrations.

The second volume of Mr. Rhees's documentary History of the Smithsonian Institution, of which we recently noticed volume i., has appeared. It contains papers connected with the Fiftieth to the Fifty-fifth Congresses, 1887-1899, and forms a volume of more than 800 pages, closing with a list of the official members of the "Establishment" and a copious index. Among the matters treated, of especial public interest are the establishment of the National Zoological Park and the Astrophysical Observatory. Altogether the two volumes preserve in convenient form a mass of information as to the inception and growth of a unique scientific institution, which will be of permanent value to those interested either in the functions of our Government, the attitude of public men towards science, or the evolution of scientific agencies.

'The Latin Quarter' is the title by which the translators seek to represent Mürger's 'Scènes de la vie de Bohème' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The inevitable disappearance, in translation, of much of the characteristic humor and wit serves to emphasize the sordid side of the life depicted; here and there familiar expressions have been misunderstood. At the opening of chapter xiii., Colline was eager to see his speculations *en caractère Cicéro*, that is, in the special type so called; the phrase has no reference to the *Ciceronic* quality of Colline's style, as the translator puts it. Musette's projected marriage draws from Rodolphe the natural exclamation, "Contre qui, Seigneur?" feebly and incorrectly rendered in "To whom, my lord?" Mr. Arthur Symons's introduction is not indispensable.

Translations of Alphonse Daudet's 'Lettres de Mon Moulin' and 'Contes du Lundi' have been added to the series of "Little Masterpieces" (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). In the former it may be noted that "Il les perdait toutes de la même façon" does not mean "He lost them *in all kinds of ways*" (p. 18). Again, by the sot who "si souvent secouait les puces à sa pauvre Clairon," Daudet colloquially describes a wife-beater, not a man who ungallantly "shook his fleas on his poor Clairette." The introduction to the 'Contes' contains a few questionable literary statements, such as that "Daudet was, *in a certain sense*, the pioneer of the modern Short Story in France."

To the discussion of university reorganization, in its bearings on the substitution of modern languages for the classics, M. Gustave Lanson contributed several articles in the *Figaro*, now collected in book form, under the title, 'L'Université et la Société Moderne' (Paris: Armand Colin). The question being practically settled, the chief interest of this little volume rests rather on the clear common-sense views of its author than on its value as a factor in the decisions. But, for unconventionality of opinion, M. Lanson is certainly remarkable among the disputants. He does not hesitate to tell his countrymen of the bias given to French culture through excess of literary training; and he also insists that modern languages, in order to justify their presence among higher studies, must reject scholastic, for strictly practical, methods.

A second attempt this season to improve on Mother Goose, 'Mother Goose's Menagerie,' by Carolyn Wells, with colored illustrations by Peter Newell (Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.), proves equally futile with the first. Miss Wells's ear for rhythm is insufficient for her ambitious metres, and her jests are often much above her audience. Mr. Newell's designs are narrowly mannered, but have some drollery and are better than the jingles.

Dodd, Mead & Co. issue in pamphlet form a 'Bibliography of the First Editions in Book Form of the Works of Alfred, Lord Tennyson.' The limitation expressed in the title is, we think, regrettable, for a little more diligence would have added to the list the place of first publication of every poem of Tennyson's. But perhaps it was too much to expect that both the student of literary history and the collector should be regarded in a work of this character. Bibliographically, the work seems to be thoroughly done, being more complete than any previous work in this field. The descriptions are full and accurate, and the title-pages of the most notable issues are reproduced. The primary object of the work is to describe accurately a complete series of Tennyson first editions which Dodd, Mead & Co. have gradually brought together and now offer for sale. But since the list grew to be, for collectors' purposes, a complete bibliography of Tennyson, it is issued in two editions of 250 and 56 copies respectively.

We cannot praise the technical quality of Professor Du Bois's "Select Bibliography of the American Negro, for General Readers," one of the Atlanta University publications. "Explicit suggestions and criticisms are invited" on the title-page, and we will remark that the classification is quite erratic, the sub-arrangement neither alphabetical nor geographical, the typographical errors too numerous—"F. J. May" for Samuel J., "Nicholay and Hay" for Nicolay—the references far too vague, *e. g.*, "*Nation*, xxviii." Why should Olive Schreiner's 'Trooper Peter Halket in Mashonaland' be found here? Why should works on fugitive slaves and the Underground Railroad be classed under "Emancipation," being ante-bellum in theme; and the Life of Garrison be placed under the same rubric and not under the preceding one, "Abolition Movement?" This well-meant little pamphlet betrays inexperience and a mind not orderly.

The "Annual List" of new and important books added to the Boston Public Library contains 206 pages of titles classified under 22 subjects. It makes a handy reference chronicle of the English literature of the past year on nearly every conceivable topic. In addition to the synopsis of classification, there is an index of biographies arranged alphabetically by subjects.

The London *Publishers' Circular* for December 21, 1901, contains a complete exposure of the latest Bacon-Shakspere cypherer, viz., Mrs. E. W. Gallup. This lady, having found the key, has extracted a prose translation of Homer's Iliad hidden in cypher by Bacon in Burton's 'Anatomy of Melancholy.' Mr. R. B. Marston, editor of the *Circular*, shows, with the aid of the deadly parallel column, that Bacon relied, then, mainly on Pope's translation nearly a century before it was published. This beats the feat of Shaksperizing all hollow. True, however, to his old instinct of concealment, Bacon altered Pope's "thirty sable vessels" into "thirty sable shippes," and "Messe for silver doves renowned" into "Messeis, renowned for silver doves"; yet took all the risks of prophetic plagiarism when he followed Pope in numberless divergences from Homer of insertion and omission. But perhaps he anticipated that posterity might adopt Mr. Marston's charitable view that "Pope must have discovered the key to his cypher, and cribbed his translation." Mr. Marston admits that Mrs. Gallup's "bilateral cypher" imposed upon him at first, from the samples, as it did upon the cynical W. H. Mallock.

In a review published in the *Expository Times*, of Edinburgh, Prof. J. G. Tasker calls attention to a curious slip in a recent bibliography in the *Theologische Rundschau*. Under the heading "History of Israel" he has found the following entry: "Lamb (Charles), Essays of Elia." "Let us hope," comments Professor Tasker, "that the mistake has introduced some German student of the Hebrew prophet's life to the genial English essayist."

By a kind of poetic justice, among the very first undertakings of the new International Association of Academies of Sciences is to be a critical edition of the entire literary remains of the philosopher Leibniz, as it was he who first advocated the international union of savants that has only now been realized. The actual work of preparing this edition is being done jointly by the Royal Academy of Berlin and the Paris Academy of Sciences, and Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, the original proposal having emanated from the last-mentioned. The phenomenal range of learning and literary activity of Leibniz made it practically impossible for a single Academy to produce this edition, the preparation of which requires the combined efforts of mathematicians, philosophers, theologians, jurists, and historians. The edition will contain from 130 to 140 volumes.

The extensive excavations which the French Government has been making in Delphi since 1892 are approaching completion. The most important work done recently has been to lay bare the Pythian Stadium, which is nearly 178 metres in length and from 25 to 28 metres wide. As the whole sacred district of Delphi consists of rocky terraces, it was not an easy task to build a hippodrome on the very sides of Parnassus. The vast expense of the work can be judged from the detailed reports of the costs, which are still extant. It has been found that, at the starting-place, small depressions were dug out, where those who participated in the races were compelled to stand until the signal was given. There are starting-places for eighteen runners. That these took their calling seriously is evident from an inscription, dating probably from the fifth pre-Christian century, which reads as follows: "No wine shall be brought into the temple of Eudromos [the god of the racers]; but if it nevertheless be, then he for whom it is brought shall appease the god with a sacrifice, and pay five drachmas, of which the informer shall receive one-half."

A geological map of Saxony has recently been completed for the Government of that kingdom, consisting of no less than 123 separate sections, each covering about two square miles of territory, and each representing a year's labor on the part of one geologist at a cost of preparation ranging from thirty to forty thousand marks. It has already proved useful in determining the routes of new railroads, and especially in securing new water supplies for the

cities of Leipzig and Chemnitz. The agricultural and mining interests of the country will also be materially helped by these geological surveys.

There are some indications of a reaction in German universities against a continuation or increase of the privileges which have been granted to women in recent years. In Koenigsberg, the head professor of anatomy, Dr. Stieda, as well as his colleagues holding the chairs of chemistry and of physics, Drs. Lossen and Pape, have united in excluding all women from their lectures and exercises, and this makes it practically impossible for women to study medicine in that university. As a number of professors in the faculties of theology and of philosophy have taken the same steps, women students are excluded from all real university privileges in Koenigsberg. So far, no other German Government shows any sign of following the example of Baden, which permits the matriculation of women in its two universities of Heidelberg and Freiberg. The women, however, are rushing to Berlin as nowhere else, the attendance this winter term being more than six hundred, while a year ago it was only 439, and last summer 303.

—The dead-and-alive character of most of our historical societies needed for its relief such a presidential direction as that of Mr. Charles Francis Adams, in Massachusetts. He has been struck with their aloofness from what it is the fashion to call "history in the making." Discussions in their meetings, and papers (not personal) in their proceedings, seldom postdate the Revolution or at most the war of 1812. An innovation upon this quietism has been made—and it is one of the great merits of the enterprise—in the conduct of the *American Historical Review*. Hence it was peculiarly fitting that Mr. Adams's address at the late meeting in Washington of the American Historical Association should have the place of honor in the January number of the *Review*. It is charged with gunpowder and calculated to receive all the criticism it challenges. It passes in review the main issues and the intellectual debate of the Presidential canvasses from 1856 to 1900, and concludes by recommending that the Association take a hand in each campaign hereafter, by holding at least one meeting in July for the instruction of the voter in the nature of the contest and his duty in the premises. We shall comment upon this no further than by saying that it is a common observation how little the professional study of history fits a scholar to become a political leader, or to arrive at an infallible judgment in the infinite variety of issues which attend a nation's political evolution. We apprehend that, in the case of our Imperial policy—one of the burning questions which Mr. Adams faces—our chief historians have shown either timidity or indecision, or have boldly gone counter to the highest and plainest traditions of this republic. However, we cannot say of them, as Lafontaine says of the animals and the plague:

> "Ils ne mouraient pas tous, mais tous étaient frappés."

Some, to their honor, were not smitten with Imperialism. Hence, had Mr. Adams's July convention been held in 1900, it is certain that the voter would have listened to jarring notes of exposition of the issues involved, of doctrine as to the true teachings of history, and of counsel. We fear, in a word, that the stirring author of "A College Fetish" is endeavoring to make a fetish of "History." And yet—at least for the sake of the historians themselves—let us have the convention!

—The most striking features to one who glances over the *Annuaire de l'École Pratique des Hautes Etudes* (1902), are the wide hospitality which this famous institution offers, and at the same time the very exclusive, and, so to speak, aristocratic circle to which it appeals. Under the letter A we find listed in succession pupils from Constantinople, Athens, Algeria, England (Whitchurch), and finally Paris; while on the other hand, many of the courses of lectures (or, more strictly, *conférences*) are attended by only three or four pupils, fortunate alike in the high distinction of the scholars to whom they listen and in the intimate personal intercourse which they enjoy. For this there is no parallel in the United States nor in Germany, and hardly in England, where the college tutor or coach belongs to quite another rank in the intellectual world from the great names of Maspero, Gaston Paris, Henri Weil, Oppert, and Monod. The moral of this for us Americans seems to be that the very highest class of educational work is expensive, as well as exclusive, and cannot be done wholesale. A lecturer to six hundred, or to one hundred, young men cannot possibly be doing this class of work—his leverage is at an immense disadvantage; it diminishes with the square of the number who attend. Another interesting feature is that the women have invaded these domains of the élite, and, indeed, have conquered them; for, in several cases, they receive the compliment of honorable mention.

—The volume is introduced by M. H. Gaidoz, in a little dissertation entitled "La Réquisition d'amour et le Symbolisme de la pomme," the manner of which reminds one that, in treating of the humanities, the French scholar seldom forgets or ignores men and women. In this essay, M. Gaidoz ranges lightly from Ireland to Tahiti, and explains why the sportive Galatea of the Eclogues and the Cleariste of Theocritus pelt their favorites with apples. Irish maidens and Irish fairies practise the same classic rite; the modern Greeks retain it, and along with it the special compound μηλοβολεῖν. The custom gave rise to many pretty scenes on Greek bas-reliefs and to certain groups of the figurines. The apple, as a symbol of love, was, of course, assigned to Aphrodite and to Venus, and is transferred from these, in Christian art, to the Virgin, by an irreverent but familiar superstition—the more easily because of the parallel and contrast with Eve. However, the apple is by no means the only fruit employed in this lover's game. The sirens of Tahiti fling at bathers who please their taste the *nono*, a fruit as big as the fist and of rather unpleasant odor; yet, these girls know nothing of Galatea nor of Condla and his fairy mistress. The archæologists explain all this by the remark, "The apple is the symbol of love." But the young women in Ireland and Greece and Tahiti do not concern themselves with symbols; they follow custom—they aim at simple and practical results, viz., to entice and provoke the attention of a lover. They fling an apple as they might a flower; but the apple carries farther, and is good to eat. A quince or a pomegranate will do as well—the choice of the fruit depends on the climate. So the Tahitian damsels use their native *nono: Amor arma ministrat.*

—In a recent number of the *Astronomische Nachrichten*, Dr. See of Washington publishes a preliminary investigation of the diameter of the planet Mars. He has made careful and systematic inquiry into all previous researches on this important constant, attentively studying every determination of the diameter made during the nineteenth century, recalculating several series of observations in order to render the available material more complete, and applying a more thorough treatment to the observations in order to effect an improvement in them. The earliest seventeenth-century measures, by Grimaldi and Huygens, and those in the following century by Rochon, the elder Herschel, and Schroeter, are particularly interesting. Lemonnier, 160 years ago, by reducing certain observations made a century earlier by Huygens, seems to have come singularly near the true value. Dr. See brings out with marked prominence the systemic difference between the diameter of Mars as found by the heliometer, or divided object-glass, and the micrometer, as ordinarily applied to the telescope; it amounts to more than a thirtieth part of the entire value, and signifies about 150 miles in the linear diameter of the planet. Dr. See inclines to a value very close to the heliometer determinations, and calls attention to the near accord of his final micrometer value with the individual results deduced by such standard observers as Campbell and Barnard, both at the Lick Observatory. Correcting this for irradiation effects, he deduces the final value of 6743 kilometres, the error of which probably does not exceed one three-hundredth part of the whole.

—'A Vanished Arcadia,' by Mr. R. B. Cunninghame Graham (Macmillan), is the story, from first to last, of the Jesuit mission in Paraguay. It will be remembered that, during the early years of the seventeenth century, the Jesuits managed to convert a large number of the Guaraní Indians, whose unwarlike instincts made them docile and willing proselytes. The tribes of the Chaco and the Pampas were more turbulent, and never yielded themselves fully to Jesuit guidance, but the Guaranís were swept by the thousand into "reductions," where, isolated from intercourse with pagan natives and Europeans, they received an education both spiritual and secular from the missionaries. Seldom, if ever, has the experiment of bringing up men and women on the "sheltered plan" been carried out so systematically or on so large a scale. The success of this mission was a great triumph for the Jesuits while it lasted; and even when the enterprise failed, they must have found some consolation in the thought that their work was destroyed, not by an uprising of their converts, but by an edict which came from beyond the Atlantic. Mr. Grahame has travelled and lived a good deal in South America; indeed, the study of this subject seems to have been suggested by personal familiarity with the region of the Paraná. The literature of the Paraguayan mission is already extensive, and it has not been difficult for the author to

procure a large number of contemporary works which supply the necessary data. But, although the volume is by no means deficient on the side of research, its chief interest is due to Mr. Grahame's dashing and characteristic style. The evils of unrestricted competition, the brutality of the Saxon race, and the merits of a society which is uncontaminated by the taint of manufactures—these and other subsidiary matters of a similar kind receive their share of spirited, picturesque denunciation. Mr. Grahame thinks that the Jesuits did well by the Indians, and developed the spirit of industry among them without appropriating its fruits to themselves. Moreover, he is inclined to lament the disappearance of a pastoral elysium. "It has been nobly said, 'that the extinction of the smallest animal is a far greater loss than if the works of all the Greeks had perished.' How much the greater loss that of the type of man such as the Indians whom the semi-communistic Jesuit government successfully preserved, sheltering them from the death-dealing breath of our cold northern life and its full, fell effects!" As a piece of historical composition, this book shows wide reading, and it is written with a vigor which is quite unshackled by regard for conventional ideas.

—A publication of an absolutely unique sort is the portfolio of plates issued by the Paris house, Librairie de l'Art Ancien et Moderne. The author, Alexandre Sandier, is well known to the artists of New York, for he was here acting as assistant, first to an architect and then to a great decorating house, prior to the year 1872, and has been since that time within easy reach of us, in Paris. His singular gift of easy and swift design in a style peculiarly his own and quite independent of the traditions, while still he knew the traditions well and could give you a piece of decoration in any French epochal style from thirteenth-century Gothic to Louis Seize, was such that he could never be ignored; and such that, when we heard of his appointment to the artistic direction of the great national factory of porcelain at Sèvres, we were surprised only in so far that it seemed unusual that the ideally best man should have such a post. The book now issued by him is of a very technical character, and that is the reason for the brevity of its notice here. It is entitled simply '2,800 Formes de Vases,' and all it undertakes to do is to classify the recognized shapes by selecting the seven elementary outlines, combining and recombining these, and dividing the actual and possible shapes of hollow vessels into four series. The brief text explains that it was not thought necessary to go further, although quintuple and sextuple combinations are, of course, conceivable by any one. This analysis is carried through fifty-eight plates. The student will hardly expect to find all the forms beautiful. The author himself, veteran designer that he is, would be the first to urge that beauty of design is not the first thing sought for here, and, moreover, that it is not by analysis, and by cold reasoning-out of possibilities, that beautiful design is obtainable. What we have is, then, a seemingly exhaustive analysis of the possibilities of form along certain recognized lines of build and make. Thus, if we turn to plate 44, we shall see, ranged along the top, five drinking glasses of kindred forms, but differing from the tall and slender goblet almost like the old-fashioned "flute" down to a broad and shallow *coupe*, which outdoes in these two directions the flattest champagne glass of our own time.

BALFOUR: STEVENSON: HENLEY.

The Life of Robert Louis Stevenson. By Graham Balfour. 2 vols. Scribners.

It is always painful—even, we imagine, to the most resolutely philosophical observer of human nature—to see what happens when a great writer lays down his pen for ever. And the distress of the spectacle is aggravated if the *man*, as well as the *writer*, has endeared himself to his readers or otherwise impressed his personality upon their imagination. The outburst of praise and lamentation—as undiscriminating and communal as the songs of the women mourning for Thammuz—is not the melancholy thing; for that is natural—it is of the heart and not of the mind. We have lost one whom we loved, or who was of value to us, and our sense of deprivation takes rude shape in the immemorial reproach, "Why would ye die?" Even the critics lose their heads—as they ought, if they have hearts—and for a season nobody knows whether they are appraising their hero as a stylist or stretching out vain hands in longing toward the other shore. There ensues the recovery: the tumult and the shouting dies, and reason emerges from the contagious clouds This, too, is nothing to be sorry for. "After great storms the calm returns; and pleasanter it is thereby!" But now begins the real post-mortem tragedy—the family quarrel over the dead man's will. Our author has bequeathed us his reputation. That is our inheritance; we must not let it deteriorate; there must be neither strip nor waste. But what is the value of the estate? The inventory was made in haste. Perhaps it is too high. We fear it is—but no man must be allowed to say so. The metaphor is a poor one, but does it not signify the fact? Why should we be careful and troubled to deny the course of time—to maintain in the court of the logical conscience what was at first asserted in terms of the funeral chant? Here inconsistency accords with the truth of human nature, and is far more consistent than stubbornness itself.

Never, perhaps, has there been a more horrid outcry than that precipitated by Mr. Balfour's biography of his kinsman. It is a modest book. The very preface might disarm the doughtiest: "I wrote it," says Mr. Balfour in substance, "because Mr. Colvin was not very well, and because I knew my cousin intimately." And it is a guileless book, and gentle enough, in all conscience. It proffers no challenge. It accepts its hero as genuine, and worships him with reverence; but there is nothing dithyrambic in the ritual, nor is the adoration blind. Stevenson had his faults, says Mr. Balfour, and passes on to speak of his virtues. There were failures in his life, but let us rather dwell upon his triumphs. It is a discreet book. Scraps from Stevenson's inedited papers are published—they are even advertised, quite properly, as a "feature"; but Mr. Balfour takes pains to point out that they are printed not as literature but as autobiography. If he lets us see that he admires them, he does not try to dragoon us into applauding with him.

Let us take this 'Life,' then, for what it professes to be—a supplement to the 'Letters.' Doubtless it is not an altogether inevitable supplement. The 'Letters' themselves, with Mr. Colvin's notes, might possibly have sufficed. At all events, their publication, two years ago, left only gleanings for him who was to follow; and this was the reason, perhaps, quite as much as uncertain health, that deterred Mr. Colvin from acting as his own successor. Yet the gleanings are worth while; the book is easy and pleasant to read; we owe gratitude to Mr. Balfour for what he has done, and likewise for what he has declined to attempt. It is an official biography, no doubt, and it bears marks of the discretion that befits official utterances. But a long-suffering public, sated with literary gossip, will hardly find fault with a biographer for refusing to be indiscreet.

Yet there is an eminent critic who is no friend to discretion, and in whose code reticence is tantamount either to cowardice or to insincerity. It is Mr. Henley, and we are all familiar with his militant creed. He was Stevenson's friend for many years, and it is not admissible to question the sincerity of his attachment. A shadow fell upon their friendship, and death has deepened the shadow, or, rather, "official biography" has deepened it. Something will not suffer Mr. Henley to sleep; the tongue no man can tame; and now there is a printed utterance, for all the world to wonder at, in the December number of the *Pall Mall Magazine*. It is the strangest manifesto, full of dark oracles. A copy of the author should go with it—no smaller gloss will serve. Three things we know it contains, for Mr. Henley says they are there, and says it expressly, in so many words: egotism, garrulity, and a grievance. The first two ingredients are harmless enough; they are even amusing. The grievance is a parlous matter. It sets us guessing when we have no business to guess. And guessing is facile and always unjust: thought is free. But there are other components in this pronouncement with the triliteral title. They are not easy to name, nor always pleasant to mention. There is spite—or is it *saeva indignatio*, or perhaps only much ado about nothing? There is pathos, and bumptiousness, and lingering regret; there is something like envy—"the robe of those that climb up higher to scorch"; there is candor; there is honest impatience of humbug and too keen a scent for humbug; there are *lacrimae rerum*, and other tears, of bitterer taste, which we may not analyze. There is jar of the nerves, and there are lyric memories of moments long swallowed up in the backward and abysm of time. And through it all there is innuendo, which he who runs *will* read. It is heavily dashed with that irritating figure against which Hamlet warned his friends when they had seen the ghost—the figure which the descriptive pathology of literature takes pleasure in naming *aposiopesis:* "We could, an if we would!" Mr. Henley once called Moore's Anacreon "a translation into scented soap"—a phrase for which, it appears, the gods have not forgiven him; for they condemn him in this essay to speak of Mr. Balfour's figure of Stevenson as "this Seraph in Chocolate, this barley-

sugar effigy of a real man." Heavy punishment—to have such tropes fly out of one's mouth instead of winged words! Mr. Henley reads Artemus Ward, or used to read him. It were not blasphemy to hope that he may some day remember a stanza of Whittier's, which, in emulation of his aposiopetic hinting, we leave unquoted, lest we may seem to be censorious or to "take upon 's the mystery of things."

Stevenson the Man is Mr. Henley's subject. He says little of the literary artist, and what he says, though corrective and salutary to the undiscriminating, of whom there are many, changes nothing in the sober expressions of those critics who have weighed their words. There were two Stevensons, he tells us—an earlier and a later, and the later had too much of the catechist in him—"the shorter catechist" of the sonnet, whom Mr. Henley has never fancied. In his own mind, the essay is doubtless a vindication, the assertion of a masculine actuality in contrast with an effeminate ideal. Yet to the running reader it seems like an assault, and so it has been treated, pardonably but unjustly. For such injustice, however, the essayist has himself to blame. A hectoring manner brings its own punishment. Still, Mr. Henley always knows what he is about. He looks for no indulgence, and we shall not affront him with further exegesis. What he has written, he has written. "He has done the state some service, and they know it"; at all events, they will come to know it as time elapses and irritation fades.

What has followed is the pitiable thing. All England rings with the sound of it, and America reëchoes. Epithets are bandied about. Motives as ignoble as unmixed jealousy are ascribed with freedom. Mr. Henley has been vociferously denounced as "a literary leper," and more pointedly as "the candid friend." Starved parodies have put forth their heads, hissing. It is even reported—perhaps "announced"—that Mr. Colvin is to issue a counter-statement. This we hope is not true. Everything has been said, or threatens to be said. We wonder only that no one has thought of applying Mr. Henley's own words written elsewhere—a truculent passage, in which he declares that a certain great one's "character and achievement" are "extraordinary," and adds, "Neither can be explained, or shouted, or sniffed away." Meantime, we imagine Mr. Henley as "sitting tight" and enjoying the row—in which imagining we may do him as much injustice, for aught we know, as any of his barking detractors. One must take one's chances. And that is also true of Stevenson's reputation as a man and as an author. Neither will be saved (or lost) for "much speaking." Finally who can forget Chaucer's couplet?

"But al shal passen that men prose or rime:
Take every man his turn as for his time!"

SCHOOL AND COLLEGE EDUCATION.

American Traits: from the point of view of a German. By Hugo Münsterberg. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

School, College and Character. By Le Baron Russell Briggs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Professor Münsterberg now presents, in a more permanent form and to a wider public, the five papers recently published in the *Atlantic* and the *International Monthly*. It is not easy to invent an illuminating name for a volume that comprehends a comparative study of German and American ideals, education and politics, a criticism of American scholarship, and a critical survey of American women, so that Professor Münsterberg's rather vague and inexpressive title may well be the choice of despair. Two of his papers deal solely with educational problems, and a third, on "Women," touches the college woman most nearly. But it is not merely on account of their common academic interest that we have bracketed these essays with Dean Briggs's smaller volume. There is in the two books an inner resemblance of conviction that, in the present somewhat experimental stage of American education, strikes us as significant. Here we have two Harvard professors, the one a professional student of psychology, with a world-wide reputation in his field; the other peculiarly versed in that more informal study of the human mind and character for which one can imagine no spot on earth more productive than the office of a dean. Neither writer has been deterred by his academic position from speaking out his whole mind, for the Harvard tradition favors freedom of speech. A concurrence of opinion in the case of two such men has special weight, and we find them agreeing separately, and in the most forcible terms, on the disadvantages or rather dangers of certain tendencies in the "new education"—a phrase that is fast becoming as obnoxious as the "new woman." Certainly, the most serious innovation of the new education has been the elective system. Reaching up from the kindergarten to the school, reaching down to the school from the university, it is obviously in secondary education that it is likely to have the deepest effect. For, after all, one's habits of work, one's training in attacking distasteful drudgery, one's attitude, in short, to obstacles, is acquired in the school; the university can but take and mould as it may, but cannot make over the product of school-teaching and discipline. Professor Münsterberg's warnings are, therefore, directed most earnestly to those who control the school system.

His article entitled "Education" aroused much comment on its appearance in the *Atlantic*, though we do not remember that any one was able to gainsay its main conclusions. The gist of it is that it is the mission of school education to free the young from "the weight of chance desires," and not to encourage them to mistake those youthful yearnings for inspirations. Professor Münsterberg gives a most instructive picture of his own schooling at Dantzig. He tells us that, at its close, the matriculation examination which admitted him to the university was one that very few Harvard students who have entered the senior class would have been able to pass respectably:

"Our entrance into the university can thus be compared merely with the entrance into the post-graduate courses. . . . I reached thus, at the end of my school time, as a pupil of average standing, the scholarly level of an average college graduate in this country; I was then eighteen years of age; the average bachelor of arts is at least three years older" (p. 47).

Professor Münsterberg goes on to describe the outside interests, astonishing in their variety, for which he found time, as proof that overwork at school is not the explanation of the German boy's superior attainments compared with an American of like age. It is explained, he says, in part by the fact that

"the school never took the smallest account of those inclinations, and never allowed me to take the slightest step aside from the prescribed school work. . . . My school work was not adjusted to botany at nine years because I played with an herbarium, and at twelve to physics because I indulged in noises with home-made electric bells. . . . The more my friends and I wandered afield with our little superficial interests and talents and passions, the more was the straightforward earnestness of the school our blessing; and all that beautified and enriched our youth, and gave to it freshness and liveliness, would have turned out to be our ruin if our elders had taken it seriously, and had formed a life's programme out of petty caprices and boyish inclinations" (p. 52).

This, at any rate, is a negative explanation. But there were two positive factors, and, when he speaks of these, Professor Münsterberg touches a vulnerable place in the American armor.

"I had from my ninth year," he says, "no teacher in any subject who had not completed three years' work in the graduate school. Even the first elements of Greek and mathematics, of history and geography, were given to us by men who had reached the level of the doctorate, and who had the perspective of their own fields. . . . The most elementary teaching was given by men who were experts. . . . That was the secret in our German schools. . . . To bring that condition about must be the aim of every friend of American school life."

That this reform is a burning need, all will allow who realize that "only 2 per cent. of American school-teachers possess any degree whatever. If the majority of college teachers are hardly prepared to teach in a secondary school, if the majority of high-school teachers are hardly fit to teach in a primary school, and if the majority of primary-school teachers are just enough educated to fill a salesgirl's place in a millinery store, then every other reform is self-deceit" (p. 76).

Another positive factor was home influence. The German parent takes school work seriously. "The school had the right of way. A reprimand in the school was a shadow on our home life; a word of praise in the school was a ray of sunshine for the household." How many American parents take their sons' schooling as seriously as this? Inefficient teachers, indulgent parents, the extension of the kindergarten methods to the school—these are the three influences that sap the life of secondary education in America.

But it may be objected that we cannot adapt Americans to the German point of view. Let us consult Dean Briggs. Like his German colleague, he attacks the elective system from the kindergarten up and from the college down. The fundamental idea that education need not be forbidding is all right, but "no persons lay themselves open more recklessly to *reductio ad absurdum* than advocates of the elective system." Election of studies must of course come at some point in all higher education; but where to begin? It is or should be clear that we begin too early when we invent devices to delude children into thinking they are playing games, though we are really teaching them harmony by means of a story called "Major C and his Relatives," or the distinctions of nouns, verbs, and adjectives by the analogy of sparrows,

robins, and hens. Such methods, which are closely allied to the elective system, ought to offend the intelligence of any child of sense. "Debilitating" is a mild word for these painless methods. No one can attain power in any other of the tasks of life except by honest effort to overcome difficulties. Work along the line of least resistance is bound to produce a student "flabby of mind and will." When one so trained, or, rather, so enervated, comes from school to college, what is his attitude to those limited doses of prescribed work that even the advocates of the elective system would maintain? In the first place, the prescribed subject must be easy because the student has been trained to think that one ought not to be forced to take a difficult subject unless one likes it. Mr. Dooley has grasped the situation: "Th' prisidint takes him into a Turkish room, gives him a cigarette, an' says, 'Me dear boy, what special branch iv l'arnin' would ye like to have studied f'r ye be our compitint professors?' "

What is the general result in college life? Dean Briggs emphasizes even more strongly than Professor Münsterberg the lack of training that results. "To set work above whim—that is training"; and in the case of the college student there is "a complete uncertainty as to whether he will be trained or not." Only in athletics can the student who has grown up under the elective system find opportunity for discipline; it is only there that there is short shrift for the man that shirks. The opéra-bouffe view of college life, encouraged by many parents and by most students, the certainty that cutting lectures will be taken as a sign of spirit, while regular attendance will not—these influences often find their only corrective in college athletics. Dean Briggs says that he would take the elective system out of the grammar school, and that he is "not attacking it in colleges"; but the whole tenor of his paper goes to support Professor Münsterberg's conviction that

> "the higher the level on which the professional specializing begins, the more effective it is," and that, "even in the college, . . . election with reference to the later occupation usually plays a secondary rôle; liking is the great ruler . . . Even in the college, two-thirds of the elections are haphazard, controlled by accidental motives."

In his article on "Scholarship," Professor Münsterberg points out that the condition of productive scholarship in America is not satisfactory. In Germany it is the essential interest of all university activity; in America it is "an accessory element, a secondary factor, almost a luxury." It is certainly true that the best men in the country are not attracted to the scholarly life. The incentives of high social standing and large salaries that draw the best minds of Germany to the scholar's pursuit, are lacking here. Those who enter on a professorial career are driven to do work that will pay, and productive scholarship goes to the wall. Professor Münsterberg's insistence on the necessity of printing the doctor's thesis, and of keeping the ambitions of the younger men fixed on scholarly aims, is decidedly at variance with the recent utterances of Dr. Kekulé, the rector of the University of Berlin, which were lately noticed in these columns. The German professor who knows us best tells us that we have too little scholarship; the other warns us from Berlin against having too much—as though one should set forth to the starving the disadvantages of a rich table. When we shall have reached the German level of productive scholarship, and have so adjusted the emoluments and social premiums of the scholarly life as to attract the best brains in the country from Wall Street to the college campus—when the splendid endowments of Mr. Carnegie and others shall have achieved this result, it will be time to pause and weigh the risks of too much scholarship. Dr. Kekulé tells us to be content with the technical school. We imagine that Americans are more likely to heed the advice of Professor Münsterberg not to allow American scholarship to remain "inferior even to American poetry and architecture" (p. 126).

Professor Münsterberg's views on "Women" are not likely to pass unchallenged, and we have not here the space in which to meet them fairly. His admiration of the American woman is limited only by his anxious forebodings of her too complete and independent success. He says some very definite things about her "passive and receptive mind" (charming in its place), as compared with the masculine intellect; and prophesies that unless men do something drastic the whole realm of art and literature, as well as some of the learned professions, will slip through masculine fingers. The "effemination of culture" will be the dire result. Of all the arguments against the higher education of women that we have encountered, this is the most obviously double-edged. Where, then, is the advantage of the superior strenuousness and power of the masculine mind? If it is doomed to fail to control the destinies of art, literature, and the learned professions, if it supinely suffers the emasculation of all that tends to raise the level of civilization, the mind of the American man might just as well be "passive and receptive" as not, since in passivity and receptivity lies success.

We leave the doubts here raised as to the advisability of coeducation in the American universities to its proper champions; but we may be allowed to point out that when he exhorts those homes of learning to become, "like European institutions, places for men, where only the exceptional women of special talent can be welcomed," Professor Münsterberg appears to neglect the fact that there are 600 women studying this winter at the University of Berlin. Have they all special talent? And if not, what about the effemination of Berlin? It appears that the German universities also are threatened with that "loss of virility" that Prof. Barrett Wendell once feared for Harvard.

Among the undesirable tendencies fostered by college life for women, Professor Münsterberg reckons a disinclination for marriage. The burden of proof that her college training renders the prospect of home duties (in a home of her own) distasteful to the average woman, lies with those who make the assertion. Statistics are valueless here, and must be so for many years to come. Professor Münsterberg has weakened the argument by his statement that the "anti-domestic" tendency draws away quite another class of women in this country "from the hearth to the mill and the salesroom," and is "not less evident in the lower strata of the community." Why, then, blame the college? Why not admit the truth, for America as for Germany, that a million women at least have no choice but to ignore the possibility of marrying, and must turn to work outside the home as a measure of self-preservation? In any case the peculiarities (if they exist) of the college woman can have strikingly little effect on the general course of American civilization. And if Professor Münsterberg will stand by his assertion that a college education does not make a woman herself less attractive, he need not lie awake over the problem of converting her to the attractions of the home. As for her alleged disillusion on finding that she can beat a boy at his lessons, women are rather prone to find stupidity endearing. Look at the stupid heroes of Mr. Henry James, and observe the devotion to them of the clever heroines. This question of intellectual priggishness as a bar to matrimony was long ago handled lightly and lightly dismissed by Mr. Charles Dudley Warner in 'A Little Journey in the World' (p. 38), where Professor Münsterberg may see his own theory expressed almost in his own words, but without his serious deductions.

We have dwelt on Professor Münsterberg's papers on education and the allied problems because we consider them the most interesting and significant of the series. The remaining chapters, on "American Democracy" and "The Americans and the Germans," are both entertaining and enlightening, and will commend the book to a still wider class of readers.

In his articles entitled "Fathers, Mothers, and Freshmen," and "Transition from School to College," Dean Briggs discusses the relations of parents to their undergraduate sons, and discloses some of the difficulties that beset a Dean. That for the improvement of the relations between the undergraduate and his college advisers, the latter must look to the parents for essential assistance, is made plain by the experiences here detailed. The weight of home influence, the underhand dealings of many parents with both the college and their sons, are factors that have to be met and overcome. The advice to parents in this little volume would, if taken to heart, save many a father and son from a false conception of college life as an opportunity for four years of irresponsibility before the real work of life begins. The language of Dean Briggs is forcible and occasionally embittered by the experience which has fitted him to give so much excellent advice.

SOME RECENT BOOKS ON LINEAR PERSPECTIVE.

Linear Perspective, Adapted for Colleges, Schools, and Teachers, and for Self-Instruction; including Examples in Parallel, Angular, and Oblique Perspective. By Edward T. Cooper. 11½x15¾ in.; 2 pp. text; 28 double plates, each with text and on cardboard. Cleveland, O.: Lamson & Carpenter. 1901.

Applied Perspective for Architects and Painters. By William P. P. Longfellow. 8x 11 in.; ix, 96 pp.; 141 illustrations, partly in text and partly in 33 plates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Modern Perspective; A Treatise upon the Principles and Practice of Plane and Cylin-

drical Perspective. By William R. Ware, Professor of Architecture in Columbia University. Text, 5x7½ in.; viii, 396 pp., with 30 plates each 11x15 in., in a separate portfolio. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

A knowledge of linear perspective is of such direct practical value in the graphic arts that the teaching of it must always occupy a place of considerable importance in any well-arranged course in drawing. In technical schools, where the students, as a rule, approach the subject well grounded in plane and spherical geometry, and often fresh from a course in analytic or the more immediately related descriptive geometry, the teaching of linear perspective, even in its higher branches, is not a difficult task. But in schools of art the case is a far different one. Few of the students have advanced beyond the grammar grade of the public school. Most of them lack the rudiments of geometry. Not a quarter of them can define an octagonal prism. Confused ideas of the meaning of such words as vertical and perpendicular are constant stumbling-blocks. Even though the careful teacher should, before entering upon his proper subject, attempt to lay a foundation of elementary geometry, he finds his pupils' minds so unused to the nice accuracy of mathematical expression that he at once realizes, as the students themselves cannot, the grave disadvantage under which they labor in their struggle to master a subject which, though of use in the fine arts, is, in fact, a branch of one of the exact sciences.

To make the subject clear to the understanding of such students is the purpose of Mr. Edward T. Cooper's 'Linear Perspective.' In spite of its rather pretentious title, which reminds one of Mr. Blaine's historic phrase, "Claim everything," the book covers but a narrow field. With the more intricate problems of the subject it does not concern itself. With the theory of perspective the book has little to do. Its keynote is simplicity. To teach plain and practical methods of solving the more usual problems is its end. This it does by a series of diagrams presenting not only the elementary principles of perspective, but their application to such simple figures and solids as will least confuse the beginner. The book contains ingenious illustrations, in which, by means of lines ruled on photographs, the position of the horizon, centre of vision, vanishing points, etc., are very clearly shown. Among these the best form a series of photographs, in which a table covered with squares of black and white paper arranged as a checker-board is shown, first, with its sides at right angles to the picture plane, and consequently with its retreating lines converging at the centre of vision, while the diagonals of its squares vanish at the distance points; secondly, as set at an angle with the picture plane, thus illustrating the relation of the vanishing points for systems of lines at right angles with each other; thirdly, in the same position, but with many of the paper squares lying upon it in accidental positions, showing that each of these has its own pair of vanishing points, yet all upon the horizon. Although the amount of matter contained in the book is small, the great size of its plates (15½x20 inches) gives it an advantage in simplicity of presentation, since the sundry points are actually put upon the page and do not have to be imagined at a distance beyond its margin, as is so often the case. In places, the text lacks scientific precision—a defect which may have arisen from a deliberate choice of familiar expressions intended to avoid the use of terms less readily comprehended by the untrained mind.

Mr. W. P. P. Longfellow, in his 'Applied Perspective,' approaches his subject from quite a different point of view from that of Mr. Cooper. From the fact that he does not exclude the more difficult problems, his book, or rather its latter half, has an apparent intricacy that is due to the subject rather than to the author's way of handling it. Mr. Longfellow points out at starting that "the practice of perspective depends not so much on many principles, as on the varied application of a few," and that it is an easy matter for a man of fair capacity to acquire enough for every-day use. Instinctive readiness of resource to solve varied and intricate problems as they appear, he finds to be the distinguishing mark of the skilful draughtsman. He therefore devotes the first half of his book to those simple principles necessary to qualify the student for work of ordinary difficulty, while in the second he discusses such problems as the draughtsman must be prepared to solve if he is to be accounted thoroughly skilful.

As its title shows, the author is concerned with the *application* of the principles of perspective to actual work, yet he has by no means overlooked the necessity for carrying the theory of the subject along with the practice. Permitting himself an abundance of words, and nowhere attempting "to adhere to the rigorous forms of theoretical mathematics," he is able to make his subject far clearer to the average understanding than he would have done by such adherence. His method permitting whatever digressions may please his fancy or contribute to a readier understanding of his subject, he indulges in them, here and there, with good effect. In the first place, instead of defining the horizon as the intersection of the picture plane with a horizontal plane passing through the spectator's eye (a sufficiently accurate, but to the beginner by no means luminous statement), Mr. Longfellow begins by discoursing upon perspective in nature, describing the horizon at sea, and showing that this horizon is in appearance always just at the level of the eye, and that whether we sink our eye to the level of the sea, or go up even to a great height in a balloon, the horizon follows us, and seems always at our own level. So interestingly does he discourse of this phenomenon, and of the curious consequences that arise from it, and of the frequent disregard in paintings of the limitations it imposes, that we are carried into the midst of the subject without realizing it, and presently find ourselves occupied with an equally interesting discussion of the distinction between foreshortening and mere diminution in size on account of the distance of the object. From this it is an easy passage to the question of why and where lines vanish in perspective; but so informally is the introduction treated that the foundation for all that follows is laid before we suspect it.

Without going into detail, suffice it to say that at certain points the presentation of the subject seems quite new, and that, in general, there is a freshness about the author's manner that serves well to maintain the reader's interest. This is notably true of the chapter upon the use of perspective in the construction of pictures, and in the chapter upon the many singular and unpleasant distortions in the forms of objects resulting from a rigorous application of the rules of perspective, when not accompanied by a judicious selection of the point of view and a reasonable modification of certain resultant forms.

In closing let us note that Prof. William R. Ware's 'Modern Perspective' has recently been republished, and that thereby an opportunity has been given to add to the book a discussion of a few subjects not included in the original edition. 'Modern Perspective' is a work of an essentially different character from either of those that we have been considering. It assumes a thorough preparation in mathematics on the part of the student. It wastes no words in making things easy for him. Its aim is to present the whole theory of the subject in the most thorough and scientific way. Some examples of the use of the principles are wisely included in the book, and thus in a certain sense it treats, like Mr. Longfellow's book, of applied perspective. Professor Ware's work has been too long before the public to justify any extended notice of it at this late day; enough that it is the most authoritative work upon linear perspective in the English language. For one who wishes to understand thoroughly the science of perspective, it is at once adequate and indispensable.

Present Irish Questions. By William O'Connor Morris, County Court Judge. London: Grant Richards. 1901.

The interest of this book to Irish readers will consist mainly in the fact that the author is a judge whose duty is to administer impartially the laws which he so roundly condemns as unjust. It is well known that most of the judges and highly placed and paid officials in Ireland hold very similar views, but they do not parade them in public, however much they may allow their decisions and actions to be influenced by their prejudices and convictions.

Judge O'Connor Morris is a landlord, and has been from his youth to his now advanced age a Tory pamphleteer, press-writer, and author of many works similar to this. His views with regard to the actual state of Ireland may appear, he says, "gloomy and paradoxical." The latter they certainly are, especially on the land question, which occupies the greater part of the book. The land system of the past he describes as essentially bad, inasmuch as the joint ownership and concurrent rights of the Irish tenant with his landlord in the soil did not receive, as "it was but just they should," the recognition and sanction of the law. Nevertheless, the attempts of the Legislature during the last thirty years to recognize the Irish tenants' concurrent rights meet with the Judge's unqualified disapproval; they came too late; they were wrongly conceived, and have resulted in confiscation pure and simple of the landlords' just rights. These are paradoxes indeed—what should have been done sixty years ago is rank injustice now. A wail about confiscation pervades the whole book, but the term has application only to the estates of landlords. It is confiscation to reduce the rents receivable by landlords

by the value of the improvements made by the tenants, but it was not confiscation for the landlords to raise the rents as the tenants' improvement works made their farms more valuable.

More than half the book is taken up with the oft-repeated story of the Irish land laws, including illustrations in detail of their iniquitous effects upon the landlord class. The result is thus stated in chapter i., describing Ireland in 1901: "The attempts that have been made to reform the Irish land system in the last sixty years, have been, with scarcely an exception, failures." The book itself suggests the reason, and the reply—that this is so because the administration of the reforming measures has been intrusted to such judges as the author. Act has been piled upon act, during the last thirty years, with the main object of trying to secure to the Irish tenant those "concurrent rights," that "joint ownership," to which Judge Morris says he was justly entitled. But the Irish judges, drawn almost invariably from a class hostile to all reform that touched the pockets or privileges of their class and creed, have invariably evaded and nullified the law. Judge Morris's testimonial to the present head of the Land Commission (p. 224) is as good an illustration of the feeling prevalent in the Irish courts and among the judges as could be—"a capable and experienced lawyer, he has done probably as much as in him lay to alleviate some of the wrong done to Irish landlords." That is to say, the law has been wrested, its plain meaning perverted, in the interest of landlord suitors, and the tenants have been deprived of what the Legislature intended they should have, the ownership of their own improvements.

Home Rule, Judge Morris thinks, is by no means dead. It is a "present Irish question," and is inconsistently attributed to a foreign conspiracy against the State, and to the shifty, vacillating, unprincipled administration of Ireland by England. Signal ignorance of Irish affairs has been the characteristic of English legislation and administration. He quotes with approval O'Connell's statement, "We are governed by foreigners; foreigners make our laws." The Home Rule bills of 1886 and 1893 are exhaustively and acutely examined. Every plan proposed is fraught with danger. Separation would be preferable; but also worse, for "illiterate, indigent multitudes, an ignorant priest-ridden democracy," would work ruin to themselves; an Irish Parliament "would trample on and oppress hundreds of thousands of law-abiding men." The independence of the poorest country in Europe at the door of the richest would be impracticable.

The chapter on the financial relations of Ireland and England is a bit of vigorous writing. There are no two sides to this question, in Judge Morris's opinion. The report of the Childers Commission that Ireland is overtaxed to the amount of two or three millions sterling a year, falls short of the real truth; the arguments of the present Government and their supporters against this conclusion are "a compound of absurd and offensive insolence." "Is it a seemly sight, is it becoming in the eyes of the world, that the richest country in Europe should practically impose an iniquitous burden upon the poorest?" The sum of the whole matter is that the Irish landlords must be compensated for the huge confiscation made of their property; their rentals must be kept up, their taxes remitted, and their class preserved in all its privileges to govern and administer the affairs of an ignorant and ungrateful democracy. The recent reform of the system of local government is not altogether pleasing to Judge Morris. The whole scheme "will ultimately have to be reformed, in a conservative sense, if things in Ireland are not to be left upside down." This upside-downness consists mainly in the principle that "a cottar has the same voting power as a man of forty thousand a year." Yet the cottar must pay the local rates, while the owner of a rental of £40,000 pays none.

As on the question of finance, so on that of education, Judge Morris takes the modern and popular view. Protestant ascendency ought not to exist in university life; and Trinity College, the only institution which can be called a university, remains "a Protestant institution, well endowed, almost a monopoly of the Protestant upper class."

Judge Morris is a practised writer, but we have had a good deal of the contents of this book in his former publications, and his denunciation of the Land, National, and United Irish leagues is only a development of his judicial orations on the bench, repeated at almost every session. These organizations are held responsible by him for every crime and offence, and even for accidents in the districts where he sits as a County Court Judge. In the abnormally dry spring of 1901, fires took place on moors and heaths in County Sligo, as they did also in Lancashire and Yorkshire, where they were far more extensive and destructive to land and game. But the United Irish League existed in Sligo, and the law in Ireland makes the district rate-payers liable to pay compensation for any such occurrence if the judge holds it to have occurred through malice. Judge Morris announced that fires could not occur at such a time of year except through malice, and saddled the ratepayers with enormous compensation, which was substantially reduced on appeal. This fire he describes (p. 30) as "a serious outbreak of agrarian crime, in the form of incendiary fires, which may be distinctly traced to the operations of the United Irish League." The law in the hands of such a judge holds out distinct inducements, often availed of, to persons to set fire to their own houses, hay, heaths, etc., and then to obtain from the ratepayers an extravagant amount of compensation.

'Present Irish Questions' is likely to give rise to some interesting debates in Parliament, for there is little doubt that a motion will be made to remove the Judge from his position on the ground that he is an unfit person to administer the laws which he has denounced and stigmatized as unjust.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atkinson, R. W., and Carter, Ernest. Songs of the Eastern Colleges. Hinds & Noble. $1.25.
Beeching, H. C. Inns of Court Sermons. Macmillan. $1.25.
Chapman, Frederic. Ancient Royal Palaces in and near London. John Lane. $6.
Essays on the Teaching of History. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Fawcett, Mrs. Life of the Right Hon. Sir William Molesworth. Macmillan. $2.75.
Green, J. R. Oxford Studies. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hardesty, Irving. Neurological Technique. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Kirkpatrick, A. F. The Book of Psalms, Books IV.-V. (The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 80 cents.
La Mara. Franz Liszt's Briefe an die Fürstin Carolyne Sayn-Wittgenstein. Part IV. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Miller, W. J. The American Church Dictionary and Cyclopedia. Thomas Whittaker.
Mürger, Henry. The Latin Quarter. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Murison, R. G. Babylonia and Assyria. (Bible Class Primers.) Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. 20 cents.
New England Society Orations. 2 vols. The Century Co. $5.
Peterson, William. Anecdota Oxoniensia, Classical Series, Part IX. Henry Frowde.
Pierce, A. H. Studies in Auditory and Visual Space Perception. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Robertson, Archibald. Regnum Dei. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Schouler, James. Alexander Hamilton. (Beacon Biographies.) Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Staley, Edgcumbe. Watteau. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Stephen, Leslie, and Pollock, Frederick. Lectures and Essays by the late William Kingdon Clifford. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Taylor, Hannis. A Treatise on International Public Law. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Thackeray, W. M. The Newcomes. Macmillan. $1.
Thwaites, R. G. The State Historical Society of Wisconsin; Memorial Volume. Madison (Wis.): State Historical Society.
Tiffany, Nina M., and Lesley, Susan I. Letters of James Murray, Loyalist. Boston: W. B. Clarke Co.
Wells, Carolyn. Mother Goose's Menagerie. Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co. $1.50.
Wilson, R. R. Washington, the Capital City. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 23, 1902.

The Week.

A tea-pot revolution is raging at Panama, but it is nothing to the revolution of sentiment in this country marked by the unanimous report of our Canal Commissioners, transmitted to Congress on Monday, in favor of the Panama route for an Isthmian canal. This is whole diameters away from what passed for even expert opinion three years ago. Within that period, Admiral Walker, who now signs as President of the Commission, publicly expressed his disbelief in the engineering practicability of a canal at Panama at all. And, of course, to the perfervid Morgan, a Panama canal has all along been as wild a project as a railway to Nephelococcygia. His attitude of mingled indignation and pity, when confronting any man who ventured to say that there might, after all, be something in the Panama scheme, was typical of that of press and public until within a year. A newspaper capable of presenting the arguments for the southerly route was held to be *ipso facto* wrong in the head, or else bribed by "French gold" ("British gold" having given out). The canal is not yet dug. Even a bill to authorize it may not be passed at this session of Congress. As to that we make no prophecies. But the one thing certain is that no Nicaraguan bill will become law. The House will be allowed to enjoy a monopoly of folly in having rushed the Hepburn bill through without waiting for the facts. In the Senate (and in the House, too, when the matter comes up there again) there will be the careful deliberation fitting for full-grown men. We shall have common sense, not waving of the arms and shouting, applied to the great question of a waterway for commerce across the Isthmus.

A Pan-American agreement on international arbitration had hardly seemed possible at Mexico, so that the news of a general adoption of the Hague Convention by the American republics comes as a happy surprise. It is agreeable, also, to note that our delegation played an efficient part in soothing jealousies and composing differences. We know, of course, that the Hague Convention is more of an aspiration for peace than a sure means of guaranteeing it, and adhesion to it by the nations of the New World does not mean the end of war here any more than it does in Europe. Still, it is a distinct moral advantage to have this implicit condemnation of war on record so solemnly. It will prevent international disputes from being wantonly embittered. It will provide a tribunal before which an honorable adjustment of controversies may be had. It will increase the presumptions against those who talk of war, and heighten the guilt of those who provoke it. All told, the outcome is most fortunate, and will do much to avert from the Pan-American Congress the reproach of failure, which otherwise might have been levelled at it with considerable justice.

President Roosevelt continues to win the highest praise from respectable citizens in the South for his rejection of unfit candidates for Federal office who are pushed by the Republican machine of their State, and his insistence upon high-class men, even if he has to go outside of his own party to get them. In pursuance of this policy, he has recently nominated two of the most prominent Democrats for two of the most important positions under the United States Government in Mississippi—the district attorney's office and the marshalship. Each appointee is, by common consent, honest, able, and public-spirited, and the reason the President took them was because he could not find men of such character and attainments among the Republicans of their district. Mr. Roosevelt's action receives the warmest commendation from the leading newspapers of the region. The New Orleans *Times-Democrat*, for example, holds that "this determination of Mr. Roosevelt's to subordinate partisanship to patriotism touches the high-water mark of political courage yet recorded in the history of this country," and it adds:

> "We believe we reflect the sentiment of Americans of the Southern States when we say that this unflinching determination of the President's to conduct his Administration in accordance with the primal laws of human living, has won the profound and widespread admiration of his countrymen at the South. If Mr. Roosevelt's Administration as President should end to-day, it would, by its Southern policy alone, be entitled to the lasting gratitude of all Americans."

It is surprising, however, to find the same President who thus unhesitatingly "turns down" the Republican machine in a Southern State seemingly complying with its demand in Pennsylvania. Mr. Roosevelt has announced that the present Collector of Internal Revenue in Philadelphia, P. A. McClain, will be replaced by William McCoach, although Mr. McClain has been a most efficient Collector, and although Mr. McCoach has no other qualifications than subserviency to the Quay machine. According to the New York *Times*, the President justifies this extraordinary performance by the plea that Mr. McClain ought to be put out because he bolted the regular Republican ticket at the recent municipal election, and because officials "must be not only good men, but stalwart Republicans." As thousands of decent Republicans revolted against the outrageous ticket nominated by the Republican machine in Philadelphia last fall, this punishment of one of them astonishes everybody. Mr. McClain himself puts the case very well when he says: "My espousal of the cause of decent municipal government was in direct sympathy with the many utterances of President Roosevelt on the subject; and it does not seem consistent that he can remove an official who agrees with him as to public morals, to take up any representative of a political combination which has been at absolute variance with him as to public morals." Why may Mississippi be granted the best officials who can be secured, even if it be necessary to take Democrats, while only "stalwart" Quay men can hold office in Pennsylvania?

It is semi-officially explained on behalf of the President that the reason for the Collector's removal was not the fact that he had voted a bolting ticket, but that he had taken an active part in the campaign, appearing on the stump upon occasion. This was in defiance of a warning which he had received from Washington, that such activity was incompatible with the Administration's policy as to the civil service. A similar warning was administered to another Federal official, who wanted to speak in favor of the Quay machine—and was heeded by him. We regret that Mr. Roosevelt does not make it plain in every such case as this, by some public statement, what the cause of removal is, but leaves the facts to leak out—or perhaps never come out. We regret, also, that he does not make membership in partisan committees, or active management of party matters, whether as a member of such a committee or as a "leader" who may not be a committeeman, also a bar to retention in the civil service. The collector of the port who runs his ward in favor of the Republican machine without making any public utterance, is quite as great an offender against sound rules of conduct as one who makes a speech against the machine.

The minority of the Coinage Committee of the House have made a report in opposition to Mr. Hill's bill to make gold dollars and silver dollars interchangeable at the Treasury. This is a measure which frankly acknowledges that silver dollars are "fiat money," and therefore ought to be redeemed on demand, like greenbacks and the Treasury notes of 1890. We have taken a long

time to face that fact, but we have come to it at last, and the question is whether Congress has the logical faculty sufficiently developed to do directly and openly what it does indirectly and covertly. It redeems the silver dollar by taking it as the equivalent of gold at the custom-house and for all other Government dues, and it exercises the option of redeeming it in gold at the Sub-Treasury when presented by private individuals. But it does not allow any holder of silver dollars to demand redemption at the Sub-Treasury as a matter of right. The minority of the Coinage Committee say that it would require a large increase of the gold reserve if the Government should undertake to redeem silver dollars in the way proposed by Mr. Hill's bill. That this is an entirely erroneous assumption must be evident from the fact that the silver dollars are now redeemed, as we have said, at the place where the Government's receipts are taken in. No more gold is needed to redeem them at the front door than at the back door, or vice versa.

The introduction of Mr. Babcock's bill to transfer certain portions of the iron and steel schedule to the free list must confirm the opinion that the tariff question contains the seeds of an "irrepressible conflict." The measure proposes to relieve of duty the heavy products of the furnace, such as iron and steel slabs, beams, girders, and structural iron, and thus necessitates the rearrangement of nearly all the paragraphs of Article C of the Dingley act. Mr. Babcock disclaims, of course, any thought of free trade. His avowed design is simply to safeguard the consumer by removing duties from such articles as are produced more cheaply here than abroad, and consequently do not need protection. The real significance of his bill, however, does not lie in its mere details. Mr. Babcock may say and think what he pleases about his object in suggesting tariff changes, but the fact remains that his action has been taken in spite of the warnings of his political associates and in the face of the protests of protected interests. He may be justified in feeling that his bill will "maintain the theory of protection in accordance with the best Republican traditions," but those who are profiting by the present duties do not care for "best traditions." Traditions are to them, in Pindaric phrase, "only a dream of a shadow." What they want is an opportunity to despoil the consumer. Western Republicans, for whom Mr. Babcock speaks, are coming gradually to feel this truth, and their utter revolt from present conditions is merely a question of time.

The New York *Press* has information from Hartford that the tobacco-growers of New England have broken away from their President, Mr. H. S. Frye, who was willing to concede something to the Cubans in the way of duties on tobacco. The annual convention of the tobacco-growers was held on January 14. Mr. Frye was present and made an address, in which he favored a reduction of the duty on Cuban tobacco wrappers from $1.85 to 35 cents per pound. The convention voted unanimously against this proposal, deposed Mr. Frye as their representative in Washington, and appointed a committee of three to take his place and to work against all concessions to Cuba. This action is in harmony with all that we know about tariff-protected groups, cliques, and coteries. No matter how large or how small they may be, no matter whether the tariff be 10 per cent., or 50 per cent., or 500 per cent., they savagely reject any proposal for a reduction, even when made by their best friends—such friends as President Roosevelt, Secretary Root, Senator Platt (of Connecticut), or Gen. Wood. Senator Platt has been quoted in interviews repeatedly as earnestly favoring a reduction of the tariff on Cuban tobacco, as a matter of duty and humanity, and we shall be much surprised if he allows himself to be swerved from this course by the resolutions of the Hartford convention.

In view of the very interesting present position of the commodity markets and international trade, the statement of our own foreign trade for the full year 1901, just published by the Bureau of Statistics, is worthy of careful study. That the exports would show a decrease from the preceding year was known beforehand; in fact, the amount reported, $12,400,000, is much less than was looked for, six months ago. It was apparent then that exports of manufactures must decline very heavily under the changed conditions of Europe's markets, and, as a matter of fact, the shrinkage from 1900 in this class of trade alone has reached nearly $50,000,000. What has offset most of this large decline is the growth of our agricultural exports. Contrary to all expectations in the earlier portion of the year, the shipment of these commodities has run $30,000,000 beyond 1900, and has, in fact, surpassed all other years, not excepting the "European famine year," 1898. Considering that we have hardly been exporting corn at all since August, this is a very notable showing. Furthermore, even in the matter of manufactured goods, it should be remembered that in our trade, as in England's, a fall in prices makes the decrease in exports look more formidable than the figures of quantities would warrant. It may be added that fully one-half of the decrease in manufactured exports has been in copper ingots, where a trade combination tried this year to stand in the way of natural laws. That the merchandise import trade of 1901 should show a heavy increase was to have been expected. As a matter of fact, it has increased continuously since 1896, with the single exception of the year of the Spanish war. Last year's full showing perhaps attracts the more attention from the fact that the total imports run for the first time beyond the huge figures of 1892. For 1901, the import trade was $50,000,000 beyond this previous high record. It would appear, moreover, from such classified figures as have been published for 1901 that the increase is not, as a rule, in competitive articles of commerce.

"If you should hear of a few Filipinos more or less being *put out of the way*, don't grow too *sentimental* over it." Such is the language which Gen. Chaffee, according to Mr. Joseph Ohl, addressed to that correspondent of the Atlanta *Constitution* after the massacre in Samar. Mr. Ohl writes that it might be "unfair to Gen. Chaffee for me to put in quotation marks all he said to me that day," but he does put in quotation marks the words we have quoted. The incident may properly be referred to Senator Hoar's special committee of inquiry. Representative John Wesley Gaines of Tennessee, who visited the Philippine Islands last summer, made his first statement as to his observations in a recent address before the students of Vanderbilt University. He learned in Manila that 75,000 translations of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution had been circulated among the Filipinos by Gen. MacArthur. "What do you think of circulating that d——— incendiary document, sir?" he was asked by an army officer. Mr. Gaines was not afraid to say that he had heard of many atrocities committed by American troops, and among other things had learned of the beheading of three American deserters as soon as they were captured by their former comrades, without hearing or trial. The Maccabebes in the employ of the American army Mr. Gaines denounced as the scum of the islands, traitors to their cause, thieves by nature and by tradition, who are hated by the Filipinos as irreclaimable cowards and robbers.

Like other observers, Mr. Gaines estimated that not less than from thirty to sixty thousand troops must be kept permanently in the islands. He was not, however, as much impressed with the imminent danger of a fresh outbreak as are so many officers now in the interior of Luzon. On this point the correspondent of the Atlanta *Constitution* has very decided views. He thinks that there is serious danger in arming Filipinos and teaching them the use of rifles. Disclaiming all purpose of posing as an alarmist, Mr. Ohl says of the army officers he has met:

"The most optimistic of them endorse the general view that, while the Filipinos

have bowed their heads to the storm, it is with them simply a question whether the time and the opportunity will ever come for another effort to take up arms in another fight for their freedom and independence, which is their greatest desire. Taken as a race, they may not have very definite ideas of freedom and independence; but, as a race, they resent the assumed superiority of the white man."

Retiring Governors, as well as incoming Executives, are expected to address the Legislature of Iowa when one goes out and a new man comes in. Gov. Shaw draws an attractive picture of the condition of the commonwealth which he has supervised during the past four years—the people prosperous, crime decreasing, although population is increasing, fewer persons sent to the penitentiary last year than in any other save one for a quarter of a century, exceptionally cordial relations between capital and labor, few deeds of violence, and no case of lynch law for more than a decade. But there is one bad blot upon the record. Sixty thousand persons are employed in factories, and the "sanitary condition of many factories is well-nigh alarming," while investigations by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that a large number of children, some as young as ten years of age, are employed, "and the faces of many of them tell a sad story of overwork and over-hours." Shocking stories as to such abuse of young children have come from manufacturing establishments in some Southern States, but it is a disagreeable surprise to find the scandalous system thriving in so progressive a commonwealth as Iowa. It speaks well for the incoming Secretary of the Treasury that he would not allow a natural desire to felicitate himself and the State upon the general condition of affairs to prevent his exposure of this reproach and his demand for reform.

Washington is likely to present the spectacle, not very common in any country, of a city made over in accordance with a comprehensive scheme. The beautiful plan of L'Enfant has been in part sacrificed through the carelessness of his successors, so that the new work must be to some extent one of restoration. What is especially interesting is the project for a great outlying park on the Potomac flats, with full facilities for boating and bathing; and that for fountains in abundance, to temper the heat of the summer months. These plans are so accurately drawn that the entire project is presented to the eye in two models publicly exhibited, one representing the city as it is, the other the city as the Burnham Commission thinks it should be. It is distinctive of this movement for beautifying the capital city that it does not proceed haphazard—a park here, a drive there—but that, once for all, a competent commission of architects, landscape artists, and engineers have planned splendidly, as L'Enfant did before them, for a long future. Of course, these things are easier in Washington, where national pride is available for civic purposes, than they are elsewhere. But the notable success of Boston with the new park system might well encourage the Mayor of New York, when the time is ripe for such a movement, to urge a comprehensive plan for the permanent beautifying of this city.

The speech from the throne on Thursday naturally gave little idea of the serious problems which confront the British Parliament in the present session, and the debates in the two houses were hardly more illuminating. It was made clear at least that the Government is fully committed to the policy of thorough in South Africa, and that there is no disposition to negotiate with the Boers. Lord Rosebery found this attitude of the Government reprehensible, and the speech from the throne "jejune." But his own advocacy of "a passive policy of peace" is hardly calculated to arouse enthusiasm, for it is difficult to see how any "wise passiveness" on Mr. Chamberlain's part is likely to win over De Wet and Botha. The really serious thought of all who looked beneath the brilliant spectacle of the opening must have been upon the grave questions of internal policy with which the present Parliament must deal. The members of Salisbury's big, brute majority are a year further from the "khaki campaign"—a year more worried with the endless burden of the war. Meanwhile the time has come to settle with domestic matters which have fallen into arrear.

For the present session the most exalted Imperialists must become Little Englanders, and deal with such homely things as the Budget, education, and Irish land tenure. Any one of these will give Mr. Balfour trouble enough in the Commons, and he may not find the closure so handy a weapon as it was last year. Sir Robert Giffen, in the London *Times*, estimates the deficiency in the April Budget, now preparing, at something more than ten millions of pounds, and sees no prospect of the immediate reduction of the so-called "extraordinary" war expenditures. The country will respond, must respond, as manfully to Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's second challenge to pay the piper as it did to his first; but it will be likely to ask this time, "How long?"—a question which the Government cannot for ever wave aside as an impertinence. The educational question is hardly less pressing. The Government last August practically accepted defeat on its comprehensive plan, and passed a temporary measure, which restricted the powers of the school boards strictly to elementary education. This was represented by the Liberals as primarily an attack on the boards and on the night schools and continuation schools for children beyond the statutory age, which had grown up under their charge. Such it has proved to be, in effect, if not in intention. Dr. MacNamara has shown in the London *Daily News* that the enrolments in the board schools for the year 1901-2 will probably show a falling off of 100,000 pupils. Under the discredit of last summer's fiasco, the Government this session must formulate a comprehensive scheme for secondary education—a most delicate task, for which it has shown neither aptitude nor good-will. The Liberal opposition will be unsparing at this point. Finally, the Irish Land-Purchase Bill will be a most contentious measure. No Parliament yet has come off handsomely in the matter of Irish legislation, and the present khaki majority will hardly prove an exception to the rule.

Lord Cranborne's statement in the House of Commons on Monday is absolutely conclusive on the subject of the friendly service which England rendered the United States on the eve of the Spanish war. What has been widely believed and privately asserted is now for the first time officially verified. There were, according to the deliberate statement of the British Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, proposals submitted to England to join other Powers in "putting pressure on the Government of the United States," but with them "his Majesty's Government declined to associate itself." No documents were laid on the table by Lord Cranborne, but none were needed. Time enough to produce them when some foreign chancellery denies their existence. It is safe to say that none will, irritating as it must be to some of them to see England making herself known as the Power which prevented a European coalition against the United States. This great service was what President McKinley referred to when he said in Washington to the correspondent of the London *Times*, that this country would "never forget" what Great Britain had done in the crisis of the Spanish war. There may be a certain calculated timeliness in the revelation of the truth by the English Foreign Office. Lord Cranborne may have been squinting at a certain effusiveness of friendship for America visible just now across the Channel, having for occasion the launching of a schooner yacht in these waters for the Emperor, under the eye of his brother, Prince Henry, with the assistance, by request, of the President's daughter. Never mind that; the fact is officially established that it was England who was our best friend in a national emergency, and it should, for many long years to come, quiet, for very shame, the raging of our Anglophobes.

A WORKING PLAN FOR THE PHILIPPINES.

Once more the "settled" Philippine question is to be torn open by a debate in the Senate. It is expected to run on for a month or more; but at its very beginning there comes gratifying evidence that the Democratic Senators are recovering their grasp and developing something like the instinct of political leadership. The minority report of the Philippines Committee, marking out the line of Democratic opposition and contention, is drawn with great shrewdness and with real statesmanlike ability. It is eminently practical, offering a programme which could at once be put into execution, and it goes with directness to the heart of existing difficulties. It is constructive legislation, in the best sense of the word, since it proposes to bring healing measures and a far-sighted plan to bear where three years of dogged fighting have led only to misery, instability, and, as Gen. Chaffee confesses, a whole people sullenly and inveterately hostile. The problem is one for solution by statesmen, not by soldiers, and the Democratic Senators bring forward the necessary measure.

With true political skill they have seized on the pending bill for a Philippine tariff in order to make it the vehicle for a sound policy covering the whole vexed question. If the Philippines are not to be permanently a part of American territory, why go to work at this time to levy a special tariff on Philippine goods? The final status of the islands is really the previous question. To that the minority report addresses itself, and it does so in a series of propositions so weighty and strategic that we reprint them entire:

"(1.) That the United States relinquish all claim to sovereignty over the Philippines, 'subject to the provisions hereinafter set forth.'

"(2.) That from and after the passage of this act the Philippine Islands shall be foreign territory, and all goods entering the United States therefrom shall be subject to the same duties, customs, and imposts as are now or may be hereafter prescribed by law for goods entered from other foreign countries; provided, that during the temporary occupation of the islands all trade between them and the United States shall be free.

"(3.) That the United States shall continue to occupy the archipelago until the Filipinos have formed for themselves a stable government, and until sufficient guarantees have been obtained for the performance of our treaty obligations with Spain, and for the safety of those inhabitants who have adhered to the United States.

"(4.) That as soon as these results have been accomplished, it is declared to be the purpose of the United States to withdraw from the Philippines, and leave the government, control, and sovereignty thereof to the inhabitants, retaining only such military, naval, and coaling stations as may be designated by the Government of the United States."

It will be admitted by any open mind that the ordinary objections urged against withdrawal from the Philippines do not lie against this plan. There is nothing doctrinaire about it. We are to leave the islands because it is for the best interest of all concerned that we should. It is simply the every-day statesmanship of true self-interest that is recommended. Nor is there to be anything hurried or undignified in the process. All our international obligations are to be duly discharged. Our commercial interests are to be properly safeguarded. Without fluster or hysteria, the nation is calmly to announce to the Filipinos and the world the ultimate policy respecting the islands which justice and expediency alike impel it to embrace. This is both good sense and good tactics. The Republican Senators will find this Democratic line of battle exceedingly formidable. It will serve not only for the immediate debate, but for a concentration of sentiment and of forces throughout the country. Both for its own excellence and for the evidence it gives that the breath of life is once more in the Democratic Opposition, we can but welcome it.

By a striking coincidence, this minority report was published on almost the same day that the views of a well-known European publicist on the same subject reached this country. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 1, Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu has an article on "The United States as a Colonial Power." It is not an ill-natured or unsympathetic review of the way in which we got into our present predicament. M. Beaulieu sees a certain moral inconsistency between the professions with which we went to war, and the spoils with which we emerged; he even says that the Platt Amendment, forced upon the Cubans, was a "masterpiece of perfidy"; yet he assumes no Pharisaic air in consequence, for, "alas!" he writes, "the United States is not the only nation which has thus stultified itself, and the countries which are entitled to cast a stone at it are rare indeed." This writer, in fact, goes a good way with our Imperialists. He speaks of our expansion and the war with Spain as "inevitable," and justifies much that we have done in the past three years. To his mind, most of it goes hand in hand with our commercial enlargement.

Yet this keen and friendly critic puts his finger on the most glaring mistake which we made—the annexation of the Philippines. This, in the opinion of M. Beaulieu, is the stone of stumbling of American expansion. For in the Philippines we have, what we have in no other of our acquisitions, a race unassimilable and indomitable, a vast drain on our national resources with no return, and a constant threat of embroilment, with a manifest weakness in case of war. And the inference which this intelligent foreign observer draws is almost precisely the same as the plan put forward in the minority report of the Senate committee. Two or three ports in the Philippines, he maintains, would meet the full commercial needs of this country in the China seas. From the rest, withdrawal is the true policy; and M. Beaulieu is certain that, if President Roosevelt is not led to adopt it, it will be forced, sooner or later, upon his successors, "for the greatest good of the United States."

FOR A PHILIPPINE INQUIRY.

Senator Hoar's resolution calling for a select committee to inquire into the war in the Philippines is strictly in line with precedent. Whenever there has been some great scandal, or some important question wrapped in fog and mystery, the practice of Congress has been to name a special committee to investigate and report. Dozens of cases could be cited. Senator Lodge, it is true, plaintively protested that it would be a grave "reflection" upon the regular Philippine Committee, of which he is chairman, to go outside of it for investigators, and the resolution was accordingly referred to that committee. But everybody knows that a standing committee seems often particularly designed to smother, instead of expedite, investigation. Its pigeon-holes are enormous. Its waste-basket is gigantic. Long accustomed, and rightly accustomed, to prevent futile questions from passing out of its hands to vex Congress, its fixed habit is that of suppression and concealment. What we want in the Philippine business is free inquiry and full publication; and Senator Hoar is correct in maintaining that it is only through a special committee that we shall get them.

Such an open and fearless probing into the facts is needed, for one thing, to quicken the conscience of the country. We have grown callous to a state of things which, four years ago, would have filled the land with indignation. Suppose a public man had ventured, early in 1898, to propose subjugating the Filipinos with an army of 50,000 men, what would have been his fate? Universal public execration. But what would have seemed in advance a horrible thing, ought not to appear a natural and proper course simply because we are now pursuing it. The only reason it does so appear to many worthy people is that their sensations have grown dull on this subject. Their consciousness does not respond any longer to the words which once would have stirred its depths. The thing has become an "old story." People say they are "tired" of hearing about the Philippines. So we say a fresh inquiry is highly desirable to rouse Americans from the lethargy of jaded senses into which they are tempted to fall, as respects this matter of vital concern to the nation. We need to have the old facts set forth with new vividness; the truth dragged out from behind the conflicting official reports where it is hidden; and the national mind once more challenged

by the sharp questions, "What are we doing in the Philippines? How long are we going to stay there? What is the best way to withdraw, and save our honor and our principles?"

The inquiry should surely cover, and cover fully, the points which Senator Hoar mentioned in his speech of honest indignation on January 14. He says that he has seen with his own eyes a document, signed by Gen. Anderson, who was in command of our troops in the Philippines before Gen. Merritt arrived, in which that officer explicitly states that he promised the Filipinos their independence. This has been hinted at before, but never so explicitly asserted. Mr. Hoar affirms that Gen. Anderson admits "twice over his signature" that such a promise was made. Now this is a new and most material fact. The country is entitled to know all about it. Let no one try to slip out of it by saying that Gen. Anderson's pledge of independence was unauthorized, and therefore not binding. This is not a dispute about technicalities. The question is one of national attitude and national good faith. Besides, it has been bellowed from a thousand stumps that no such promise was ever made by any officer of the United States. Senator Hoar now declares that he has seen written proof (presumably in the War Department) that it was made. Of course, our Government was not bound by the unauthorized act of Gen. Anderson, but it was bound not to bury the truth in its archives. If a special committee is necessary to bring it out, by all means let us have it.

This relates to past events nearly touching our national honor, but there are things going on to-day in the Philippines which, as Senator Hoar says, are "a foul blot on the flag which we all love." He speaks of conversations which he has had with "brave soldiers and officers of high rank," who have told him of atrocities committed in the Philippines in the name of the United States. On those things, too, the light should be turned. These military witnesses should be allowed to declare from the housetops what they now dare only to whisper in the ears of Senators. They should be called before a committee in open session, and, under guarantee of complete immunity for any testimony they may give, should be asked to tell the whole country the whole truth. At present they are under the kind of terrorism which necessarily rests upon men in the military service. With this goes the inevitable official optimism which insists upon everything in the Philippines being for the best possible under the best of possible governments. Secretary Root, for example, denies that there is any friction between the civil and military governments; yet every one who has a correspondent in the archipelago, every one who talks frankly with returned agents or officers, every one who perceives the conflict between Gen. Chaffee's reports and Gov. Taft's, knows that there is friction, sometimes amounting to bitter animosity. Into this also there should be investigation, searching and unconcealed.

We must not pooh-pooh all this aside as something which does not concern us. Our national character is implicated. We cannot let ourselves be branded as a set of hypocrites. Our press and public have been crying out against the barbarities of the war in South Africa; how do we like to have Englishmen defend their cruelties by citing our own? There is an article in the last *Fortnightly* with this suggestive and, to us, humiliating title: "The Struggle in the Philippines: A Parallel to the South African War." If there is such a parallel, we ought to know it. The details should be set forth in the light of day. Such military successes and surrenders in the Philippines as are daily reported do not go to the core of the matter. Of course, we can beat down the scattered bands of insurgents when we catch them, but are there barbarities in our mode of warfare; is the cruellest torture used even by our police; is the whole Filipino people, as Gen. Chaffee asserts, filled with a settled hostility against its American rulers, and sleeplessly plotting to undo their work? These are the vital questions, and a speedy, clear, and conclusive answer to them should be given. In bringing up the whole subject Senator Hoar has done his duty as a patriot. Who of us can afford to be less strenuous than he in demanding that the truth, and the whole truth, be made known?

CONSOLIDATING THE ARMY SUPPLY DEPARTMENTS.

The announcement that Secretary Root is about to recommend to Congress the consolidation of the army supply departments, foreshadows a most radical and desirable military reform. It is the result of the Secretary's conviction, as stated in his annual report, that "the division of the supply departments into separate bodies, acting independently of each other, and each responsible only to a civilian Secretary of War, is a bad arrangement, resulting often in confusion, in conflict, in unnecessary expenditure of money, in increase of paper work, and making it difficult to fix responsibility."

With characteristic open-mindedness and thoroughness, Secretary Root thus put his finger upon one of the greatest evils in the army organization, the weakness which was probably responsible for more suffering, extravagance, and inefficiency during the war with Spain than any other. No other Secretary of War has ever come out so boldly against the staff departments, which, being firmly intrenched in Washington, have always wielded more political influence than all the rest of the army. Before Secretary Root's time, every effort to modernize this part of the service failed ignominiously, so that to the staff officers' distorted vision the line seemed finally to exist for the staff, instead of the staff's existing to fill the wants of the line. Within a very short time after taking office, Mr. Root realized the disproportion in the relations of the two parts of the army, and the evils which resulted. His first reform, the abolition of permanent appointments to the staff departments, was put on the statute-book February 2, 1901, when the Army Reorganization Bill was passed, and, from this time on, only temporary appointments are to be made. Each officer now transferred will serve four years in some department, and then be sent back to serve a stated term with his regiment before again being detailed to staff duty. Under the old system the officers appointed to the staff were chosen because of their political influence, and, once transferred, they lost all touch with the men in the field and their needs. Thus the Ordnance Corps, which sent the cavalry into the Santiago campaign with inferior pistols, has not yet, after four years, decided upon a modern weapon. As its officers never have to use the pistols, they do not see any reason for hurrying their deliberations. That the state of affairs thus illustrated will pass away as soon as the transfer system, now only begun, becomes the rule in all departments, is the belief not only of Mr. Root, but of all the progressive officers in the service.

The Secretary has not, however, been content with this memorable reform. He has seen, as have the younger officers for ten or fifteen years past, that the organization of the supply departments is wholly antiquated, and fully seventy-five years behind the times. In their functions, the Quartermaster's and Commissary Departments may be properly compared with a modern business enterprise. But what commercial organization could have avoided bankruptcy had it divided the different parts of its business among sets of clerks, each with a separate head, each set and each head extremely jealous of the other, and each refusing to communicate with the other except through lengthy and formal documents? Yet this is a fair statement of the relations of the staff departments with each other, which led to such shocking and frequently disgraceful results in 1898. To make matters worse, the division of duties has been absurd to a degree. To give the most striking instance, the Quartermaster's Department has had to supply the tables and chairs of the men's mess-rooms, the Ordnance Department the knives, forks, and spoons, the Subsistence Department the food, while the cooks have received their wages from the Pay Department. But while the Sub-

sistence officers have been permitted to buy food for the men, they have never been intrusted with the duty of purchasing food for the animals. It constantly happens that a quartermaster at a post may be disbursing thousands of dollars monthly for new buildings or roads, repairs, forage, or what not, and yet he is never allowed to pay the troops. For this purpose an officer of an entirely different department must travel perhaps a thousand miles. In the navy of the United States one officer, the paymaster of a ship, has long performed all the functions which are now divided among three or four army departments.

It is plain that simplicity, efficiency, economy, and common sense have long demanded the change which Secretary Root urges. As disclosed thus far, his plan is to have one large supply department, in place of the Quartermaster's, the Subsistence, and the Pay Corps. This is to have a head with the rank of major-general, and will comprise four divisions, dealing with subsistence, finance, transportation, and construction, each in charge of a brigadier-general. Whether this is the most practical and desirable division of the duties of the new department, time alone will show, but that it is along the right lines is undeniable. There will in some quarters be criticism of the number of generals proposed. On the other hand, it will be said that more than one high position must be held out as inducements to men to qualify for this line of service. Secretary Root believes that many officers must be attracted to this kind of work, in order that there may be many qualified to undertake the staff duties with volunteer armies in the event of war. He would make impossible hereafter that resort to "sons of fathers" and politicians which marked the McKinley régime in 1898, with the excuse that there were no others better qualified.

In any event Secretary Root's plan assures prompt coöperation between the divisions which should work with full knowledge of each other's plans and purposes. Under it there should be an end to the tiresome delays in securing supplies, and the mistakes so frequently made in 1898 of shipping food to one point and other supplies to an entirely different place. Congress should not fail to act upon Secretary Root's measure at an early date, if for no other reason than that it will inevitably save large sums for the Government. Like Secretary Root's other reforms, this one, if introduced, will make his administration of the War Department memorable in army history.

THE CASE OF MR. SCHWAB.

The case of Mr. Schwab of the United States Steel Company is in many respects a peculiar one. It seems certain that, during his vacation in Southern France, he visited Monte Carlo, played the tables recklessly, was for a moment the hero of the gamblers and pleasure-seekers of that notorious resort—in short, conducted himself like a weak man in the first wantonness of newly acquired power to spend. Despite a qualified and unsatisfactory denial of "sensational" gambling, one must believe that the great ironmaster behaved rather worse than the average wealthy man of little principle would have done.

It is precisely because Mr. Schwab is not the average wealthy man that his alleged actions have called forth bitter and well-deserved rebukes from many quarters. Mr. Schwab's wealth has not been lightly won and precariously amassed as the result of speculative operations, but it constitutes the just reward of rare special ability in a difficult manufacturing enterprise. His experience has been of the kind that usually sobers a man and hardens his moral fibre, and it is painful to feel that one who represents a well-earned success, who controls the lot of hundreds of thousands of laborers, and who conserves the interests of an army of investors, should be capable of playing the part of a gilded youth in the first riotous enjoyment of his patrimony, or that of a stock-jobber of the Jim Fisk or the Barney Barnato type. This is not the sort of man to be in a position of great trust and of vast financial responsibility.

To account for the case of Mr. Schwab is not difficult. It falls under the head of the demoralizing effect of money earned more rapidly than its wise spending has been learned. Here the social satirist might be tempted to write a bitter chapter on the subject of Deferred Wild Oats, and a very sordid chapter it would be—of dissipation after dissipation has lost the glamour of hot blood and high spirits, and of debauchery which borrows no grace of Epicurean theory. Where many a man who has become suddenly rich has fallen into this slough, one would willingly believe that Mr. Schwab has merely exhibited the recklessness which makes such a fall possible. In either case his example is deplorable.

Our millionaires, and particularly the self-made men among them, embody the ideal of the average American young man. Mr. Schwab's splendid ability is to a host of American boys and young men a shining object of emulation. In like manner his ability to fling down on the roulette table single stakes which exceed the year's wages of the average ambitious youth, is a challenge to the imagination of many a struggling young man, and a direct encouragement of many a boy whose first small savings are already drifting into the policy-shop or the pool-room. Such an example is doubly unpleasing from a man who had begun to wield large influence as a leader of public opinion—advising parents against the time-wasting and spendthrift influences of college education, and speaking sober economic truth to the leaders of organized labor. Surely he presents an unedifying example of the education which he advocates in preference to that of the college, and belies that sturdy training as a laborer of which he is justly proud. In short, the wealth which is earned imposes a kind of special obligation, like that of gentle birth. The self-made man has escaped the enervating influences of a too easy course, and has acquired an intimate knowledge of men and of affairs which should create in him a finer and truer sense of social obligation than is often felt by the man who is born wealthy, and therefore should make his use of wealth doubly scrupulous.

Far more surprising than Mr. Schwab's failure to grasp this point of personal honor, but hardly less regrettable, is the fact that he vainly imagined that the head of a great corporation could permit himself the irregularities which are condoned in obscurer men. Many who palliate the actual offence will think this an error in judgment which disqualifies him from holding his high position. For better or for worse, the great leaders of finance are the princes of to-day—our *noblesse*. Their every movement is reported, their pleasure trips are royal progresses. This, we believe, is unfortunate, alike for the millionaires and for the public—it inculcates a false sense of values; but this is the case before us. And for the "iron king" or the "copper king" there is no convenient incognito, such as the royalty of blood may affect—no transparent disguise which all may penetrate but will respect. Towards the head of a billion-dollar company the eyes of a multitude are directed. The character and the judgment of its President are the chief guarantee that the smallest investor is secured in his interests. We no longer tolerate in our public officials moral delinquencies which become openly scandalous, and such offences in the presidents of banks and great stock companies seriously impair the credit of their respective institutions. Against this wholly just sentiment Mr. Schwab has offended grievously. Many who waive the broader moral issue will feel that in the gross forgetfulness of his great responsibility, and in the readiness to accept for the President of the United States Steel Company those facile moral standards which might serve for the mere man of wealth, lies the sum of his offending. We regret profoundly that so typical an example of great wealth and high position fairly earned should symbolize also the profligate misuse of wealth—that a character which we have observed in many admirable aspects should so signally fail in the point of honor which great responsibility imposes.

THE NAPLES TAMMANY OVERTHROW.

ROME, December, 1901.

When the royal decree of November 8, 1900, instituting a commission of inquiry into all the acts of the municipal administrations of the city of Naples appeared, we felt a certain incredulity as to the result, remembering the innumerable *inchieste* that have been ordained and completed during the forty years that have elapsed since Garibaldi entered, inaugurating the Unity of Italy under the house of Savoy, and the Bourbons fled, leaving him victor all along the line. Something has resulted from the numerous public and private "inquiries" made in the island of Sicily; but in Naples, from the hour when Garibaldi quitted the city for Caprera, and the Moderates, taking possession, inaugurated their partisan reign, to their downfall in 1876 and the instalment of their successors, the Left, alias Progressists, Liberals, Reformers—again, to the overthrow of these, and the dictatorship of Depretis-Crispi, of Crispi alone—again, through the successive reigns of Rudini-Nicotera, of the "law by decree" ministry with the horrors of 1898—up to last September things had gone from bad to worse, and King Camorra, from a pretender to an uncrowned sovereign, had continued his triumphal career until, at the death of Humbert, he was the uncontested, uncontestable, inviolable monarch of Naples and the provinces.

Your readers are not unacquainted with the performances, character, and attributes of King Camorra. They have read Villari's descriptions, which have grown more and more vivid and emphatic, from his first Southern Letters to his pictures of the misery and ignorance of the plebs, the corruption, oppression, and general infamy of the ruling and wealthy classes, culminating in the photographs of the "disembowelment" of Naples, the robbery of the 100 millions destined for the housing of the poor—seized by the municipal authorities and their clients for themselves with connivance of the provincial authorities and sanction of the successive governments at Rome; or, if not direct sanction, non-interference, in order to retain the votes of the electors who seconded their choice of candidates. Nor has your present correspondent failed to expose the situation, which could not be exaggerated, either in itself or in its fatal consequences to the entire life of Italy, even as cancer taints the whole system, poisoning its very heart's blood. Cavour, who cannot be justified for the means which he employed to oust the entire party of action which had freed Naples from the Bourbon—in order to install the stanch supporters of his policy, the champions of the House of Savoy—was fully aware of the crucial problem involved in the annexation of the southern provinces, especially of the Neapolitan, as affecting the moral unity of the new kingdom. In the years that elapsed between 1793 and 1860—if we except a brief moment at the commencement of the reign of Ferdinand—the one aim of the Bourbons was to exterminate all the intelligent, patriotic citizens by death on the scaffold. Between the 31st of October and the 11th of November, 1793, one hundred and twenty physicians, professors of the university, millitary and naval officers, and fifteen priests, were hung in the market-place; thousands were imprisoned and banished, their property sequestrated, their families reduced to misery. The executions and murders that took place during the reign of terror, 1799-1800, can never be enumerated, as all the documents of the famous Giunta were burnt by order of the King, on his restoration. The same system was continued in 1821, in 1830, and again in 1849. At the same time, every effort was made to maintain the plebs in a state of ignorance, superstition, and corruption.

Garibaldi and his Secretary-General, Dr. Agostino Bertani, at once recognized the dangerous condition of the masses steeped in misery, vice, and corruption. They set to work to reorganize the police, which the Bourbons had used solely in order to persecute the patriots and to enlist in their service the camorrists and malefactors. Garibaldi abolished the secret-service fund, established twelve infant schools in the twelve quarters of the city; a military college for the sons of the poor; allotted to the communes the product of the *octroi;* commenced the abolition of lotteries, and introduced the system of saving banks; decreed the sequestration of ecclesiastical property. To the short term of Garibaldian administration also belongs the first attempt at sanitation and the disembowelment of Naples. Cavour, who had made a special study of Naples as early as 1847, and then wrote that "no province of the peninsula had suffered equally, during centuries of domination by foreigners, such excessive feudal oppression, undergone such bloody revolutions, or such sanguinary oppression," at once recognized the importance of thorough reorganization of the entire system of government, administrative, educative, moral, and material. In a memorable treatise on Italian railroads, he dwelt upon the necessity of extending the Neapolitan lines to the toe and heel of the Southern provinces, and did his utmost to encourage the influx of Italian and foreign capital, regarding the population, with all its ignorance and corruption, as frugal and naturally intelligent, well suited to form an active industrial community. He sent one of his ablest helpers, Vittorio Sacchi, to study the finances of the city and provinces. As secretary to the first Lieutenant-General, the Prince of Carignano, he sent Costantino Nigra, with instructions to found and encourage various industries. "If," he wrote, "we do not place the various provinces of Italy, and the southern ones especially, in a position to increase their production, we shall encounter a sad future. Taxes must be increased, but first we must increase the contributive capacity of the population by stimulating production and the formation of wealth." So complicated did the state of Naples appear to Cavour that he did not hesitate to admit the possible necessity of special administrative measures to be voted by Parliament, even as Mazzini also counselled special administration for the islands. Up to the last moment of his life the Neapolitan problem occupied Cavour's thoughts. "I am grieved by the situation of Naples," he wrote, "but neither surprised nor discouraged. People cannot be regenerated in a week, nor can political difficulties be overcome by gymnastics. The regeneration of Naples depends chiefly on the strength and the honesty of the Government. We must prepare to resist all pressure, all political influence, at the cost of exposing the Ministry to extreme unpopularity." But June, 1861, deprived Italy of the great statesman, and his successors managed in a very short space of time to efface every trace of Garibaldi's efforts and of Cavour's good intentions.

Your experience of Tammany Hall proceedings can give but a faint idea of the state of Naples at the death of King Humbert; and that his son and successor was fully aware of the depths of degradation to which his native city was reduced, is a fact well known among his intimates, although he never, during his father's life, interfered, directly or indirectly, with political or administrative affairs. His cordial welcome to Zanardelli (who, throughout his entire career, has not a blot on his moral character, and who, during his brief months of power under Kings Vittorio and Humbert, had struck the note of morality in a key quite too high for the ears of most of his colleagues) was not unconnected with his desire to see a moral régime introduced and supported in the South. The deepest depths of corruption had meanwhile been reached in every department of municipal and, as we shall soon see, provincial administration, while the wholesale plundering of the charitable institutions had reached a point which, if surpassed, would leave nothing more even for the plunderers. *La Propaganda*, a newspaper conducted chiefly by young Socialists, attacked on front, rear, and flank the communal administration personified in the Syndic Summonte, strongly supported by the now ex-Deputy Casale. Many such attacks had been made by honest newspapers, Moderate, Liberal, and Clerical, but the results had been zero, the Government either interfering or ignoring the questions, so that the authors of the attacks have generally undergone heavy sentences for libel, defamation, calumny. But Casale, unable to keep silence in the face of the direct accusations made against him, brought an action for libel against the director of the *Propaganda*. He believed that he should gain a verdict by placing the action on political grounds, by attacking the Socialists as such; but neither public opinion nor his judges fell into the trap. All understood that the honor of Naples was at stake; and as the pillagers and plunderers had gradually restricted the number of the sharers of the spoils, many who had been excluded came forward with their testimony. The witnesses summoned by Casale to attest his honesty and uprightness declined the office. Called upon to explain his private resources, to say how he managed to live like a prince on a pauper's income, he tried to withdraw the action; but the Public Minister, seeing that even the Syndic Summonte, when summoned, failed to appear, declared that no other witnesses for the defence need be summoned, and, instead of drawing up a case for the plaintiff Casale, denounced him severely, and expressed his surprise that a public officer (Comm. F. S. Gargiulo, substitute of the Procurator-General at the Court of Cassation in Naples) should have come forward to maintain the honesty of Casale.

The sentence of the tribunal was most severe. It was found that "the facts asseverated by the *Propaganda* were fully proved." The conclusion of the sentence is tremendous:

"To all these specified facts of such ex-

ceptional gravity that the plaintiff resorted to a prudent retreat, is joined the public voice, which continues terrible and incessant, and has reached high functionaries who, present at the trial, were unable to refute it. This element cannot be ignored, as it but sums the affirmations which have long resounded throughout the country concerning the extraordinary influence exercised by Casale under cover of his political principles. The immorality thence emanating is such as to nauseate every honest conscience, and to affirm this in a verdict is the commencement of regeneration."

In consequence Casale was compelled to resign his seat in Parliament and in the provincial council. The municipal council, directly aimed at by the verdict, had, after a vain struggle, to resign. Then a proposal made in December, 1899, by eleven members of Parliament, but rejected, was revived, and, despite the protests of the Neapolitan press, which with three exceptions was in the pay of the spoilsmen, carried the day; the then president of the Council of Ministers, Senator Saracco, proposing a royal commission of inquiry, with plenipotentiary powers, and appointing a Royal Commissioner to administer the commune of Naples.

The report of the Commission, which occupies two folio volumes of 900 pages each, touches but slightly on the years preceding 1876, so that the Moderate party does not really come in for its just share of blame for corruption, malversation, and alliance with the Camorra; but enough is proved to show that to it belongs the beginning of the hideous story. It dwells briefly on the administrations between 1876 and 1896, giving strict account of the four years that elapsed between 1896 and 1900. In 1896 arose the administration which, in the words of the Commissioners, "was, headed by Summonte and his followers, the commencement of the shameful corruption, the disastrous evils, which culminated in the catastrophe of 1900." Some of the councillors, after denouncing the general state of corruption in all grades of the administration, succeeded in getting a commission of inquiry. Appalling revelations were made, but the whole affair was quashed by Casale and Summonte. The same happened with the inquiry into the conduct and condition of the municipal guards. The jobbery in the new contract for the water-works of the Serino, for electric illumination for the tramways, takes away one's breath by its colossal scale, its flagrant impudence. The municipal technical council protested in vain; the corrupt domination of Deputy Casale overpowered all attempts of brave and honest citizens. The Secretary-General of the municipality, Cammarota, resigned his post, being unable "to fulfil his duties and to secure the public administration of the city." Despite the constant cooking of the budgets, enormous deficits continued to increase. The remuneration of the servants of the municipality was increased from three to nine thousand lire per month. New posts were created, and, of course, all the employed were converted into electoral agents and actors. The corruption in the educational departments passes description. Masters and mistresses, many without certificates, were appointed, after paying a fixed tax. Parents of children were induced to vote on the promise of special advantages to their children. One assessor of public instruction writes: "The greater number of schoolmasters belong to the Association of Teachers; they are the worst of their class, and are controlled by Marzano, the sectional director, who is allowed a free hand by the administration, and uses it to ruin the schools. The directors and directresses coerce the masters and mistresses, who in their turn work upon the parents on the *do ut des* principle." This association secured 1,500 votes, and, united to that of Casale Aliberti, controlled 6,000 votes. Payments, gifts, etc., on the eve of the elections, surpassed half a million.

A small minority protested in vain; the Summonte administration had bought up, with three exceptions, the entire Neapolitan press. The director of the *Corriere di Napoli* had headed his leader on the nomination of Summonte for Syndic with the words "La Vergogna è Consumata," but, appointed inspector of the tramways, suddenly discovered the perfection of the new Summonte administration. The editors Rosolino and Rota were also employed by the municipality, and their reports duly corrected by the Syndic. But this was not all, as De Martino, who was the first to reveal in Parliament the iniquities of the Summonte administration, testifies. The responsibility of the trinity Summonte, Casale, Scarfoglio, cannot be separated. No favor could be obtained from the Syndic without the intervention of Scarfoglio, editor of the *Matin*, or his substitute, Vincenzio Candia. These creatures sold their patronage for hard cash—12,000 lire for the concession of the baths, 30,000 for the prevention of a company for electric illumination, 18,000 for a tramway company, while in the "scandalous loan contract" 500,000 was divided between Scarfoglio, Summonte, Casale, and one Delieto. Not only Scarfoglio, the cleverest journalist in Naples, but his wife, the great novelist, Matilda Serao, is exposed with chapter and text as a saleswoman of places and posts. The details are all too nauseous to continue.

The sensation created throughout the country may be imagined, but people were prepared to hear the worst. "Could any sound thing come out of Naples?" Zanardelli thought there could, and the King seems to have been of this opinion. So the Prime Minister refused to prolong the sojourn of the Royal Commissioner at the head of the administration, and the general elections were announced. The Government abstained from the faintest pressure. The electors were left for the first time severely alone. The Camorra united their forces, not putting forward as candidates either Casale or Summonte, but hoping to secure the election of the rank and file of their followers. Not one succeeded. All political questions were tabooed; the candidates supported were "honest men," or at least such as had not a stain on their reputation. Many of them had been among the first and the most constant in exposing the infamy of the last administration when at the zenith of its power. About an equal number of Catholics and Moderates have been elected, and, for the minority, all the Socialist candidates put forward. The *Pungolo Parlamentare* and the *Roma*, the two honest newspapers never tainted by, and always declared opponents and denouncers of, the Camorra, are jubilant. They from the first appealed to Zanardelli and to Giolitti to allow the elections to take place at once in order to prove to the world that not Naples was corrupt, but merely a certain number of malefactors whom circumstances and sins of omission and commission on the part of the central Government had rendered omnipotent. The inquiry had proved the culpability of these usurpers; only the electors of Naples could pass sentence on them by rejecting them with contumely and unanimously. The sentence has been passed and can never be revoked. It now remains for the judicial authorities to perform their part.

Naturally, the condemned are vociferous in proclaiming their innocence. Scarfoglio dedicates twenty-five columns to prove that only envy of his genius and success as a journalist led to the accusations, and promises defiantly to triumph over all his calumniators. Matilda Serao fills the papers of Berlin, Vienna, and, where she can secure admittance, of Paris with her lamentations, and insults the entire Italian race and nation, including the dead King and his young successor. Summonte has written a pamphlet to prove the virtue and beneficent results of his administration. But no one heeds any one of the protesters. All know that the accusations are true and "proven." The grand question now is how to repair the evil accomplished, and to prevent the upas tree cut down to its roots from putting forth fresh shoots from the undersoil. A very careful perusal of the two volumes impresses one with the immense difficulties of the situation. Local taxation is enormous and cannot be increased to supply the two millions annual deficit or the ten millions of accumulated deficit. But of the taxes voted about 30 per cent. are unpaid, and the non-payment has been connived at, nay condoned, by the municipality. Most of the remedial measures proposed by the Commissioners have been accepted by the Government. Zanardelli, in his grand speech of December 13, which was applauded by all parties and sections of the House, has pledged the Government and the nation to use every effort for the redemption of the southern provinces at any cost or sacrifice—not by violent, spasmodic measures, but by a gradual system of necessary public works, such as the aqueduct of the Puglie. Meanwhile, the inquiry into the administration of the charitable institutions and of the provincial administration is to be carried out without delay. At the same time the inquiry into the municipal administration of Palermo has just terminated and the municipal council dissolved.

Italy on the whole is looking up. Her finances have never been in such a flourishing condition as at the present moment; her commerce and industries are on the increase; gold is nearly at par. It was a fitting moment for this moral inquiry to be set on foot at the moment of her ascertained material progress. I find many "competent" persons, who, five years ago, despaired, now really hopeful, yet anxiously watching events, and awaiting the results of certain trials of notorious criminals belonging to the Mafia, who have hitherto escaped conviction. We confess ourselves to a certain amount of hopefulness, but it is accompanied by a much larger portion of fear and trembling. J. W. M.

THE PROSPERITY OF BRITISH INDIA.

DUBLIN, December 14, 1901.

I have before me one of the most startling works that have appeared of late years upon British rule in India.* It is by William Digby, a competent authority. He resided in India for many years, was decorated by Government for his services, and is the author of several works upon Indian subjects. Adopting the words of the late Secretary of State for India, he says: "The question I wish to consider is, whether that Government, with all its machinery, as now existing in India, has, or has not, promoted the general prosperity of the people of India, and whether India is better or worse off by being a province of the British crown; that is the test." He answers this question upon the whole in the negative. "Only as [my] statements are adequately supported by the evidence—all, be it never overlooked, obtained from Government sources; in economic matters my sole reliance is on the official evidence—do I ask for their acceptance."

We have here a storehouse of facts and figures illustrated by diagrams. The author's statements would perhaps carry more weight if less emotionally put forward—if there were less poetry and fewer lines of capitals and exclamation marks; if the facsimile writing with which the book opens were in ordinary print, and if there were less continual thrusting upon the reader of the moral drawn by the author from the facts stated. In estimating the weight to be attached to his general conclusions it may be well to bear in mind that *India*, the official organ in England of the Indian National Congress, refrains from actually endorsing Mr. Digby's inferences. In an appreciative review, it says: "Its value may be open to discussion. But at least it cannot be said that those who insist on the prosperity—the increasing prosperity—of India, have no case to answer."

Mr. Digby acknowledges benefits conferred upon India by intercourse with the West and by British rule. We are given a list of thirty objectionable or murderous customs, in full force one hundred and fifty years ago, now obsolete, but—

"certain evils have been developed as the result of our rule which kill more people in a week than Suttee was responsible for in fifty years. However, be that as it may, I am anxious to put in the forefront the beneficent results of British rule. The more they are recorded, the better for the argument of this book. For the incidents related show that the power to insure beneficence exists as well as the desire to do well by India; and while these are in existence, awaiting appropriate circumstances for manifestation, there is hope for India's recovery."

The picture drawn of the present condition of the country is dark enough. Within the ten years 1891-1900, 19,000,000 of our fellow-subjects in India have died of famine, nearly four times as many as the war-deaths of the civilized world, 1793-1900. Mr. Digby calculates the average annual income of the population in British India at 22s. 6d. (against 40s., the estimate of Lord Curzon); or, excluding 1,100,000 of the wealthy classes, only 12s per annum, as the income of 230,000,000 of the people. He believes that, in the absence of special seasons of famine, there are 70,000,000 hungry people in the country; but that famine has now become chronic. In 1890, among an Indian agricultural population of 140,000,000, from whom reliable returns could be obtained, there were but 90,000,000 animals—cows, bulls, buffaloes, horses, donkeys, sheep, and goats (against, it may be said, 9,700,000 among a population of 4,750,000 in Ireland at the same date). In India twenty-three years is the average of life; in Great Britain, forty. An average of twenty pounds each of salt is what such a population of vegetarians would naturally require; all they can afford is thirteen pounds, including what is used in manufactures. Salt has within a century quintupled in price. Mr. Digby is of opinion that, while education and enlightenment are spreading among the middle and upper classes, the masses of the people are growing poorer year by year. In the first quarter of the century just ended there were five famines and 1,000,000 deaths from famine; in the second quarter, two famines and 500,000 deaths; in the third, six famines and 5,000,000 deaths; in the fourth, eighteen famines and 26,000,000 deaths. A non-official estimate of Indian average income in 1850 put it at 2d. a day; an official estimate in 1882, 1½d.; Mr. Digby estimates it at present as ¾d. He calculates the taxation of India as 3s. 3d. per head (one-seventh of income), or, outside 1,100,000 of the richer classes, 2s. 6d. per head (one-fifth of income), while in the United Kingdom the taxation is about £2 13s. 8d. (one-fifteenth of income). Apart from these proportions, it is manifestly easier to pay the latter sum on an income of £40, than the former on an income of 12s. 6d. India has, upon the whole, grown poorer since its first occupation (*India* pertinently remarks that the absence of reliable records and statistics in the earlier periods makes comparison with the present difficult). Our author compares what Lord Clive said of Murshidabad, the old capital of Bengal, when he entered it in 1757, with what could be said of any Indian city now: "This city is as extensive, populous, and rich as the city of London, with this difference—that there are individuals in the first possessing infinitely greater property than in the last city."

Mr. Digby believes the main cause of India's deepening poverty to be the manner in which her wealth and resources have been and are drained off and spent in England. Whatever the misdoings and exactions of her previous conquerors, the money levied by them was spent in the country. He believes the wonderful start made by England at the end of the eighteenth century was largely upon the capital drawn from India—that between the battle of Plassy, 1757, and Waterloo, 1815, £1,000,000,000 was transferred from Indian hoards to English banks. That this drain continues he has no doubt. He more than once quotes one of Lord Salisbury's cynical admissions, that "India must be bled." The present annual drain to England, consequent upon India's conquest and dependent position, he calculates at some £22,000,000. (Mr. Naoroji, late M. P. for Finsbury, in his 'Poverty and Un-British Rule in India,' puts it at a higher figure.) Such estimates imply consideration of some of the most delicate and intricate problems in economics and finance, not easy for the ordinary reader to grasp or follow.

Taking the returns for 1898-99, there was paid in India for Government salaries, with proportionate retiring allowances. £10,488,000; £5,333,000 went to 8,000 Europeans, an average of £607 each; £4,666,000 went to 130,000 Indians, an average of £36 each; £487,000 went to 6,000 mixed race, an average of £81 each. Mr. Digby and others believe that most of the work of the country could be effectively done by Indians themselves, with large saving to the public. The lowering of the mental calibre and spirits of the people by present methods of rule he believes to be one cause of the depression and want of energy and initiative in the country generally. Respect for Indian character and the weight attached to Indian opinion diminish in proportion as we recede from the days when Indians, in command of completely equipped armies, faced us in battle, when they ruled as emperors, when they walled great cities and erected forts, temples, palaces, and mausoleums which will be the wonder of all time; when every necessary and luxury and ornament of life was produced by Indians in India itself. In proportion as transit between England and India has become easier, the English in India have come to consider India as less of a home, more as a place of exile; native society has been less necessary to them, native opinion of less account; while Indians are appointed in the minority on divisional councils.

"Not one Indian, during a whole century, has occupied a seat in the Supreme, or Presidency, or Provincial Executive Councils, nor in the Secretary of States Council in England. . . . Given fair play, Indian administrators would, in their own way, and so far as circumstances permitted, have become the equals of Cavour, of Gortchakoff, of Gladstone, of Disraeli. . . . Their natural abilities being what they are, where do they show in the nineteenth century?"

"'As a hindrance to their proper recognition as men of character and often of noble life," Mr. Digby considers, "the Christian missionary societies of England interested in India have done the Indian people almost irremediable mischief." Missionary societies, in their widespread and continuous propaganda at home, urge their claims for support largely upon depreciation, often shamefully untrue depreciation, of Indian character. They thereby also curry favor with the official classes in India, falling in with their desire to hold Government positions as far as possible in European hands.

We must all hope that Mr. Digby's description of the condition of affairs in India is unduly discouraging. It differs widely from that of Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., in 1894, towards the close of a long official career as Finance Minister of India. "Mr. J. S. Mill declared his belief that the British Government in India was 'not only one of the purest in intention, but one of the most beneficent in act, ever known amongst mankind.' I do not doubt that this is still truer now." Mr. Digby's statements, however, must be met by counter statements and argument, not by mere denial. Political experience teaches us that official opinion can nowhere be safely regarded as infallible—especially in relation to systems which the official administers. The United Kingdom, if it is to do its duty, must more than heretofore apply itself to

* "Prosperous" British India: A Revelation from Official Records.' By William Digby, C.I.E., author of 'The Famine Campaign in Southern India, 1877-'79' [and other works]. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1901. Pp. xlviii, 661, map, 21 diagrams.

the consideration of Indian affairs. An empire cannot be based upon lasting foundations where citizens in one portion of it are refused admission or placed under restrictions in other portions, and where race and color are bars to equal advancement.

D. B.

THE GRANDE MADEMOISELLE.—II.

PARIS, January 4, 1902.

The Grande Mademoiselle was among the bitterest enemies of Mazarin. It was the fashion of the time to be in the opposition; all the "people of quality" were hostile to the foreigner who was the ruler of France, who filled his coffers with French money. Mazarin was a shrewd politician, and had many means of spreading division among his enemies; his strongest card was the Queen herself. Many historians have asserted that there was a secret marriage between the Queen Regent and her minister. There does not exist any positive proof of this, but the famous "carnets," Mazarin's letters to the Queen, all we know from the memoirs of the time, tend to show that the power of the handsome Italian Cardinal over the Queen was unbounded. All Paris was persuaded that the Queen was his mistress. Anne of Austria found in her bed anonymous letters expressing the anger of her subjects. Mademoiselle followed the fashion; she had a poor opinion of Mazarin, and openly declared herself against him.

She was now twenty years old. She describes herself at that time in the famous 'Gallery of Portraits' which she wrote—a volume exceedingly rare in its original form (M. Édouard de Barthélemy published a new edition of it in 1860). Such "portraits" were a fashion of the time. Mademoiselle is very indulgent to her own charms, on which she dilates complacently. In another volume, 'Portraits of the Court,' she is thus represented by an anonymous writer:

"This princess of the blood of kings and princes is proud, bold, and of a courage more masculine than feminine. She may with truth be called an Amazon, and more capable of using arms than the spindle. . . . She is proud, enterprising, free of speech, and cannot bear anything which seems contrary to her thought. She never liked the ministers of the King or of her father, because she was obliged to show them some deference. . . . She is of an impatient humor; her spirit is active and her heart ardent in whatever she undertakes. . . . She does not know what dissimulation means, and expresses her sentiments without caring for anything."

With such a character and such sentiments, it is not surprising that Mademoiselle found a natural field for her activity in the troubled period which in the history of France bears the name of the "Fronde," and which may be called the heroic period of her life.

Paris was in a state of fermentation during all the time of the Regency of Anne of Austria. The Parlement and the Court were at open war. Mademoiselle, no more than the other great ladies of the Fronde, was animated by any other sentiments than pride, personal ambition, family hatreds and ambitions. She is candid enough to tell us that when she heard of the great victory of the Prince de Condé at Lens over the Spaniards (August 20, 1648), she was very sorry; she considered the branch of the Condés as dangerous to her own. "Nobody," she says, "dared to give me the news. The report of the battle which had come from Paris [she was at the time in her château of Bois-le-Vicomte, near Meaux] was put on my table; when I left my bed, I saw this paper. I read it with much astonishment and pain. . . . At this juncture I found myself a good enemy rather than a good Frenchwoman."

On the day when the Parisians made barricades in 1648, Mademoiselle was curious to see the spectacle. She crossed the Pont-Neuf; the chains which the Parisians had placed across the streets fell before her. "Popularity," says Arvède Barine, "is never based on reason in Paris; the men in the street adored this authoritative Princess. . . . At the end of her excursion Mademoiselle became a prisoner of her popularity." After the day of the barricades, on the 13th of September, before daylight, Mazarin took the young Louis XIV. out of his bed and fled with him from Paris. The Queen followed them on the road to Rueil. Her flight left the Parlement sole master of Paris. The consternation was general. All the people who depended on the Court left the capital. Mademoiselle, though she was a Frondeuse, viewed the disorder of Paris with much concern. She was also a Princess, and did not like to see the authority of the King diminished. One day she approved the acts of the Parlement, the next day she looked upon them as a usurpation.

The Queen came back to Paris on the 31st of October at the instance of the Parlement, but found there such a state of things that she fled a second time in the night of the 5th of January. She established herself at Saint-Germain with the little Louis XIV. This time Mademoiselle followed her. She had very uncomfortable lodgings at Saint-Germain, but she was "a creature . . . much above trifles." Curiously enough, the populace of Paris, which would not allow any vehicle to leave the capital for Saint-Germain, where the Queen and the Court were in need of everything, always allowed Mademoiselle's chariots a free passage. "The Queen and King," said she, "were in want of everything and I had all that I wished. For all the things which I sent for in Paris, passports were given and an escort; nothing could equal the civilities which were paid me." This quite consoled Mademoiselle; it became clear to her that such popularity marked her to become the wife of her young cousin and the Queen of France. When peace was signed between the Court and the Parlement, Mademoiselle returned to the Tuileries on the 8th of April, and was received with great demonstrations. The Queen brought back her son on the 18th of August, and the popular enthusiasm was at its height. Mazarin had the great success of the day; the people applauded him as a liberator.

After the Fronde of the Parlement came another Fronde, called the "Fronde des Princes." Mademoiselle had to follow the Court, which went from province to province in order to suppress the insurrections. She was at Libourne, with the Court, on the 1st of August, when she heard, to her great satisfaction, that her father had taken the part of mediator between the Court and the rebel princes. She became at once the most important person at court. The Queen showed her the dispatches, Mazarin affected to consult her; she had her own couriers from Paris. When Bordeaux was taken, the inhabitants had eyes only for her. "During the six days which were spent there by the Court," writes Mademoiselle, "nobody went to the Queen, and people did not care when she was in the street. I don't know whether she found it agreeable to hear that my court was full and that everybody was there, while nobody went to her." The Court stopped a few days in Fontainebleau before reentering Paris. Negotiations took place, in which Mazarin was sacrificed. It was agreed that the princes imprisoned at Vincennes and afterwards at Havre, among whom was the Prince de Condé, should be set free, and that Mazarin should be exiled. When Condé came back to Paris, Mademoiselle gives a curious account of her first meeting with him at the Luxembourg. She had always had a great aversion to him, but she now had an idea that, if the Princess de Condé, who was very ill, died, she might perhaps marry him:

"We mutually confessed the aversion we had always felt towards each other. He told me he was delighted when I had the smallpox, and hoped that I should always be marked with it, that I should have some deformity—in fact, that nothing could equal the hatred he felt for me. I admitted that I never felt so much joy as when he was put in prison, that I had longed for it, that I could not think of him except to wish him some evil. . . . These explanations lasted some time; they amused the company much, and ended in many assurances of friendship on both sides."

The Princess de Condé insisted on living, and Mademoiselle turned her eyes again on Louis XIV. Anne of Austria amused her with this idea, but never entertained it seriously.

During the year 1651, Mademoiselle spent her time in enjoying her popularity. She was anxious to find an occasion on which she might do something heroic. Condé was again at war; he had called the Spaniards to his aid, and was determined to keep Mazarin out of the kingdom. Retz and the bulk of the Frondeurs now stood by the Queen, and were even willing, for her sake, to recall Mazarin. The city of Orléans, which was in the *apanage* of Monsieur, was between two fires; it called Monsieur to the rescue—or Mademoiselle, his daughter. Her joy was boundless; she could now take part in the war. She organized a staff, she made herself a sort of uniform, and started for Orléans amid the applause of the people. She arrived on horseback on the 27th of March, 1652. The gates were shut and barricaded. She shouted who she was; the troops on the walls paid her military honors, but the gates were still shut. The inhabitants were afraid that an army would come in behind her. She turned the city, and, reaching the Loire, crossed it, and came to a gate on the quay. This she had broken open, and entered the city by a hole. She was at once borne in triumph; a company of soldiers accompanied her and her two ladies, Madame de Fiesque and Madame de Frontenac. Mademoiselle went to the Hôtel de Ville, made a fine speech to the authorities, and convoked a counsel of war.

On her return to Paris, she became a witness of the great battle of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine. Condé, who was hard pressed before the walls of Paris, called in Monsieur as his ally. Monsieur did not budge, but Mademoiselle, who, since she had taken Orléans, felt very heroic, went to the Fau-

bourg, turned the guns of Paris against the royal troops, and saved Condé. This exploit marked the end of the heroic part of her life.

We hope that Arvède Barine will soon give us as interesting an account of the second part of the life of this extraordinary person, who, with all her folly and vanity, is, nevertheless, worthy of some sympathy, and is, at any rate, a very original figure.

Correspondence.

WHAT HAS TAMED THE COLLEGES?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A newspaper item, lately noticed, relates to the deportation of students from Russian universities. Many scores, perhaps many hundreds, having been concerned in revolutionary demonstrations, have been sent to the army to serve terms of various lengths. The statement calls to mind the fact that students, as a class, have been restive under oppression. From the schools ardent and enthusiastic young men have swarmed out to do battle for liberty; their words and their works have stirred us deeply. When, just before the civil war, an oration, entitled "Italia Resurgens," was pronounced by one who afterwards commanded colored troops, he received such applause as had seldom been heard in the college church; and later, when the stress of the civil war was on us, self-surrender for principle was strikingly illustrated by the young men of the schools as singly, or in little groups, or, as in one case, in a full company, they entered the military service "to make men free." How fitting it would be that some adequate record of those words and deeds should be made.

And now, when the "avowed object" of a needless war is disregarded, when information in regard to our "criminal aggression" is denied to our people, in whose name the war is carried on; when the national Administration is adopting the measures of Lord North and George III.; and when American principles are again treated with insolence, as in the days of American slavery, it seems that some protest from the colleges is needed. John Fiske, speaking of the insignificant tax which was the occasion of the Revolutionary war, says: "The effect which a blow in the face would produce upon a barbarian, will be brought upon a civilized man by the assertion of some far-reaching legal principle, which only in a subtle and ultimate analysis includes the possibility of a blow in the face."

What has tamed the student body?

What has silenced the teaching force?

H.

January 17, 1902.

THE PHILIPPINE SOLDIER'S RETURN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your No. 1904, under "The Week," appears a short article, concerning the soldier in his relation to the service in the Philippines, which shows such a marked misapprehension of the subject that I cannot but believe you will allow yourself to be set right.

The failure of soldiers to reënlist in the Philippines, and their desire to "get home," does not show "how utterly unattractive the *insular* conditions are." It would be the same under any conditions of climate and place. It is a well-known fact that soldiers, especially the youngsters that have gone into the ranks for the adventure of it (like most of those in the Philippines), like to go back to their homes and friends to tell their deeds. I have, in connection with the discharge of the late volunteer regiments, and of the regular soldiers being discharged at this camp, seen the discharge certificates of many thousand soldiers returned from the islands, and scarcely one of them all has not borne the names of one or more—usually several—actions, under the head of "Battles, Engagements, Skirmishes, and Expeditions," in which the soldier had taken part. Almost every man has been under fire one or several times, and he wants to go home and talk about it. After discharged soldiers have gone home and spent two or three months with their friends and kin, a large proportion of them are ready to "take on again."

And, further, the Department is experiencing no difficulty in enlisting men for service in the Philippines, although the same cannot be said with respect to the companies of seacoast artillery serving in the States.

It is, however, a pity that steps have not been taken to induce soldiers to reënlist in the Philippines. When the cost is considered of returning a soldier to the United States, and giving him his pay and allowances during the time consumed in the voyage, and the cost of recruiting a man to take his place, transporting him to the islands, and paying him for all this time lost, a bounty of say $500 would be a cheap price to pay every soldier that would reënlist and continue with his company in the islands—without taking into account the fact that a trained soldier would be gotten, instead of a raw recruit that is only a burden to his company and an expense to the Government for at least his first six months.

M. F. Steele,
Captain Sixth Cavalry.

Discharge Camp, Angel Island, Cal.,
January 8, 1902.

PRESIDENT McKINLEY AND THE WAR WITH SPAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A hundred times I have pronounced the statement that the late President McKinley was forced into the attack on Spain against his will an absurdity. Now that it has appeared in the *Nation*, I am almost compelled to doubt my sanity. For nearly forty years now, the *Nation* has been to me Holy Scripture. I have accustomed myself seldom to confute, but always to understand, what I read in it. But this I cannot understand. It must be at least conceivable, but to me it is still inconceivable.

Did Mr. McKinley say so? That would be evidence that he thought so; but might he not have been laboring under a delusion? If the thing was impossible, he certainly was; if it was possible, then I suggest that we make it impossible by Constitutional amendment or otherwise, and that right soon. If it was true, then his subsequent conduct should be reconcilable with it; is it so? Let there be light.

Respectfully, Truthseeker.

Granville, O., January 15, 1902.

[The most direct and positive evidence on this question is the late Representative Boutelle's assertion that a belligerent group in the House "held a stop-watch over the President." This implies that there was a time when he was indisposed to go to war. His refusal to submit the cause of the *Maine's* destruction to arbitration—the last straw of drowning peace—marked the completeness of his surrender to the war-makers, and also of his assumption of moral responsibility for the ensuing hostilities. We will add our opinion that he still posed as a friend of peace after he had made up his mind to succumb—thereby lulling into fatal inactivity that part of the public which was revolted by the mere thought of war.—Ed. Nation.]

FACTS ABOUT THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As Mr. Balch, in common with almost all the writers and speakers in this country who touch upon the matter, has much befogged the real points at issue, I earnestly hope that you will permit me, through your columns, to give a brief statement of the facts upon which Canada bases her claim. They are as follows:

(1.) That the strait now called Portland Channel, through which the United States have run their line of demarcation, is not, and cannot be, the Portland Channel referred to in the Anglo-Russian Convention of 1825, upon which the title of the United States to their Alaskan territory is founded; and that, in consequence of this erroneous assumption, Canada has been deprived of a large extent of territory rightfully belonging to her.

(2.) That, in running their line of demarcation ten marine leagues from the shores of every inlet that debouches from the sea-coast, instead of from the seacoast itself, the United States have violated the true intent of the treaty; these inlets being, in fact, but narrow fjords, only a few miles in width at their greatest extension, and in no sense being a part of the coast proper.

In support of the first contention, I would refer to the words of the treaty itself. In laying down the line of demarcation, it says:

"À partir du point le plus méridional de l'île dite Prince of Wales, lequel point se trouve sous le parallèle du 54me degré 40 minutes de latitude nord, et entre le 131me et le 133me degré de longitude ouest, la dite ligne remontera au nord le long de la passe dite Portland Channel, jusqu'au point de la terre ferme où elle atteint le 56me degré de latitude nord; de ce dernier point la ligne de démarcation suivra la crête des montagnes situées parallèlement à la côte, jusqu'au point d'intersection du 141me degré de longitude ouest, etc."

Now I affirm that no unprejudiced person who reads the above and afterwards consults a map of the territory involved, can say that they furnish sufficient evidence to establish the claim of the United States.

By the terms of the treaty, the line of demarcation is to begin at the southernmost point of the Prince of Wales Island; from that point it is to *ascend* to the north along a strait called Portland Channel until it

reaches a point on the mainland where it attains the 56th degree of north latitude. Does the line as laid down by the United States do this? Not by any manner of means! Instead of ascending to the north, as the treaty says it shall do, it actually *descends*, passing along a line *a little south of east*, for a distance of *one hundred and thirty miles!* Then, and then only, it begins to meander northward.

So far, it must be clear to the unprejudiced investigator that there is something wrong either with the treaty or with the American interpretation thereof. Let us see, then, what other interpretation is possible and reasonable.

Turn again to the map, and place one end of a ruler upon the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, which, as we have seen, is the place where the line of demarcation begins, the other end pointing northward. It will be seen that it follows very nearly the course of the eastern arm of a channel marked upon some maps as "Clarence Strait." This channel actually terminates at the prescribed latitude of 56 degrees north, which the one now called Portland does not. I say it will be found that the ruler very nearly follows the course of this channel; it does not quite, for it cuts off some outlying edges of the island. It is this fact which furnishes one of the strongest proofs of the correctness of Canada's claim. Taken in connection with a clause of the treaty which provides "que l'île dite Prince of Wales appartiendra toute entière à la Russe," it shows almost conclusively that this strait, and not the one now so designated, was referred to in the treaty by the name of "Portland Channel."

The only possible explanation of this clause is that the line of demarcation as laid down in the treaty, if strictly followed, would leave some part of the island outside of the territory assigned to Russia, and therefore this provision was inserted in order that it might retain the whole. This explanation accords with the hypothesis that the line of demarcation was intended to pass through the strait now called "Clarence," and not the one now called "Portland," for if the line ran through the latter, there would be no need of a special clause to preserve the whole island to Russia, for every part of it would be at least a hundred miles inside the territory assigned to that country.

With regard to the second contention on behalf of Canada, the question turns upon the true meaning of the word "sinuosities" which occurs in the treaty. Does it mean, as is claimed it does by Canada, that the line shall follow the coast proper, or that it shall follow up every narrow inlet, one of which at least runs into the mainland for over a hundred miles, and the upper part of which no more resembles the sea-coast than do the Palisades of the Hudson? This second contention is also strengthened by a clause in the treaty which grants to Great Britain the right to "free navigation" of all these inlets. Of what use would this be did she not own their upper reaches?

As to the first, it is not at all unlikely that the name Portland Channel was anciently applied to a different strait from the one now known by that name. A similar confusion occurred many years ago when, in an attempt to delineate the boundary line between the United States and British possessions, the question arose as to what was the stream referred to in the treaty by the name of St. Croix River. The dispute was settled to the satisfaction of both parties.

Mr. Balch claims, as other writers and speakers have done, that the United States is "entitled by long uninterrupted occupancy to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland, etc." If my memory serves me aright, a similar claim was set up on behalf of Great Britain in the Venezuelan matter, which claim was received with indignant remonstrance in this country as being an instance of British arrogance. America of course is incapable of arrogance. In any case this plea is beside the question, for there happens to be a clause in the treaty made to fit this possibility, which clause expressly denies prescriptive rights to either party.

I am, Mr. Editor, respectfully yours,

ARTHUR JOHNSTON.

SANTA ANA, CAL., January 8, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. John Lane's spring announcements include a two-volume edition of the poems of Arthur Symons; a limited edition of a three-volume edition of Shelley's poems, uniform with Keats's, printed in the Vale type; 'A Garden in the Suburbs,' by Mrs. Leslie Williams; and 'The Book of Bulbs.'

From Doubleday, Page & Co. we are to have 'An Introduction to the Study of English Poetry,' by Prof. Mark H. Liddell; 'The Life of James Madison,' by Gaillard Hunt; and 'A Retrospect of Some Literary Immortals,' by Francis W. Halsey.

A. C. McClurg & Co. will publish 'Ocean to Ocean,' a narrative of a surveying trip across Nicaragua, by Lieut. James G. Walker, U. S. N.; and a new edition of Sheldon's 'Notes on the Nicaragua Canal'; 'Nestlings of Forest and Marsh,' by Mrs. Irene Wheelock; a volume of literary essays by William Morton Payne; 'Letters to an Enthusiast,' by Mary Cowden Clarke; a 'Selection of the World's Greatest Short Stories,' by Sherwin Cody; and 'Right Reading,' a body of counsel selected from ten famous authors.

'The Ancient Catholic Church' (to A. D. 451), by Dr. Robert Rainy, principal of the New College, Edinburgh, and 'Philosophy of Conduct,' by Prof. George T. Ladd of Yale, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

P. Blakiston's Son & Co., as American agents, announce an important undertaking to cover five years, namely, 'An Atlas of Clinical Medicine, Surgery, and Pathology,' which will be issued in quarterly parts—eight to ten plates at a time—in connection with the regular publications of the New Sydenham Society.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will issue directly Renan's 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse,' annotated by Irving Babbitt, primarily for college use, but also to the advantage of the general reader.

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole is preparing a revised bibliography of the translations or other editions of the Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám, to be included in a new issue of the "Multivariorum Edition" published by L. C. Page & Co. He would be grateful for any information regarding any editions, or magazine articles containing longer or shorter selections from the works of the astronomer poet, whether in English or in foreign languages. Letters should be addressed to him at Jamaica Plain, Mass.

'The Love Poems of Sir John Suckling' is the latest issue in John Lane's "The Lovers' Library," small, companionable volumes takingly furnished with text printed in one color (here green) and framed in another (here violet), and as daintily bound. We could have desired a modernizing of the punctuation.

Lovers of Dicky Doyle will welcome the reprint of Thackeray's 'The Newcomes' that comes to us from Macmillan with that genial artist's illustrations, both in the letter-press and on the wrapper and title-pages of the 1853 edition. They have a certain affinity with Thackeray's own ingenuous designs, but the author could not have produced the hustings riot on page 745, nor given the same decorative charm to the initial letters which introduce every chapter. With 844 pages the volume is still not unduly bulky, nor is the print difficult to read.

The useful "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) are increased by a 'Burne-Jones' and a 'Herkomer,' truly a strange pair to be assembled if only by the hazard of a publisher's convenience. These books contain, as is the custom of the series, each more than a hundred illustrations. Ludwig Pietsch celebrates the qualities of Hubert Herkomer in terms of extravagant appreciation; for it is not likely that this versatile artist will ever be mentioned "among the greatest names which have given to the art of the nineteenth century its most illustrious renown." Herr von Schleinitz discusses the works of the late Burne-Jones in a more judicial spirit. Either volume is commendable as a convenient collection of pictures otherwise accessible only in far more expensive form.

The extraordinary alliance which subsists between the republic of France and the empire of Russia naturally raises economic questions of great interest to the French people. Some of these questions are examined by M. J. Machat, in a study entitled 'Le Développement Économique de la Russie' (Paris: Armand Colin). There is no doubt that a considerable amount of foreign capital has lately been invested in Russia; the protective tariff operating as a bounty on such investments. M. Machat determines statistically their extent and their productiveness; but his aim is wider than this. He takes, in the first place, a comprehensive view of the resources of Russia and the conditions of its development, and then proceeds to examine specifically the mineral wealth and its exploitation, the agriculture, the manufactures, the transportation, etc. The results are certainly impressive, but we have no confidence in the methods by which they are obtained. Reliance is placed throughout on the figures given in the reports of the various bureaus of the Russian Government. We know enough of the corruption of that Government to make us doubt whether its functionaries are competent to carry out statistical inquiries with scientific accuracy. There may be 33,000,000 horses and 75,000,000 sheep in Russia, but

the figures cannot be verified. M. Machat himself says of the number of the sheep, "Négligeons comme trop problématique le chiffre global." Nevertheless, we are bound to say that he does the best with his material, and his book deserves attention.

In his history of the Netherlands people ('Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk,' Groningen: J. B. Wolters), Dr. P. J. Blok, Professor of Dutch history in the University of Leyden, has now completed his fifth volume, which, as usual, comes well indexed and has two colored maps. The latter show the republic as it existed from the peace of Münster in 1648 to the last years of William the Third, King of England and Stadholder of the Netherlands; and the North Sea and English Channel, well marked by the sites of naval battles. The period treated, from 1648 to 1702, was the time of John De Witt and of William the Third, the era of the naval wars of Holland with England, of the culmination of the power of the republic, and of the coalition wars against absolutism and Louis XIV. We reserve comment for the English translation, which we suppose to be in progress.

A publication of great interest to students of Germanic philology in general, and Scandinavian philology in particular, has just been completed in Copenhagen, being the new four-volume edition of Snorri Sturluson's 'Heimskringla,' which has been (since 1893) in course of preparation and publication for the Society for Publication of Old Northern Literature by Finnur Jónsson. The famous Icelandic author's classical work is here for the first time published in full accordance with the best manuscript, the *Kringla*, as it now exists in the paper copy made by Asgeir Jónsson about the year 1700; the original vellum—with the exception of a couple of sheets that in some mysterious manner found their way to Stockholm—having been destroyed in the great Copenhagen conflagration of 1728. A full set of notes gives sufficient information about the variants presented by the other versions of Snorri's work. The fourth volume of the present edition consists of an interpretation of all the Scaldic verses quoted in the several Kings' sagas. The learned Icelandic editor is, beyond dispute, the first living authority in the field of Scaldic interpretation, and there seems to be no limit to his productive capacity. While this edition of Snorri's work has been going on, he has been constantly engaged on his great History of the Old Norwegian and Old Icelandic Literature, of which the first instalment also appeared in 1893, and which will soon be finished, while as side issues, so to say, he has, like a clever prestidigitator, shaken out of his sleeves editions of old sagas, reviews, and essays, pamphlets and criticisms almost without number. Hence it is no wonder that the same package of the Society's publications that brings the last number of his edition of Snorri, also contains an essay by Finnur Jónsson on the Norwegian-Icelandic Scaldic language of about 800-1300.

It may not be out of place to mention here the version of the 'Heimskringla' by Dr. Gustav Storm, recently published in Christiania. As a translation from Icelandic into modern Dano-Norwegian, it can hardly be expected to excite much interest outside of the country of its production; but the fact that it has been illustrated by several of the most prominent Norwegian painters under the editorship of G. Munthe makes it notable on the artistic side, in spite of a doubt whether the designers have been entirely successful in their endeavor. Of this translation there have appeared three distinct editions—one of them, with the assistance of the public treasury, simultaneously with a translation into Landsmaal by S. Schjött, illustrated by the same artists, and extremely cheap. That Storm's translation has a specific, philological value, it is not necessary here to insist upon.

An important work, 'Francesco Pesellino und die Romantik der Renaissance, von Werner Weisbach,' in preparation during the past year by Bruno Cassirer, Berlin (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), with abundant illustrations adapted to a folio page, offers an attraction to Petrarchists on account of the light thrown on the rise and spread of the "Illustrationscyklus" of the "Trionfi."

The pathetic story 'Le Mie Prigioni' will long keep alive the memory of Silvio Pellico as writer and poet, while as patriot he would even now be remembered but by few. The principal charm of the story consists in its temperate tone and apparent truthfulness—qualities which at once made Prince Metternich recognize in the book a source of serious political danger. That Silvio Pellico actually did not exaggerate, that he rather "slightly idealized, his situation during the first period" of his captivity, has now been established beyond a doubt by an examination of official documents in the Vienna archives, a partial account of which is published in the January *Rundschau*. But, aside from this confirmatory evidence, the study of the state papers has led to some important discoveries. Thus, the current assumption that the liberation of Pellico and some of his fellow-sufferers was due to the outbreak of the July Revolution is proved to be erroneous, the fact being that the news of that event came very near causing the revocation of the pardon already granted and partly carried into effect. A more interesting question concerns the fate of several of Pellico's manuscripts, which were confiscated and for many years kept by the authorities in Vienna. The complete official list of them is given in the *Rundschau*. Of the thirteen titles only three appear in Pellico's published works. Whether all of them reached their rightful owner when, four years after his release from the Spielberg, his papers were returned to him, is even now uncertain. So much is sure, that Maroncelli was justified in saying, in 1834, in his 'Addizioni': "Ma la non-restituzione delle carte di Silvio defrauda irreparabilmente uomini e lettere." It seems that this reproach rests even to the present day upon the Austrian Government.

Consular Reports for January contains translations of the official regulations for the reorganization of the Government of China on more modern and efficient lines, and two imperial edicts on education. These provide for the establishing of schools throughout the empire, and order the viceroys and governors to select and send students abroad for the purpose of being educated in special branches of industrial science. Considerable space is devoted to a review of the foreign commerce of Germany for 1900, from which it appears that the United States has by far the largest and most valuable export trade to Germany, while it stands third in respect to the bulk and value of imports from Germany—the total value of both exports and imports being, in round numbers, $350,000,000. For the first six months of 1901 the statistics show an increase in the exports of American cereals and some other articles, and a decline in the exports of cotton and copper. Some interesting statements follow in regard to the present condition of the various German industries, and the effect upon them of American competition, and on the proposed tariff revision. Among other things it is said that "the cost of living is at present from 10 to 50 per cent. higher than in the United States, while wages are about one-third of those paid at home."

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women, through a circular dated January 10, offers to properly qualified college graduates—*i. e.*, "candidates who give promise of distinction in the subjects to which they devote themselves"—a fellowship of $500 for the year 1902-03. Preference will be given, in the award of this fellowship, to women from Maryland and the South. Blank forms for application may be obtained from Miss McLane, No. 1101 N. Charles St., Baltimore, or from any member of the Committee on Award, and should be presented on or before March 25. This fellowship may, in exceptional instances, be held for two successive years by the same person, and work on it may be pursued at a European or American university.

The experience of Massachusetts is being invoked to rescue from destruction, decay, or peril of both, the local archives of the State of New York. The mover in this is the Public Archives Commission of the American Historical Association, as appears from a leaflet just sent out by Prof. Herbert L. Osgood of Columbia University. "Two towns [of Onondaga County]," we read, "have deliberately burned their old material, and others may be expected to follow the example from time to time." A State Record Commission is the proposed remedy.

A chased silver inkstand was lately presented by the employees of the National Central Library, in Florence, to their honored chief, Commendatore Chilovi, in token of forty years' service, completed on December 15, 1901, and the hope was expressed that he might retain the chief librarianship till the long-deferred new building should become the fitting home of the overgrown collection. The sub-librarian, Signora Castellano-Teloni, had a word of praise for his good will ever manifested toward her sex. Professors Robert Davidson and Heinrich Brockhaus celebrated the pleasant occasion with gifts (statuary and a manuscript).

The anti-foreigner agitation in the higher institutions of learning in Germany is assuming larger proportions. It is directed chiefly against the Russians, and is based on the fact that so many of these, especially the women, are so poorly prepared that they retard the progress of others in the same department. The first steps in the direction of making it impossible for incompetent foreigners to enter these schools came from the Polytechnic Institute in Munich, and were followed by an appeal for redress from the university men at Heidelberg.

Now a particularly strong protest has come from the medical men at Halle, who state, among other things, that, out of about one hundred in the dissecting department, there are four Russian men and twenty-nine Russian women, nearly all Jews, and that in most cases they are incompetent and socially very objectionable. The students ask for more stringent conditions of admittance to the institutions. The agitation has also spread to Leipzig and Berlin. In the former university the authorities decided not to admit foreigners insufficiently prepared, and in particular that the certificate of the so-called "Girls' Gymnasia" of Russia should no longer be recognized. In Berlin a mass-meeting of the German students, called to protest against the conduct of Polish students who had disturbed the lectures of Professor Schiemann for his having taken an anti-Polish view of the revolution of 1830, resulted in a petition to the authorities that only such non-German students be admitted to university privileges as are ready for academic work. In Brunswick the officials of the Polytechnicum have published a decree that no foreigner shall be admitted unless he have a fair understanding of German.

By a certain historic right, the octogenarian Mommsen, who has always been on the alert whenever university rights and privileges were endangered, is leading in a protest for the independence of German university scholarship, which has been endangered by the action of the Emperor in appointing a distinctively "Catholic" professor of secular history to the philosophical faculty of Strassburg, in the person of Dr. Spahn, a son of the noted Catholic political leader in Parliament. In his "open letter," Mommsen calls this a "confessionalizing" of scientific research, and the establishment of a precedent fatal to the spirit and highest ideals of scholarship. Fully a dozen university faculties have joined in this protest, but these voices have come chiefly from South Germany, the Prussian university faculties seeming to fear the vengeance of the authorities, particularly as the Emperor himself had been so active in dividing the work of history at Strassburg between a Protestant and a Catholic holder of the same chair, where there was formerly but one man. Of Prussian universities, only Kiel and Breslau had the courage to protest. An answer to Mommsen has been published by the leader of Catholic learning in Germany, Count von Hertling, who insists that no scientific research can be or ever is absolutely free from assumptions (*voraussetzungslos*). The discussion has assumed national proportions, and is calling forth expressions from many leaders in university circles.

The German Asiatic Society of Japan, which meets usually in Tokio, and is composed of scholarly and industrious men from the Fatherland, has done noble work in the study of Japanese history, music, science, literature, art, and mythology, and in making known the peculiar traits of the country and people. Already its extremely valuable publications (*Mitteilungen*) have reached eight volumes. Full of interesting matter accurately set forth, instead of the old form of publication, with pages 12x8 inches in size, the more recent volumes have taken the more convenient shape of 8½x6 inches, and the paper is of an improved quality. A striking feature is that of liberal illustration by Japanese artists. Part ii. of volume viii. contains a valuable engineering paper on "The Railways of Japan," one on the "Feast of Bon, or of Floating Lanterns in Memory of the Dead," in which, also, the features of amusements and dances and even small boys' mischief are not forgotten. Professor Aoyama writes of the plague, from a bacteriological point of view, and the Rev. A. Lloyd treats in scholarly fashion of the Dogmatic Anthropology with which Buddhism so fully deals. Two of the papers are well illustrated. As a supplement, we have a limpid translation into German, with abundant and scholarly notes, by Dr. Karl Florenz, Professor of Literature in the Imperial University, of the classic 'Nihongi' (Chronicles of Japan), written in 820 A.D., together with an index and many illustrations of incidents and antiquities, making a thesaurus of learning without knowledge of which no one can presume to be informed about Japan's early history.

—The fourth volume of the 'Letters to Washington' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) carries the correspondence to May, 1774. The absence of an index to the four volumes would show that the Colonial Dames have extended the original plan, and do not intend to limit the series to letters written in colonial times. We trust that this is their decision, for the matter thus published will always be of interest, and is now so widely scattered in so many volumes as to defy research. Force printed in his 'American Archives' such letters from the Washington collection as pertained to the two years covered by his compilation; but this work is not readily consulted, and, being somewhat hastily gathered, shows many serious omissions. The personal element of the letters will give place to the military relations, and much more careful editing will be demanded. Yet, should the volumes be continued, the entire series will be the strongest possible argument in favor of the existence of such a society as that of the Colonial Dames. The neglect shown by the Government of its opportunity, almost its duty, regarding this correspondence, is being compensated by the patriotic efforts of the above society, and a worthy form is now given to material that has not lost its historical value or its personal interest.

—The volume before us contains two series of letters which have already been printed—the Boucher and the Crawford letters. The one relates to the education of young Custis, and throws not a little light on the condition of the colleges of that day; the other turns on Washington's speculations in Western lands, and proves at once his keenness and his eagerness to secure the best. The complicated Colville estate, a part of the management falling upon Washington, involved him in many perplexities, and gave rise to the curious story of his "defalcation." Troublesome, too, was a Mrs. Savage, whom Mercer described as "at the tender Age of three score and ten, denied the Use of Pen Ink Paper & Romances, and a frequent Use of the Strap is substituted in the Place of these Amusements." John Posey, a worthless farmer, was an object of Washington's charity. But the most interesting features of the book will be found in the letters from the overseers of the different plantations belonging to Washington, for they clearly reveal the infinite detail incident to careful management. The tobacco crop was ceasing to be the great commercial crop, and was being replaced by the cultivation of wheat and export of flour to the West Indies and Europe. The mill was an important article in farm economy, and its management demanded better labor than could easily be obtained anywhere in Virginia. The raising of hogs, the profits of the fisheries, the spinning of wool by the sickly negroes, and the demand for farm horses required minute supervision to prevent waste, and the letters from Hill, in old Virginia, and from Simpson, on the Ohio, tell much the same story, save that in the newer region the slave was even at this early period at a disadvantage. The free white was in demand.

—As a commentary on Shakspere, the Oxford English Dictionary can be evaluated only by students. Not all of them are above the error of reading with a modern sense familiar words used by the poet and his contemporaries with quite another connotation. Such words will never be looked up in this Dictionary by the ordinary reader. Notoriously, Dr. Murray's colaborers have failed to explain away every stumbling-block of nonce-words or various puzzling lections; but occasionally they have been able to rebuke accepted emendation and restore the original text. An instance of this occurs in the quarterly issue (Lap-Leisurely) just issued by Henry Frowde. The word "legative" in "Henry VIII.," III. ii. 339, "By your power Legatiue," is maintained as against the "legantine" of modern editions. Per contra, an erratum in Spenser's 'Faerie Queen,' confessed in early editions among "Faults escap'd in the Printing," but overlooked by subsequent editors, introduced a spurious word "lastery" for "castory" into our vocabularies. Milton's true text, again, "I owe no light or leading received from any man in the discovery of the truth," is set over against Burke's manufacture of it into a familiar quotation — the "men . . . of light and leading" in England. Pope's "leather and prunella," in allusion by rank to cobbler and parson (whose gown was made of prunella), has similarly undergone a sea change to make it a current counter of speech, with the meaning 'something to which one is utterly indifferent.' The proverbial expression, "There is nothing like leather," has not been traced beyond Fenning's 'Universal Spelling - book' (1767). "Leatherette" bears the approximate date 1880. "Leap-frog" makes its first appearance in Shakspere (1599), in Henry V. "In the lead" is an American expression; and this substantive, though old and well supported in English usage, was branded by Dr. Johnson as a "low, despicable word." "Launderer" we have retained, though it is obsolete in England after occurring as early as 1475. "Lay of the land" (for "lie") is cited from Thoreau without animadversion as an Americanism; and indeed "lay of the country" is adduced from an English author in 1819.

—The moot order of "last two" versus "two last" (and the like) is thus noticed by Mr. Bradley: "The more frequent form till the seventeenth century appears to be *the two* (*three*, etc.) last (=F. *les deux derniers*,

G. *die zwei letzten*); . . . the form *the last two* (*three*, etc.) is now the more frequent of the two, except where *last* is equivalent to 'last-mentioned.'" "Last day" for yesterday is still in dialect use, and we have held on to "last evening"; but "last morning" has been given up. Some other relinquishments in this section of the alphabet might also be regretted, as "largerly (largierly)," "latewardly," and "leggiadrous" ('graceful,' 'elegant'), which Petrarch-fed poets, lamenting Laura's "leggiadro portamento altero," might have naturalized from the Italian. When the Gallicism "leaves something to be desired" was first ventured is not established in the Dictionary by example. "By your leave" relates not to permission, but to good pleasure (love, lief). Sharp division in British usage is manifested in the case of "lass," which is in full vogue in northern and northern midland Britain, but has little or no popular currency in southern. The historical side of the Dictionary is illustrated conspicuously under "Law," where are defined Avrogado's law, Boyle's, Gresham's, Grimm's, Verner's, etc. And speaking of law, we should say that in this country one would oftenest hear "learn'd in the law"; but Mr. Bradley recognizes only the dissyllabic pronunciation. Conversely, he has "legg'd" only, whereas we should ordinarily expect to hear "a one-legged man," for instance.

—A valuable supplement to the now numerous critical studies of Ibsen is furnished by J. B. Halvorsen's 'Bibliographical Information concerning Henrik Ibsen's Collected Works,' which was published by Gyldendal of Copenhagen in 1901. At the time of the author's death in February, 1900, the material for all but the last six dramas treated was ready for the press. The task of preparing the remainder, upon the basis of Halvorsen's collections, and following closely his method, was undertaken by his friend, Sten Konow. The plan of the book is briefly as follows: The works are taken up in the chronological order of their publication. A brief general account is followed by a list of editions in the original, accompanied by interesting details about the number of copies printed, etc. Then follow foreign translations and commentaries, concluding with a list of performances, in both Europe and America. Completeness has been aimed at in the account of editions and translations; in the last two items named above only an approximation at completeness outside of Scandinavia is possible. The only marked deficiency in the commentaries is the omission of some valuable English and American criticisms. No mention is made of Payne's translation of Henrik Jæger's 'Ibsen.' Of special interest, as giving less familiar facts, is the section dealing with Ibsen's poems, the first edition of which appeared in 1871. The large number of these poems translated into Polish is noticeable, the reason for it probably being Ibsen's warm love of liberty. One of the verses, written originally in German, and addressed to a German lady, contains a suggestive little piece of self-criticism. It will probably be a source of surprise to most American readers to learn that the first performance of "Ghosts" was given by a Dano-Norwegian company in Chicago, in May, 1882, a month before the earliest performance in Germany, and more than a year before the play was produced anywhere in Scandinavia. The only performances of "Emperor and Galilean" were given in 1883 at Leipzig and in 1888 at Berlin. The only performance of Ibsen's first play, "Catilina," that is noted was at Stockholm, December 3, 1881. The one serious fault to be found with Halvorsen's admirable bibliography is that it is presented in Danish, but this can be readily rectified.

—The decease in Japan of Dr. Stuart Eldredge, on November 16, at Yokohama, and of Mr. Edward Howard House in Tokio on December 18, deprives the American community of two notable men resident in Japan for more than thirty years. The one was an ornament to medical science, the other to letters and music. Both were deeply beloved by the Japanese, besides being the recipients of imperial favor in the form of decorations. On Dr. Eldredge was bestowed the third class of the Order of Merit, on Mr. House the second-class order of the Sacred Treasure. The latter, born in Boston in 1836, followed at first his father's occupation of bank-note engraver, but in the early fifties entered journalism and became a musical and dramatic critic in New York city. As correspondent, he reported the John Brown episode at Harper's Ferry, and later the war campaigns. Mr. House was fairly successful as a playwriter in collaboration with Dion Boucicault, but, since 1870, had spent most of his life in Japan, teaching English in the University and conducting the Tokio *Times* from 1877 to 1880. By his vigorous writing, he was influential in rousing the public sentiment in America and Europe through which Japan ultimately gained her sovereign rights as a nation. His pamphlets on the Kagoshima and Shimonoseki affairs were especially illuminating. Though crippled by gout for more than twenty years, he contributed steadily to the magazines. He accompanied the Japanese army, under Gen. Saigo, to Formosa in 1874, and wrote a full account of that expedition which powerfully affected modern history in the Far East. 'Yone Santo, a Tale of Japan,' and 'Japanese Episodes,' touch the lighter side of native life. His latest and greatest musical triumph (he held the degree of Mus. Doc. from Oxford) was the organization of an Imperial Court orchestra of Japanese young men, which, in 1900-1901, gave creditable performances, the first of the sort in Japan.

LANCIANI'S OLD ROME.

New Tales of Old Rome. By Rodolfo Lanciani. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

It is a matter of great importance for an archæologist to consider how freely he may give rein to his imagination, particularly when sentiment enters largely into his disposition and is exaggerated by circumstances of birth and environment. Lanciani is one of the great students of Roman classical antiquity. Possessed of broad knowledge of his subject, with a mind keen to the possibilities of every discovery, no matter how apparently insignificant, with an imagination ready to supply all the missing links, and with a sentiment fired by a love for the imperial city, our author has written upon a subject musty with the dust of ages a number of books which have a wondrous charm. Nevertheless, these same books give the reader a sense of insecurity, and inspire a fear lest the fair structure may have been founded and framed by the imagination of the enthusiastic scholar. The latest is no exception in this respect. In a beautiful volume of three hundred and thirty-six pages, entitled 'New Tales of Old Rome,' the author has brought together eight essays upon subjects which are related only in so far as they have to do with Rome. Two are concerned with the recent discoveries in the Forum and along the Sacra Via, one treats of the grove and inscriptions of the Arval Brotherhood, another considers the mystery surrounding the Grave of St. Paul, the fifth is entitled "Strange Superstitions in Rome." The last three relate interesting details as to the memorials of the Jews, the English, and the Scotch which are found in Rome.

Naturally we turn with special interest to the essay describing the recent discoveries in the Forum which have stirred the curiosity of the entire world, and have turned the eyes of students and laymen to the little area, near the arch of Septimius Severus, which was the Comitium of ancient Rome. To Professor Lanciani the famous but now generally discredited *lapis niger* indicates the tomb of Romulus, the founder of the city. The black stones may not be the identical slabs set up in the Comitium in the time of the kings, and may have been placed by Diocletian, but they mark the tomb of Romulus; and the sub-structure, with its *fossa* and oblong pedestals for the lions, and the conical-shaped pillar and pyramidal stone engraved with archaic letters standing near by, form a "venerable monument raised in honor of the founder of the city not long after his death." The mutilation which they show is "the palpable speaking evidence of the storming and sacking of Rome by the Gauls in 390 B. C." The pillar is only another evidence that this is the tomb of Romulus, for it resembles the "naval pillar of Duilius," and that of Numidian marble inscribed *parenti patriae* in honor of Cæsar. Then the inscribed stele, "still standing after twenty-five centuries in the identical spot where one of the kings set it up," escaped the destruction of the Gaulish fire of 390 B. C. "It contains a pontifical law specifying the ritual of certain public sacrifices, and it appears as if Livy must have had this stele before his eyes, or fresh in his memory, when he wrote the well-known passage in the twentieth chapter of Book I." The interpretation of the inscription, as given by Professor Ceci and published in the *Notizie degli Scavi* some months ago, is put in English form by the author.

Now all this forms a most delightful story, and we only wish we could say it were all true, but it is mostly pure assumption, and is built on the following remarkable facts. On the site of the old Comitium in the Roman Forum there have recently been discovered, below the recognized level of the imperial period, slabs of black marble, covering what is apparently a shrine, the purpose of which is unknown. All that can be safely said is, that Maxentius probably built this monument in honor of his son Romulus, being desirous of recalling the founder of the city and associating him with his son of the same name. The most important object discovered is the stele, upon which is inscribed what is undoubtedly the oldest Latin inscription in existence. There is nothing,

however, about the stone to prove that it was set up in the time of the kings. The archaic letters are similar in form to the Greek alphabet on the Formello vase, at the date of which the Romans were borrowing that alphabet for their own written language. Of the inscription not more than half a dozen words can be recognized, and we can only say that the language refers in some way to the *rex sacrificulus*, who presided in the *comitia calata* for the making of wills. Professor Ceci's interpretation is an invention, and, although ingenious, does not deserve recognition in a work of any authority. In stating that the Duenos bowl was the oldest Latin inscription before the discovery of the stele, Professor Lanciani has overlooked the Fibula Prænestina. The Prænestine brooch has an inscription in retrograde order, the letters of which closely resemble those on the stele, and there is the same three-pointed form of punctuation. Both inscriptions date in the same period, perhaps in the seventh or sixth century B. C.

It is very probable that the Latin people obtained their alphabet from the Chalcidian colony of Cumæ, and our author should not have said that this theory had been abandoned, even though it enabled him to introduce the fanciful derivation of *cœrimonium*. The inscription on the stele shows the alternating direct and retrograde order styled "boustrophedon." This combined order is the medium of change from the retrograde to the direct, and, since the discovery of the Fibula Prænestina with its retrograde form, has been thought to have been used by the Latins, though no evidence has been discovered before this time. The Etruscans, Umbrians, and Oscans did not use the alternating order inasmuch as they always wrote from right to left.

Professor Lanciani, when speaking of the work of Maxentius in the Forum, makes the suggestion that the newly discovered pedestal upon which was engraved the inscription, "To Mars the invincible father and to the founders of his eternal city," once supported the famous bronze wolf which has been popularly identified with the statue struck by lightning in B. C. 64, since the right hind leg shows an injury of some kind. The latter part of this chapter treats of the origin of Pasquino, upon whose statue were posted epigrams and mottoes, a custom giving rise to the word pasquinades. What this has to do with the new discoveries in the Forum it is impossible to say, for the "battered torso" dubbed Pasquino was discovered as early as the fifteenth century.

Under the heading "The New Discoveries on the Sacra Via," Professor Lanciani describes the Fasti which were placed on the walls of the Regia. When speaking of the Atrium of Vesta, he contradicts, though with regret, the theory that the mutilated statue of a Vestal found three feet below the floor of the Atrium was buried thus, to complete the disgrace of the priestess, whose name had been erased from a pedestal perhaps because she became a Christian. Nevertheless, he thinks that this proselyte was the Claudia named by Prudentius, since the name began with a C, which is all that remains of the inscription.

Suetonius tells us of the erection of the marble column in honor of Cæsar on the site of his funeral pyre. At its base was set an altar which, together with the pillar, was thrown down by Dolabella, son-in-law of Cicero. Fragments of the column still remain, and mark the spot where "the great man was incinerated." The description of the laying bare of the pavement of the Sacred Way and the *clivus* of "Commodus or Domitian" gives an opportunity for the introduction of the story of Simon the Magician and St. Peter. The chapter assigned to the Sacred Grove of the Arvales consists of thirty-eight pages, only fourteen of which treat of the subject. Under this title we find mention of the terminal gods, and the evolution of the shapeless boundary stones into the Hermæ of later times, and the discovery of pedestals of portrait busts, which bear the names of Bacchylides and Pindar. The chapter closes with a description of sacred groves, and in particular that of Annia Regilla, still surviving under the name "Bosco Sacro."

Professor Lanciani opens the chapter on "The Truth about the Grave of St. Paul" by a description of the Basilica Aemilia rebuilt by L. Paullus, a fact recorded by a recently found fragment *Paul(us) rest(ituit)*; and he states clearly his belief that the columns of Phrygian marble of the Church of St. Paul on the road to Ostia were taken from the old Basilica, because it was levelled to the ground at the close of the fourth century, at the precise time when the Church was built. It was natural that materials from the Basilica Aemilia (Paulli) should be used in the Church of the Apostle of the same name because of the custom of the Christians of "placing pagan buildings under the care of saints whose names sounded more or less like those of the gods just expelled." De Rossi thinks both buildings stood at the same time, and refers to two dog-collars with inscriptions which mention the two buildings. The opinion of the author as to the mysterious grave is summed up in these words: "The grave of St. Paul has come down to us, most likely as left by Constantine the Great, enclosed in a metal case. The Saracens of 846 damaged the outside marble casing and the marble epitaph, but did not reach the grave. As to the nature of the grave itself, its shape, its aspect, its contents, I am afraid our curiosity will never be satisfied."

The strange superstitions that claim attention in the next chapter are those associated with the worship of Cybele, Mithras, and Artemis Taurica. Many sanctuaries for the worship of Mithras have been found and explored in Rome and vicinity, the best known of which is the cave of the Capitoline Hill, discovered in the sixteenth century, and named Lo Perso by reason of the Persian origin of Mithras, and which contained the famous bas-relief showing the *taurobolium*. The ancient ships now at the bottom of Lake Nemi Professor Lanciani believes to have been used for religious purposes, in connection with the sanctuary of Artemis Taurica on the shore. It has always been a mystery what the purpose of these vessels, two hundred feet long and sixty feet broad on a lake of a diameter of four thousand feet, might have been.

It is a matter of regret that the chapter on Jewish memorials in Rome opens with references whose authenticity the author himself questions. There is no reason to believe that the sarcophagus with labels incribed in the twelfth century really contained the bones of the Maccabees who came to Rome in the second century B. C., nor can we believe that the *princeps libertinorum* of Pompeii was the "Rabbi of the local Pompeian synagogue." The Horti Lamiani mentioned because of Caligula's affront to the Jews are described in a most entertaining way. The Arch of Titus with its reliefs, the triumphal gate of the Circus Maximus celebrating the conquest of Judæa, and the Temple and Forum of Peace dedicated four years after the fall of Jerusalem, are the other memorials considered in this chapter.

The remainder of the book, dealing, as it does, with English and Scottish memorials, has to do with the mediæval period, for, with the exception of the remains of the Arch of Claudius, and some pearls and pigs of lead, there are no other memorials from Britain dating in the classical period. The tomb of the Saxon king Caedwalla, who died in Rome in 689, the Schola Saxonum (or Saxon quarter) dating from 727, the Hospice on the site of the barracks of the blue faction of charioteers, and the college built on the same site which entertained John Milton and Richard Crashaw, the residences of the English ambassadors of about the time of the Reformation, and finally the House of St. Gregory, from whose monastery St. Augustine started to preach the gospel in Britain, are the English memorials described.

The style of the author is most satisfactory in its clearness, and there is a marked absence of the obscure, professional form of statement. There is some evidence of carelessness, as when the Maffeian Fasti are classed as named from a place, whereas they are so designated in honor of the great scholar Maffei. The master of Varro was L. Aelius and not Lælius, and the letters in the Bibliotheca Pacis were those of Sinnius Capito and not of Asinnius Capito. Juvenal does not say that the Jews hung baskets on the trees. In the tenth century a mark by old English calculation equalled 100 pennies or denarii, and not 160, so that the families of Britain paying Peter's Pence numbered thirty, and not forty-eight, thousand. The illustrations are excellent and well chosen. Some have already appeared in the *Notizie degli Scavi*, particularly the aerial photographs, which, being distinct, are very useful.

RECENT POETRY.

The rapid increase of books of miscellaneous poetical selections, while valuable as supplying labor-saving machines, brings with it many disadvantages. The names of authors get misplaced; so do commas and semicolons. The copyist makes, unconsciously or consciously, slight alterations which the next transcriber multiplies, and it is only when some careful Dr. Rolfe comes along, after a century or so, that the original version is faithfully restored. One of the farther incidental evils is when a well-meaning editor, like Mr. John Burroughs, gives us 'Songs of Nature' (McClure), and intermingles through his citations English and American daisies, English and American corn, without so much as a hint that his poets describe different species. If the English language is to overspread the earth and to describe natural objects with equal

freedom from Alaska to Australia, we shall ultimately have to bring geography into even the books of poetical selections, or else hopelessly bewilder our children. Even apart from this, Mr. Burroughs's citations are not always accurate; thus, he quotes "Winter Night's Tale" for "Winter's Tale" (p. 27), gives us verses by Mrs. Darmsteter instead of Darmesteter (p. 32), and makes Shakspere's angels sing to the young-eyed "cherubims" instead of "cherubins." He also does some things of which the poets themselves might complain, as in citing the original form of Shelley's "Pine-Forest," instead of the later form; in taking parts of poems without indicating that they are only parts; in dividing the lines in his own way or running together lines which the poet separated, as in Browning's "Home-Thoughts, from Abroad" and the like.

With these limitations the volume has much that is varied and interesting, even in the preface of Mr. Burroughs, were it only for the quality best described as modest arrogance which makes him use the first person singular ten times in the first fourteen lines, and which leads him to venture again upon ground where he has more than once erred in time past, namely, in underrating the variations of nature, and assuming that nothing is true unless he has observed it within his own particular bailiwick. This he does, for instance, when he objects to Lowell for making the male oriole assist in nest-building (p. vii), although he is criticising an observer quite as careful as himself, and one who has once or twice, in times past, proved to be right when Mr. Burroughs was wrong. It may be remembered that the latter once censured Lowell roundly for making dandelions and buttercups bloom together, when it turned out that the critic had never even seen the particular species of buttercup which the poet was describing.

A collection of more permanent value is the series of "Colonial Prose and Poetry," edited by William P. Trent and Benjamin W. Wells (Crowell), contained in three volumes chronologically arranged and entitled respectively 'The Transplanting of Culture,' 'The Beginnings of Americanism,' 'The Growth of the National Spirit,' ranging in all from 1607 to 1775. The selection and distribution of these extracts could scarcely be improved; the combination of the Virginia and New England elements produces a work far more varied and readable than might have been expected; and we miss but few well-known and classic passages, one of these being the protest of the Rev. John Higginson against those settlers who count religion as ten only and the whole world as thirteen. A more serious question is that involved in the modernizing of the spelling, a question on which there will always be two sides, even in books for popular use. In some passages of these volumes, poetry and prose may be said to be combined, as in the description by the Rev. Benjamin Coleman of his friendship with "the incomparable Philomela," otherwise Mrs. Elizabeth Singer of Agford, near Frome, who had a volume of poems then in print, being then about her twenty-fourth year; and whom he found "comely in body, lowly in dress, with a soul fair and bright as an angel." This lady described to him the way in which she and her sister wrote poetry together:

"My sister," said she, "was a year or two younger than I, and her affection as well as wit was quicker. I seemed, however, to myself to think more thoroughly. She desired ever to be with me, and I wanted to be more by myself. We often retired by consent, each to her chamber, to compose and then to compare what we wrote. She always exceeded me in the number of lines, but mine, I think, were more correct" (vol. iii., p. 81).

It is quite difficult to believe that all this happened in a Puritan household in the seventeenth century, but so it was. Mr. Coleman did not, it seems, marry his Philomel, but he nevertheless had a daughter who was also a poet and who wrote verses which were, in the words of our editors, "pathetically impossible."

Another extremely interesting work of selections is 'Flowers from Persian Poets,' edited by Nathan Haskell Dole and Belle M. Walker (Crowell). We understand the extracts given in this work to have been selected by Miss Walker, and only the introduction to have been furnished by Mr. Dole. The work certainly gives an attractive and varied exhibition of the Persian poets hitherto scattered through a variety of volumes. It is beautifully printed.

Another book that may come under the head of collections is 'Walt Whitman's Poetry; A Study and a Selection,' by Edmond Holmes (Lane). The choice of Whitman's poems, some thirty or forty, is the best we have ever seen, and the criticisms are among the best. Mr. Holmes says of Whitman what others have observed, from the English point of view, that "his audience, though small, is select. . . . Popular he certainly is not, and is not likely to become" (p. 51). No one has better described what he calls Whitman's "recitative" manner, saying:

"At its best it is singularly impressive. There are certain inexpressible feelings—large, stormy, dreamy feelings that can never quite come to the birth—which it expresses (if I may be allowed the paradox) with marvellous power and effect. For this particular purpose it has no rival. Indeed, after reading some of Whitman's inspired passages, I feel for the moment as if all forms of metrical verse were by comparison cold, tame, and formal. But there is no other medium of expression in which the transition from poetry to prose is so rapidly or so easily made. Sometimes we find ourselves in the middle of plain, inoffensive prose without quite knowing how we got there" (p. 49).

Mr. Holmes says admirably, to counterbalance this: "One of the advantages of artistic form in poetry is that it makes for reserve and self-control. The poet has to keep back part of what he feels; and this intensifies the effect of what he says" (p. 9). He elsewhere says of Whitman: "He is the last man in the world to consume his own smoke."

Mr. Richard Watson Gilder's thin little volume of 'Poems and Inscriptions' (The Century Co.) inevitably makes the impression of some thinness within. The verses seem somewhat perfunctory, and suggest the possibility that, among his variety of active interests, the undoubted poetic gift of this author may have been somewhat arrested. The little Whitmanesque prose poem of "The Night Pasture" has a pleasing touch, but cannot be called an entire success; while "A Letter from the Farm" lacks a redeeming wit. The "Inscriptions for the Pan-American Exposition" are compact and well expressed, but are they quite worth putting into book form? Even Mr. Stedman's 'Mater Coronata' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), recited at the Yale Bi-centenary, is open in a degree to the same criticism. The very form of the ode has perhaps had its day, and it will be remembered that, of Lowell's three attempts in that direction, only one was really successful.

We have before now expressed our confidence in the poetic quality of Miss Josephine Preston Peabody as seen in her 'Wayfarers,' and still more in her 'Fortune and Men's Eyes,' when compared with the somewhat monotonous and tame volumes of verse which crowd the critic's table. They seem to show a difference of kind rather than of degree—an author evincing not merely talent, but genius. She has now had the farther daring to essay the drama, and there is certainly a continuance of promise. To take Marlowe himself bodily out of his own poems and set him elsewhere is surely no slight undertaking, and yet this is what she has done in her new volume, 'Marlowe' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Its merit has been at once recognized by the critics, but what they do not seem to recognize is the profounder aspect of the book. They perceive the fresh grace of the lyrics interspersed, like this song (p. 124):

Summer-moon, Summer-moon,
  Bless thy golden face.
Come above the downs, now;
  Do the garden grace.
While we are thy care to keep,
Bless the field, bless the sheep;
  Shine on our sleep.

While the nightingales do sing,
  Come, bonny guest.
Thy foot-fall is a silver thing,
  West—west.
Morning goes and afternoon;
Summer will be going soon.
  Ay, Summer-moon!

The critics skim off the love-story from the surface, as if that were all, whereas the author herself skilfully assigns to it a subordinate place. The following lines tell us what the humble heroine was to Marlowe—an influence wholly sweet and good, so far as it went, but by no means potent enough to remould that world-weary life (p. 44):

Lodge.

And yet I could have sworn
Your eyes took interest in the little saint
We saw to-day.

Marlowe.

The little country shrine?
Why, so they did. And, therefore, she was made.
'T is only she will look with pitying gaze
On me in gorgeous torment. Snowflake pity,
Destined to melt and lose itself in fire,
Or ever it can cool my tongue! Ay, Tom,
I owe the Faith more tribute than I pay,
For its apt figures. Con thy Bible, Tom.
I'm glad they chanced here. I shall think, sometimes,
Just of her face: the little Quietude,
Standing in shelter, quite immovable,—
And reach my hand up for a tear, a drop
Of holy water from those hands of hers.
She fills the only need was left to me;
And sooth to say, I never thought of it
Before I saw her.

She, nevertheless, passes out of his life, while he faces his unfinished problem of existence, and dies. Here the young author shows the rare power of making her drama end at a climax, which she reaches in the final monosyllable of the play. This last touch is, indeed, so fine that only a great actor could do it justice; and in this respect, as in others, the reader longs to see it put upon the boards and tested behind the footlights, where so many mediocre things are just now finding their way.

Turning to new poetry of British origin, we find that Mr. John Lane, in most re-

spects an admirable publisher, becomes more and more tantalizing in the smallness of his books. Mrs. Alice Meynell's 'Later Poems' includes but thirty-seven pages. Nothing in this volume perhaps equals that "Letter from a Girl to her Own Old Age," which Ruskin called "perfectly heavenly," but the book is marked by that high-minded intensity which always belongs to its author, at least in verse—for her prose is more unequal. The following lines convey a vivid impression of an object which few Americans have perhaps noticed (p. 26):

NOVEMBER BLUE.

The colour of the electric lights has a strange effect in giving a complementary tint to the air in the early evening.—ESSAY ON LONDON.

O, heavenly colour! London town
Has blurred it from her skies;
And hooded in an earthly brown,
Unheaven'd the city lies.
No longer standard-like this hue
Above the broad road flies;
Nor does the narrow street the blue
Wear, slender pennon-wise.

But when the gold and silver lamps
Colour the London dew,
And, misted by the winter damps,
The shops shine bright anew—
Blue comes to earth, it walks the street,
It dyes the wide air through;
A mimic sky about their feet,
The throng go crowned with blue.

It is the misfortune of Mr. Henley to write during two-thirds of the time on the heights of heaven and love, and the other third in the depths of what he himself calls "the grizzly colonies of the grave." Hence his readers are alternately adoring and despairing. Take, for instance, this as the low-water mark in his 'Hawthorne and Lavender, with Other Verses' (Harpers) (p. lxiv):

Silence, loneliness, darkness—
These, and of these my fill,
While God in the rush of the Maytide
Without is working His will.

Without are the wind and the wall-flowers,
The leaves and the nests and the rain,
And in all of them God is making
His beautiful purpose plain.

But I wait in a horror of strangeness—
A tool on His workshop floor,
Worn to the butt, and banished
His hand forevermore.

Now turn to this (p. xliii):

A world of leafage murmurous and a-twinkle;
The green, delicious plenitude of June;
Love and laughter and song
The blue day long
Going to the same glad, golden tune—
The same glad tune!

Clouds on the dim, delighting skies a-sprinkle;
Poplars black in the wake of a setting moon;
Love and languor and sleep
And the star-sown deep
Going to the same good, golden tune—
The same good tune!

It is to be noticed, however, that, through all this wide range of variation, Mr. Henley's loyal love of wife and home and children remains a constant quantity, so that his books of poetry, at least, yield on the whole more of pleasure than of pain.

The same thing can hardly be said of Thomas Hardy, who, with increasing power of execution, shows an ever-growing tendency both toward the gloomy and toward the coarse, so that, even in his verses, he has to designate by simple dashes words not to be used in good society. It is impossible to regard this as a healthy or wholesome development. It is simply Whitman's "heroic nudity" and the violation of that reserve which higher natures feel. On the other hand, it accompanies at times a habit of vigorous expression which may reach some strong effects, if at too high a cost. If sheer strength is the only object, why was man created, and why were not the lion and the elephant enough? All this comes readily to the mind in reading Mr. Hardy's 'Poems of the Past and the Present' (Harpers). For mere thought and imagination, it is to be noticed that his poems of travel show a healthier tone than those written in England, and, perhaps, even a greater vigor of thought, especially those written at Rome and at Zermatt. We quote, for instance, stanzas written at the pyramid of Cestius, near the graves of Shelley and Keats, in 1887 (p. 53):

Who, then, was Cestius,
And what is he to me?—
Amid thick thoughts and memories multitudinous
One thought alone brings he.

I can recall no word
Of anything he did;
For me he is a man who died and was interred
To leave a pyramid

Whose purpose was exprest
Not with its first design,
Nor till, far down in Time, beside it found their rest
Two countrymen of mine.

Cestius in life, maybe,
Slew, breathed out threatening;
I know not. This I know: in death all silently
He does a kindlier thing,

In beckoning pilgrim feet
With marble finger high
To where, by shadowy wall and history-haunted street,
Those matchless singers lie. . . .

—Say, then, he lived and died
That stones which bear his name
Should mark, through Time, where two immortal Shades abide;
It is an ample fame.

There is at any rate a solid Saxon grapple of thought in all these poems by Mr. Hardy, even where the exercise of muscle is so robust and vigorous that one scarcely calls them poems. They are strangely contrasted in this respect with 'The Wind among the Reeds,' by W. B. Yeats (London: Mathews), to be classed with poems which, as some one has said, "seem little more than sighs that the silence should be broken." The same can hardly be said of 'Wagner's Nibelungen Ring done into English Verse' (Longmans) by Reginald Rankin, in which the touch is somewhat too heavy, so that the book is hard reading, and one rather wishes silence would return.

Historic Towns of the Western States. Edited by Lyman P. Powell. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xxxvi, 702. Illustrated.

Every man thinks his own geese swans, and every city thinks itself superior to its equals and equal to its superiors. It would have somewhat abated this delusion if the last official census of each town treated in 'Historic Towns' had stood at the head and front of its monograph as its "eternal blazon." These figures, largely lacking, have led to mystifications and tampering with comparative tests. Des Moines is declared to have "almost double the population of any other Iowa city," which double is 72,594. Its real census of 62,139 is suppressed. Omaha, silent as to her falling off more than 37,000 from a former census, hides her exact numbers and calls herself "the business centre of 175,000 people"; Cincinnati, with an unmentioned census of 325,902, reckons as "its belongings enough cities and villages across in Kentucky to swell her to the half-million mark." We are informed that "the population of Kansas City, in Missouri, is about 225,000." Had we been vouchsafed its census of 163,752, we should see that "about" excuses counting in more than 55,000 souls. It is added that "the region directly tributary is sure to press the city steadily forward till it ranks with Boston, Baltimore, and St. Louis." Chicago, deeming her 1,698,575 not worth printing, says she is "nearing the two million mark," and hints that predictions of "ten millions ultimately harbored there would not be wildly optimistic." Spokane claims to have grown within thirty years from three persons to fifty thousand; but its actual count of 36,848 nowhere appears. In Salt Lake City the official numbers 53,531 are given, but are also impeached in the same sentence by these words: "though the current city directory, compiled immediately after the census enumeration, gives names and addresses of nearly seventy thousand resident inhabitants." Here and elsewhere "almost" and "very nigh" save many a lie.

The beadroll of vague exaggerations, preferring the doubtful to the certain, is too long to go through. It betrays a scorn of accuracy which is vexatious even to those it cannot mislead, and forebodes further carelessness which is not wanting. The motto of the leading monograph, borrowed from Senator Daniel of Virginia, prints his name "Daniels." Carver's three years' travel is declared to have begun in 1776, yet "the Revolution came afterward." It is stated that Lewis and Clark went to the Columbia in 1803, and that Pike started up the Mississippi in 1804. River Raisin is printed River Basin. "Ad majoram gloriam" also appears. Misprints are too many to be accidental. The first page fixes the founding of Marietta "on the seventh of April, 1788," and its founding is elsewhere mentioned to have been "two months before that of Cincinnati," which is chronicled as two days after Christmas, the same year—a short year when two months stretched from spring to midwinter. Again, in regard to the Indian capture of Mackinac, we are told that "more than two thousand of the English lost their lives" (p. 338). But no historian sets down the total then slain as more than seventy soldiers and a trader or two. Three-score and ten was really an absurd overestimate—originating, perhaps, from the verbal similarity of seventeen and seventy. The official report of the British captain was: "The Indians killed one lieutenant and fifteen rank and file." These dwindling numbers bring to mind the eleven thousand virgins, all martyred with St. Ursula, whose bones some of us wept over in Cologne till we learned that the victims had been multiplied by a verbal misunderstanding; the name of a single maiden Undecimilla (Miss Eleventhousand), when written without an initial capital, being taken for a numeral.

The contributions to this picnic are unequal in everything except in length. One of the best is that on Madison, Wisconsin. Its points are well chosen, dwelt on in due proportion, with none of that boomer effusiveness which is elsewhere such a besetting sin. Critics, however, will cavil at calling pamphlets books, and, while not showing the census of 19,164, talking of Madison as "a community of 25,000"—thus effacing the line between urban and suburban limits.

The preëminences arrogated to several cities are in things doubtful or trivial. Cincinnati rejoices that she stands "nearest the centre of national population," as "always a strategic point," and as the "largest centre of playing-card manufacture." Detroit, pointing with pride to her

"sunsets as unrivalled," provokes Shaksporians to ask: "Has Britain all the sun that shines?" She notes that more tonnage passes by her than enters and leaves London and Liverpool. Every Channel town may say as much. Cleveland shows a portrait of Artemus Ward, because he sojourned there two years. Like a circle in the water, she never ceases to enlarge herself; says that half our millions cluster round her within 700 miles, and that "Garfield, Hayes, and McKinley may be considered citizens of greater Cleveland"—whatever that may be. Her chapter is headed "The Pleasant City." Redolent of the Standard Oil Company, her favorite child, and aspiring to be more sooty and smoky than Pittsburgh, she persists in the iteration and reiteration, from first to last, of "so pleasant."

We have exposed certain peccadilloes in the book under review, not because it is bad, but because it is so good. It supplies a desideratum, and its faults are of easy correction. Type, paper, illustrations, and general make-up are not far from immaculate. The introduction binds up, so far as may be, the scattered ears into a sheaf. It is a scholarly exhibit of the natural causes, in mines, soil, rivers, lakes, as well as the moral, political, economic causes, of settlement and expansion. Its weakest monographs teach us much we are glad to know and cannot find elsewhere. Its nonsense is suited to popular nonsense, and will heighten its popularity. Its sphere will be wider than its own West, and it will win many to Westernize.

Two Centuries of Christian Activity at Yale. Edited by James B. Reynolds, Samuel H. Fisher, Henry B. Wright, Committee of Publication. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

It was to be expected that a volume of this kind would be one of the monuments distinguishing Yale's bicentennial celebration. It was also to be expected that it would be a better book than the one actually in hand. Its main defect, which is more particularly characteristic of the first six chapters (all, together with the thirteenth, by one writer, H. B. Wright), is that the religious life of the college and university is regarded almost exclusively as a matter of successive religious revivals, as if these were not largely responsible for the periods of moral and spiritual indifference that intervened between the spasmodic ebullitions. Much ado is made about the influence of French infidelity as causing the condition which followed hard upon our Revolutionary war. But this condition was more obviously the result of a reaction from the excitement of the Great Awakening and the subsequent eruptions of Whitefield's fiery zeal.

The most interesting episode of the first chapter is that of the Rev. Timothy Cutler's secession to the Episcopal Church, with the sole tutor who, with him, then President or Rector, constituted the entire faculty. This was in 1722, soon after the removal of the college from Milford and Saybrook, where the students had been scattered abroad, to New Haven. President Cutler's first innovation consisted in saying, "And let all the people say, Amen," at the end of his commencement prayer. Dr. Woolsey wrote in 1850, "I suppose that greater alarm would scarcely be awakened now if the Theological Faculty of the college were to declare for the Church of Rome, avow their belief in transubstantiation, and pray to the Virgin Mary." The offenders were sharply cut off, and a hedge was built about the lawn to keep off all sheep which had not the Congregational mark, and that clearly defined. The next President, Elisha Williams, had been "sanctified by a severe fit of illness in 1720." This method of sanctification seems to have had great efficacy at that time, and further on. "It pleased God," says Jonathan Edwards, "to seize me with a pleurisy, in which he brought me well nigh to the grave, and shook me over the pit of Hell." His conversion immediately ensued. An epidemic of smallpox, in 1721, and of diphtheria, in 1735, and an earthquake, in 1727, are associated with Jonathan Edwards's local revival in 1734, as proximate causes of the Great Awakening of 1741.

A second chapter has for its subject that awakening and its effects. The view is wholly sympathetic. There is no suggestion of the arrogance of Whitefield's spiritual manners, nor of the excesses which filled the mind of Jonathan Edwards with profound anxiety, mixed with some distrust. Thomas Clap, then President of Yale, was at first extremely hostile to Whitefield, and there were expulsions of Brainerd and others from the college for adherence to the New Lights. It was certainly unkind of Brainerd to say that Tutor Whittlesey had no more grace than a chair when he had prayed an hour continuously in his best manner. President Clap had softened so much in 1754 that, when Whitefield called on him, he "treated him much like a gentleman," and later he became distinctly favorable to him. Nevertheless, until the Timothy Dwight revival of 1802, the decline of religious interest was strongly marked.

Mr. Wright seems not to know of any shades of belief between a high orthodoxy and "infidelity." A violent attempt is made to show that there were special reasons why only one student was present at a communion service in 1799 or 1800; but in comparison with the labor, the effect is small. An invidious comparison is made between an evangelized Yale in the first decades of the last century and Harvard, where the Unitarian movement prospered, having for its creed "Salvation must be obtained by culture"—an unaccredited quotation behind which Mr. Wright betakes himself for a division of responsibility. President Stiles is handled softly, considering the extent of his aberration from the stricter orthodoxy of his time and his friendly relations with Benjamin Franklin. It would not have been amiss, in speaking of the revival of 1831 and Bushnell's part in it, to have mentioned his 'Christian Nurture' as the most pungent criticism on revivalistic methods that they have received *ab intra*, as it were. A little further on we read, "William Lloyd Garrison's frenzied attack on the Church in 1837 was not without its effect. At Yale the firemen's riots and the killing of Tutor Dwight give evidence of a disturbing element in the early forties." Here the *post hoc* seems to be meant to suggest a *propter hoc*, but the conjunction may be accidental. One of the best chapters is that of the Rev. Timothy Dwight, "The College Pastorate." The Young Men's Christian Association also has a chapter, which it richly deserves in support of the opinion expressed in the introduction that all other agencies have done less for the Christian temper of the college as it is to-day than that association.

The Life of Lord Russell of Killowen. By R. Barry O'Brien of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. 405.

This bright, sketchy piece of work is likely to interest lawyers most of all. The author, an old friend and a great admirer of the late Chief Justice, tells the story of a remarkable career in a style calculated to entertain the reader, if it does not greatly instruct him. He accords to Russell the possession of extraordinary powers, but is content to state the fact rather than to illustrate it by examples.

Lord Russell died suddenly in August, 1900, at the age of sixty-eight, completely worn out by work kept up continuously at high pressure. He sat upon the bench for a period too brief to discover whether his fame as a consummate cross-examiner and a great winner of verdicts was to be surpassed by his accomplishments as a judge. That Sir Charles Russell was a wonderfully successful lawyer is universally conceded. Of Irish birth and a stanch Catholic, Russell stood up for Ireland wherever he had opportunity. Starting as a solicitor at Belfast, in 1854, he determined, alone and friendless, to try his fortune in London. He was called to the English bar in 1859. Intensely devoted to his profession, he by rapid strides advanced to be a leader on the Northern Circuit. He "took silk" in 1872. He appeared in great causes. Of course, he entered Parliament, and as a Liberal evinced conspicuous ability in one or two speeches; but he reserved his strength for contests at the bar. The steady growth in distinction that rewarded Sir Charles Russell's industry made his name well known in America. His masterly exposure of Pigott before the Parnell Commission earned for him unstinted praise. He was of counsel in the Bering Sea arbitration, and later, when Chief Justice, he sat as an arbitrator in the Venezuela affair. By advice of Gladstone he became Attorney-General, in 1886. Entering the House of Lords in May, 1894, he was almost immediately afterward, upon the death of Lord Coleridge, made Lord Chief Justice of England. In 1896 Lord Russell visited the United States for a second time, and delivered at Saratoga the annual address before the American Bar Association, which added to his already high reputation here.

Material for a successful biography is not usually rich in the case of a great lawyer or of a great judge. The life of such a man lacks stirring events. A clever writer, however, can make an interesting presentation if he has a clear insight into the character of his subject, together with the art of pleasing delineation. Mr. Barry O'Brien is in entire sympathy with his task, but the art in question he is not master of. We gather that Sir Charles was a man of imposing personal appearance. Our author expresses the fact in such form as this: "In truth he was more than a great orator; he was a great personality" (p. 95). "He was always big; that was his great characteristic" (p. 97). "In addressing the jury, as in cross-exam-

ining the witnesses, it was Russell's personality that really told" (p. 102). "On the turf, as everywhere, his personality was felt" (p. 348). In a like abrupt manner we are told of a certain prejudice that Sir Charles displayed: "Russell hated fur coats as much as he hated pretence and pomposity" (p. 107); "Russell could not bear Astrachan coats" (p. 190). The following burst of admiration, we are free to say, exceeds anything to be found in Lord Campbell's Lives. It appears in a tribute from a barrister: "'Ordinarily,' says a shrewd observer, 'the judge dominates the jury, the counsel, the public—he is the central figure of the piece. But when Russell is there the judge isn't in it. Russell dominates every one'" (p. 103).

As the reader may surmise from the tone of these extracts, there is a lack of dignity in the author's treatment of the subject. For this shortcoming Russell has to suffer. Mr. O'Brien does not touch the springs of our affection in behalf of his friend, but whether the defect lie in the subject or in the biographer himself it may not be worth our while further to inquire.

Because of a certain freedom of treatment and a liberal sprinkling of anecdote the book is rather agreeable reading, but it is not of much value viewed as literature. The keenest estimates of Russell are contributed by others. Hoey remarks: "Russell does not leave many corners of your mind unsearched" (p. 224); while Mr. Jelf, in a very interesting article, says of him: "His chief fault was a kind of intolerance of stupidity, prolixity, or inaccuracy, which led him at times unconsciously to do injustice both to counsel and witnesses. He seemed unable to make allowance for the inferior mental capacity of those with whom he had to deal" (p. 329).

The Roman Theocracy and the Republic: 1846-1849. By R. M. Johnston. Macmillan Co. 1901.

Mr. R. M. Johnston, a young American scholar educated and living in Europe, has written a very readable book on the Italian situation during the first three years of the pontificate of Pius IX. As the title suggests, the chief interest centres around the conflict between the theocratic and the democratic elements in Rome itself; but, in order to make this clear, the author gives us in outline the history of the exceedingly complicated negotiations and the widely divergent interests that were, in their way, both causes and consequences of the central struggle. The policy of the man Pius, the interests of the young democracy of France, the ardent strivings of the apostles of Italian liberty at any cost, the reactionary forces of Austria and Naples, the ambitions of Savoy, the furious passions of the secret societies, Jesuit, Carbonari, Sanfedists, and all the rest—these form the material out of which the historian has to weave his narrative. To give a place to them all without a wearisome mass of detail, to show their interworking without confusion, is a problem which Mr. Johnston has solved with unusual success. He has had access to good sources, and has used them with an evident desire to be fair. It is not easy to determine at the close whether he is Catholic or Protestant, so clearly does he sympathize with whatever is sincere and forward-looking on either side. Yet it would not be true to say that his presentation is colorless. The portrayal of Pius IX., for instance, is plainly touched with great feeling for the good intention with which this Pope began, and for the immense difficulties he had to meet. It is only another contribution to the mass of evidence that the functions of a theocratic ruler and the head of a democratic state are simply irreconcilable. The excellent pope must necessarily prove a thoroughly useless ruler.

Equally fair is the judgment of Mazzini, which appears in Mr. Johnston's references to his part in the Roman conflict. A hopeless idealist, seeing but one great object and regarding all others as mere contributors to this, Mazzini was inevitably out of his place in the midst of the Roman crisis. Yet, as the story of this Roman episode progresses, one is led to feel that it was, after all, only an episode in the larger conflict out of which a united Italy, heir to all the problems and all the weaknesses of her pathetic past, was to arise.

Mr. Johnston's volume is enriched by a bibliography of some twenty-five pages, and several useful documentary illustrations.

The True History of Captain John Smith. By Katherine Pearson Woods. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

The life and adventures of the redoubtable Captain John Smith have of late years been the subject of somewhat fierce contention, which, oddly enough, turns less upon the important things which he unquestionably did, than upon those which it is of no consequence whether he ever did or not. It is really of very little matter whether he was ever thrown overboard in a storm at sea and swam to shore; whether he was or was not a slave in "Cambia" and escaped by knocking out his master's brains; or whether he decapitated three Turks with one sword, or one Turk with three swords. It is true that "the lady Charatza Tragabigzanda," who cast upon her captive an eye of favor, suggests a number of old romances, as her name suggests that of "the Princess Micomicona"; but such things have happened before; and as for her name, latter-day Greek spelt by Smith according to the light of nature might account for more than this. These matters do not affect the course of history, which is here concerned only with the undisputed fact that, whatever his perils and sufferings were, he survived them and lived to plant the colony of Virginia.

The historical part of Smith's career is told by Miss Woods in a sprightly and agreeable way, which brings Smith very clearly before us. Few men have had more difficulties to contend with, and few have contended with them more valiantly. That he had a genius for colonization and exploration, the veriest skeptic cannot deny; but to the present writer his map of the Chesapeake Bay and its shores is a greater marvel than the decollation of any number of Turks.

The book is handsomely illustrated. The old maps of Southern Russia are interesting, and, we believe, are reproduced here for the first time. That of part of Transylvania (promised in the preface) does not appear. The "Rolfe" portrait of Pocahontas is, no doubt, genuine; but as for the "Sully" portrait, credulity itself must reject it. Apart from the utter incompatibility of the features, no such dress could have been worn in the first quarter of the seventeenth century either in London or at Werowocomico. The blazon of Smith's coat-of-arms is taken from Arber; but it contradicts not only the rules of heraldry, but the description in the text. Thus, in the first quarter, instead of "vert, a chevron gules," we have here argent, a chevron party per pale, or and azure. In the second quarter, for a field azure, we have a field argent; and in the third instead of argent, a bend azure, we have or, a bend engrailed argent!

History of Intellectual Development on the Lines of Modern Evolution. By John Beattie Crozier. Vol. III. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

When we bade a hopeful *revoir* to Mr. Crozier's History at the end of its first volume, Christianity was just thoroughly established; but, the second-projected volume having been skipped, we are now surprised with a third, devoted, half to the nineteenth century and half to the twentieth. We are very sorry that failing eyesight was the cause of this change of plan, as we suppose it also was of there being no history, but only disquisition, in the third volume. But we are heartily glad to meet Mr. Crozier again on any terms, for he always has something to say which were well worth reading, even if it were not set forth in a style which would make almost any matter pleasurable—a style which this iron age is not all accustomed to. What he now gives is the application of what we should have learned in the second volume to the politics of England, France, and America of to-day. He lays down four "rules of practical statesmanship" as the lessons which we should have learned from the unwritten volume, and then proceeds to apply them modestly, as mere exemplifications of their meanings, to the condition of the three countries named. The rules are as follows: First, consider the genius of your nation. Don't try to make a lap-dog of a horse; but limit yourself to such excellences as your stock can vitally assimilate. Second, make for the ideal in a steady march; but do not leap to it. Third, break down any barriers which may prevent one caste from being recruited from another. Fourth, restrict your aim to improving the material and social condition of your country; and do not attempt to change the character of your people.

When he comes to deal with the United States, Mr. Crozier finds the government so perfect that no room is left for other than minor suggestions:

"For," says he, "if we consider it, there is no one of the great objects for which government exists that has not for the last hundred years been abundantly provided for and safeguarded by the Federal Constitution—life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness, security of person and property, freedom of religious opinion and worship, and, above all, an open arena, with equal rights, equal opportunities, and equal access to positions of honor and trust for all—and that, too, in a degree unknown elsewhere in the world, with the exception, perhaps, of certain colonies still attached to the British crown."

Of course, it is our duty to be amused

at every remark that a foreigner may make upon our politics; and we are a little amused at Mr. Crozier's imagining that the Federal Senate is much freer from evil influences than the House. The best of his hints is, that a great part of the business of House committees, being of the nature of inquiry into facts, ought to be conducted somewhat according to the rules of a court, evidence being heard in public. He also suggests that private bills and other exceptional legislation ought to be discussed in a large and public committee before going to the special committee.

Mr. Crozier is very much opposed to abstractions in politics (such as equality and the like) being considered as ends. He is willing to grant that they may be commendable means. But an end, in his view, must be something strictly concrete and free from all generalization—at least in politics. Some will think that that opinion affords an accurate gauge of Mr. Crozier's philosophical calibre. Anybody whom his former books reminded of 'Typical Developments' will be capable of smiling at parts of this; but it must be acknowledged that it abounds in suggestions, as we have said, and the ornate and almost poetical style would render far less solid matter agreeable reading.

The Meaning of the Good: A Dialogue. By G. Lowes Dickinson, Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons. 1901.

With certain notable exceptions, the deeply thoughtful philosophical books have not been popular. The philosopher ordinarily claims the scholar's exemption from solicitude for the unscholarly public. Since the common man is not under the necessity of being a biologist, or a philologian, or an archæologist, the mutual reserve of the scholar and the public is congenial to each. But the case of the philosopher is anomalous, because everybody must be a philosopher. There are good and bad archæologists, and men that are not archæologists at all; but all men are either good or bad philosophers. Hence, if the scholarly philosopher keeps himself from the people, they must turn to the nearest prophet, and he is very likely to be a quack. Contemporary writers, such as Caird, Paulsen, Royce, and James, have taken pains to offer their best thought in such form as makes it accessible to the general reading public; but the majority acknowledge no such duty. Mr. Lowes Dickinson has made a distinct contribution to popular philosophy, in that he has succeeded in expressing himself in the language of literature without ceasing to be a philosopher.

This book raises the central problems of ethics in the course of a very frank and untechnical discussion carried on by a group of men representing widely different occupations and interests. The ethical theories scholastically denominated as Hedonism, Intuitionism, Rationalism, and Idealism appear in this fictitious dialogue as the expression of different aspects of the common man's moral experience. The discussion is given a certain unity by the progressive effort to define the Ultimate Good, or that which lends value to life and is fit to be the highest object of endeavor. But it is finally concluded that there are many good things which are good because human experience finds them to be so, though they are capable of comparison in respect of such considerations as their permanence or their intrinsicality. Experience, being "a progressive discovery of the Good," finds in the highest forms of love the nearest approach to that final ideal.

The account is not altogether satisfactory in its outcome, because, though it admits the impossibility of naming a concrete good that shall be universal and ultimate; it does not provide for the formal definition of the Good in terms of self-realization. But, taken as a whole, the book is both inviting in its style and stimulating in its thoughtfulness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, V. de L. The Revolt and the Escape. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Agle, W. C. Eastern Peru and Bolivia. Seattle (Wash.): The Homer M. Hill Pub. Co. 50 cents.
Bell, Malcolm. Rembrandt van Rijn. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Cheney, J. V. Lyrics. Boston: C. C. Birchard & Co.
Cortina, R. D. (1) Narraciones, por Fernán Caballero; (2) Episodios. R. D. Cortina.
Everett-Green, E. True Stories of Girl Heroines. London: Hutchinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Fabre, J. H. Insect Life. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hale, E. E. En Son Nom. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Hibbard, Grace. California Violets: A Book of Verse. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.
Holme, Charles. English Water Colour, Parts I. and II. (The "Studio" Library.) The International Studio. $1 each part.
Huntington, Annie O. Studies of Trees in Winter. Boston: Knight & Millet.
Jekyll, Gertrude. Lilies for English Gardens. (The "Country Life" Library.) Scribners. $2.50.
Kellor, Frances A. Experimental Sociology. Macmillan. $2.
Lake, Katharine. Memorials of William Charles Lake, Dean of Durham. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $5.50.
Laurie, S. S. The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Macmillan, Hugh. The Corn of Heaven. Macmillan. $1.75.
Macmillan's Guides: (1) Palestine and Egypt; (2) Italy: (3) The Eastern Mediterranean; and (4) The Western Mediterranean. Macmillan.
Mayor, J. B. Chapters on English Metre. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
O'Conor, Manus. Old-Time Songs and Ballads of Ireland. The Popular Publishing Co. $2.
Perkins, F. M. Giotto. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Perrault, Charles. Tales of Passed Times. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.
Rannie, D. W. Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne, Vol. V. Oxford (Eng.): Oxford Historical Society.
Ross, Ronald. Mosquito Brigades, and How to Organize Them. Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.
Rowntree, B. S. Poverty: A Study of Town Life. Macmillan. $3.50.
St. Cyres, Viscount. François de Fénelon. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Sayle, Charles. Meditations and Vows, Divine and Moral. By Joseph Hall. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Smith, W. W. A Course in First Year Latin. W. R. Jenkins. $1.
Smith, B. W. "Uncle Boston's" Spicy Breezes. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Stoddard, C. W. In the Footprints of the Padres. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.50.
The Temple Bible: Exodus, Leviticus, Matthew, and Mark. London: J. M. Dent & Co. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Thwaites, R. G. Jesuit Relations. Vols. lxxii., lxxiii. Index. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company.
Tomlinson, E. T. In the Wyoming Valley. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Travers, M. W. The Experimental Study of Gases. Macmillan.
Vallery-Radot, R. The Life of Pasteur. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Waller, A. R. The Civilizing of the Matapanus. London: R. Brimley Johnson. 1s.
Watson, B. F. Addresses, Reviews, and Episodes Chiefly concerning the "Old Sixth" Massachusetts Regiment. Published by the Author.
Who's Who, 1902. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Willard, C. D. History of Los Angeles City. Los Angeles: Kingsley-Barnes & Neuner Company.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 30, 1902.

The Week.

It is President Schurman who is now guilty of inflaming the Filipino mind by his recent insistence that the only honorable course for this country is to give independence to the islanders. Hitherto it has been Mr. Bryan, or Mr. Hoar, or the Boston Anti-Imperialists, or the independent newspapers who did such deadly work by standing up for the rights of the Filipinos. But now Mr. Schurman, President of the first Philippine Commission, and versed in Philippine affairs, is really undoing all the splendid service of the troops and inciting the natives to fresh resistance by his doctrine, enunciated last week in Boston, that, if we went to war for any other than an altruistic purpose, we laid ourselves open to the charge of manslaughter. Gen. Wheaton, the acting commander in the islands, is reported to have said that in the Philippines men have been sent to prison for such remarks as those of President Schurman. The latter does well to retort:

> "If that be true, it is the saddest and most discouraging truth that has come to us for a long time from the Philippines. Without freedom of speech, civil government will never win the support of the Filipinos."

The question cannot be settled even temporarily by choking and smothering. Experience has abundantly shown that no government has ever yet been wise enough to pick the doctrine, or set of doctrines, that can safely be suppressed. Attempted suppression will only make opposition the fiercer. If this counsel for independence "be of men, it will come to naught; but if it be of God, ye cannot overthrow it, lest haply ye be found even to fight against God."

The New York *Sun* considers President Schurman to have misinterpreted the language employed in President Roosevelt's message, which, it says, was *not* "a declaration in favor of scuttle at any future time, a prediction of the lowering of the American flag by and by, or of the abandonment of the sovereignty acquired by the treaty of Paris." We agree that the President's language might have been more explicit, yet we cannot see that Mr. Schurman enlarged its meaning or put an unwarranted construction upon it. What is the "great burden" that we are to be relieved of when the natives show the power of governing themselves? It must be the burden of governing the islands. The President could not have had in his mind the burden of killing the inhabitants, burning their villages, destroying their food, and subjecting to torture those who refuse to give up their guns. That is indeed a great and sorrowful burden, but it is not the one the President had in mind. Is there any other meaning to be put upon his words? The only alternative is to suppose that he meant to express the hope that the time would come when we might stand in the same relation to the Philippines in which Great Britain stands in reference to Canada. But if he had meant that, he would have said so. Canada adheres to Great Britain not by compulsion, but by choice. If the Filipinos were attached to us in that way, nobody would speak of them as a burden, to be relieved of as soon as possible.

Announcement was made on Friday that the treaty by which Denmark cedes her West India islands to the United States had been signed at last. As the *Tribune's* dispatch puts it: "This consummation of protracted negotiations, which will put the United States in possession of the strategic key of the Caribbean, and relieve Denmark of a steady drain on her resources, came unexpectedly after the hope had almost been abandoned." But it appears from the same dispatch that several steps are to be taken before the "consummation" is fully consummated. There are still wanting, on this side of the water, ratification by the Senate, and an appropriation of $4,500,000 by the House; on the other side, ratification by the Danish Rigsdag; and, midway, the assent of a majority of the people of the islands, by popular vote. Whether all the people are to vote, or only the whites, is not stated. This is a matter of some importance, since they are mostly blacks and mulattoes. Thirty-five years ago the saddling of these islands upon the United States was as nearly consummated as it is now, but the Senate declined at that time to "relieve Denmark of a steady drain on her resources" by assuming the burden ourselves. Shortly after the Seward-Rassloff treaty was rejected, the island of St. Thomas was so terribly shaken by an earthquake that the harbor was practically abandoned as a commercial entrepôt, and the shipping which formerly centred there took refuge at Barbados.

It is a serious question which the Senate now has to pass upon. Shall we acquire another group of islands, to be either neglected or treated in the same way that we treat the inhabitants of the Philippines, Porto Rico, and Cuba? The latter is, to all intents and purposes, one of our possessions, and may therefore serve as a kind of beacon-light to show us what we should avoid. The leading question of our national policy to-day is whether we shall allow Cuban sugar to be imported at lower rates of duty than those of the Dingley tariff. The whole question is agitated by that question. Next to it in importance is the question, What shall be the rates of duty on the sugar and other products of the Philippines? If we acquire the Danish Islands, the question will be, What rates of duty shall we impose upon the sugar of Santa Cruz? The other islands, it should be remarked, have no products, or none to be exported to the United States. Ultimately, we may assume that the products of all islands belonging to us will be admitted free of duty. This is what the sugar-planters of Santa Cruz count upon. This is what our beet-sugar men will have to reckon upon. But that is not all. This is the first step toward other West Indian annexations. The same reasons which prompt us to take the Danish possessions apply to any and all others, of the burden of which any European Power wishes to be relieved. The islands are desperately poor. Those for which we are now asked to give $4,500,000 of good money would not be accepted as a free gift if the Senators who have to vote upon the treaty should visit them in person. They will simply bring us new responsibilities and new expenses. Every argument that caused the rejection of the Seward treaty in 1867 remains in full force to-day, while the one argument in favor of it—that we were without any naval station in those waters—has ceased to have force since we have acquired Porto Rico.

Evidence is accumulating that something will be done speedily by Congress for the relief of Cuba, by a reduction of the duties on sugar grown on that island. The greatest apparent obstacle to such a step hitherto has been the supposed need of making an equal reduction to all countries with which we have treaty relations embracing the "most favored nation" clause. Investigations of the subject made by high authorities lead to the conclusion that the "most favored nation" clause does not apply to a country bearing the relations to us that Cuba bears at the present time. Mr. Frank D. Pavey has prepared a brief in behalf of the Chamber of Commerce of the island of Cuba, in which he maintains that, "during the military occupation of Cuba by the United States, Cuban products have the same international status as American products." At first sight this proposition strikes the reader as a surprise, but it has the support of Chief Justice Marshall and of the English Admiralty Courts. In the case decided by Marshall,

a ship carrying sugar, grown on the Danish island of Santa Cruz, and owned by a Danish subject, was captured during the war of 1812 by an American privateer and brought into an American port as a prize of war, on the ground that Santa Cruz had been captured, and was then actually held, by Great Britain. The court held that the sugar was lawful prize, saying that, "although acquisitions made during war are not considered permanent until confirmed by treaty, yet to every commercial and belligerent purpose they are considered part of the domain of the conqueror, so long as he retains the possession and government of them. The island of Santa Cruz, after its capitulation, remained a British island until it was restored to Denmark."

An opinion of Prof. J. B. Moore of Columbia University runs the same way. As quoted in the morning press, he says that when the reciprocity treaty between the United States and Hawaii was concluded in 1875, Germany acknowledged in a treaty that the "most favored nation" clause could not be invoked to secure the admission by us of German sugar free, since "the relations of proximity and other considerations" were not the same. The conditions which operated in the case of Hawaii, Professor Moore contends, "exist in the case of Cuba with a force and completeness not to be found in any other country not under the titular sovereignty of the United States." His general conclusion is, that the "most favored nation" clause does not stand in the way of the mutual reduction of duties on trade with Cuba. There is, perhaps, no higher authority in this country than the gentleman who gives this opinion.

The hearings before the Committee on Ways and Means on the Cuban sugar question were enlivened on January 22 by a colloquy between Mr. Richardson and Gen. Grosvenor. In the course of a statement made by Mr. Oxnard, the representative of the beet-sugar interests, the latter referred to Mr. H. O. Havemeyer and the Sugar Trust as the parties behind the movement for a reduction of the duties on Cuban sugar. Mr. Richardson asked whether he meant to say that President Roosevelt had been moved by the Sugar Trust to recommend such reduction. That Mr. Richardson's arrow went to the mark was proved by the start which it gave to Gen. Grosvenor, who "denounced such proceedings," and made the point of order that Mr. Richardson was trying to lead the witness (Oxnard) to attack the President of the United States. Mr. Richardson calmly replied that he had no such intention, and that he was seeking the truth. Then Mr. Oxnard disclaimed any intention to reflect upon the President. So the net purport of his statement was that the Sugar Trust had "put up the job" of reciprocity with Cuba, but that the President of the United States, from whom the movement derived its principal force and impetus, was as innocent as a lamb. The result of this tilt in the Committee was very damaging to the opponents of the measure for the relief of Cuba.

Another heavy blow was struck by ex-President Cleveland in a letter to Mr. A. B. Farquhar of York, Pa. Mr. Farquhar had asked him for an expression of his views on the subject of Cuban reciprocity. The latter replied that he considered the arguments of the beet-sugar men in opposition to the petition of the Cubans fallacious, mistaken, and misleading, but that the question "involves considerations of morality and conscience higher and more commanding than all others"; adding,

> "The obligations arising from these considerations cannot be better or more forcibly defined than was done by President Roosevelt in his message to Congress, nor better emphasized than has been done by Secretary Root; and yet Congress waits, while we occasionally hear of concessions which rich sugar interests might approve in behalf of trembling Cuba. I do not believe that nations, any more than individuals, can safely violate the rules of honesty and fair dealing."

We hold strongly to the belief that, if President Roosevelt shall, in this case, emulate the firmness and persistence with which Mr. Cleveland, in 1893, pushed the bill to repeal the Sherman Act, the measure for Cuban reciprocity which he and Secretary Root have so admirably presented to Congress will be passed in time to afford the needed relief.

Unfortunate Mr. Hepburn held back his speech of January 9 on the Nicaragua Canal Bill from the *Congressional Record* for ten days; but if he hoped to revise it into a less ridiculous conflict with the facts subsequently developed, he found the task impossible. He could not take back his high praise of the Canal Commission. There was Admiral Walker at the head of it, a man "most admirably fitted by his reading, his experience, his industry, his fidelity to duty." The report of the Commission was "well considered," and was in favor of the Nicaragua route. For what more did the House wish to wait? "We have their report"; let not the House be further beguiled about the possibilities of Panama. But, alas, before this appeal got into type, "we have their report" unanimously in favor of Panama; "admirably fitted" Admiral Walker, with his known fidelity to duty, signing with the rest. Any one but Hepburn so caught would look foolish; so would any House caught voting under his dictation. But the intrepid Congressman coolly announces that while facts may alter, his opinion based on them will remain the same, and that there is nothing in the revised report of the Commission to "lead to any abandonment of efforts in behalf of the Nicaragua route."

Rumors that there will be no canal legislation at all during this session of Congress have at least this foundation in fact, that exorbitant demands by Colombia or Nicaragua and Costa Rica may so disgust and chill Congress that it will vote no money at all for the present. The truth seems to be that the Central American countries concerned think they see a glittering prize all ready for their seizing. They have their eyes upon the surplus in our Treasury, and are simply figuring out how much of it they may get, to place it where they know it will do the most good. We understand that even the apparent check to their hopes has not made the Nicaraguan authorities a whit less exigent in their financial demands. If Colombia, as is reported, thinks that this country is now bound to take the Panama canal, and that she may therefore ask any sum she pleases for rental of the necessary territory, she will get a most rude awakening. All depends now upon a reasonable proposal by the Colombian Government. It should not forget that there are many men in Congress opposed to paying anything whatever for right of way.

It is apparent that the provisions for general subsidy in the pending Frye bill are introduced for amendment, and that various specially objectionable features of former bills have been temporarily withheld for the purpose of allaying Republican opposition. But, in spite of this, the new bill as it stands shows the essential injustice of any system of general ship subsidy; that is, the injustice of any subsidy except such as is paid for the purpose of calling into being new means of communication to specified foreign ports, to which such means are now lacking, and where they could not exist without Government aid. Among the iniquities of the pending bill is the fact that nothing in it will prevent an empty ship from collecting a full subsidy. This will interest those who are contending that the bill will operate to increase our commerce, and who allow that subsidies should be paid only in proportion to the cargo carried. Then there is the same old provision about vessels owned by corporations; that is, if the corporation is formed in this country, the stock may really be owned by foreigners, and the subsidy paid out of American taxes may all go as dividends to foreigners. There is no provision in the bill which will secure the establishment of any new means of communication, or will prevent the Government funds from going as a bonus to increase the dividends of those al-

ready engaged in the shipping business, even though they provide no increased facilities for the public. There is no adequate guarantee that the subsidy will not eventually be given to foreign-built ships whenever Americans consider it for their interest to buy these ships and to obtain a special American registry for them, as has so frequently been done in the past by the companies which are pressing this bill.

Senator Nelson's bill to establish a Department of Commerce has passed the Senate with comparatively little opposition. On Wednesday week that body received a letter from Mr. Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, protesting against the transfer of the Bureau of Labor to the charge of the new Secretary. The trouble is the old one of "saving my order." Nobody objects to the establishment of a Department of Commerce, but nobody wants to see his particular interests incorporated into a general scheme of organization, even if such a scheme would conduce to the public good. Mr. Gompers puts his objection bluntly. The Bureau of Labor, he says, was organized at the request of the labor interests of the country, in the hope that it might ultimately become one of the executive departments of the Government, with a Secretary of Labor in the Cabinet. If it should be incorporated into any other, the "interests of labor" would be "minimized." In the end the new department was dubbed "of Commerce and Labor." A tendency of quite another sort was displayed by Senator Quarles's defeated amendment vesting the new Secretary with power to supervise the collection of statistics on commercial subjects made by the other departments of the Government.

Interviews with the officers of several national banks in New York indicate that there is general opposition to Representative Lloyd's bill permitting national banking associations to make loans upon real-estate security. Although the bill limits the amount of advances on real estate to 25 per cent. of the total loans of any bank, those who have been consulted are practically unanimous in condemning the plan, because real-estate security is not a quick asset. This, however, is not the only objection to real-estate loans. There is always a question about even the ultimate value of the property offered as security, and it often happens that banks find it necessary in times of depression to take over the real estate on which they have made loans, in order to protect themselves against the loss which would result if the property were suddenly thrown on the market. The fact is that no such extension of activity as the making of real-estate loans should be granted to any commercial bank, least of all to those which hold the reserves of the country, and may be called upon at any moment to furnish the current funds needed to meet sudden demands for cash. Further, as Mr. A. B. Hepburn points out, the banks in the large inland cities are often quite as important factors in maintaining the solvency of the country as are those of New York, since our system of reserve cities places in their hands the balances of the surrounding country. The national system must be made more attractive to capital, not by weakening the legitimate restrictions that have been thrown about the business of banking under it, but by removing the unnecessary ones which prevent the banks from using their credit by note issues.

The continued decline in the national bank currency and the withdrawals of deposited bonds from the Treasury indicate with renewed force the necessity of taking measures for revenue reduction. Secretary's Gage's policy in keeping the surplus down by means of bond purchases is effective enough as a temporary measure, but it results in raising the price of the bonds, and making it more profitable for the banks to sell them than to use them as a basis for circulation. It not merely raises the price of the outstanding bonds, but, should it continue, will take all the purchasable bonds out of the market. The national debt is now $105,000,000 less than during the summer of 1899. During January alone, purchases of bonds by the Treasury have amounted to a par value of $3,734,160, requiring an expenditure of $5,285,371 for the payment of principal and premiums. How the bond-purchases tighten the market is shown by the decline in offers of bonds to the Treasury from nearly $12,000,000 in November to less than $4,000,000 during January. Moreover, the bond-secured circulation, which stood at $328,845,067 in September last, will have been reduced to $317,500,000 at the end of March, and there is no apparent reason why the decline should stop at the last-mentioned figure. Evidently Congress must find some way, consistently with the safety of the noteholders, to take off the shackles from the national-banking system.

Some exceedingly interesting testimony regarding last year's Northwestern railway deals was submitted on Saturday at Chicago. We imagine that the public mind will be chiefly impressed by Mr. Harriman's testimony as to the use of the Union Pacific's credit in the operation. This witness had stated that, to-day, neither the Union Pacific, Southern Pacific, nor Oregon Short Line owns any Northern Pacific stock. This was, of course, not news, the transfer of the stock having been part of the Northern Securities Company settlement of last autumn. Succeeding inquiries established three points: first, that the rich corporation, the Oregon Short Line, which bought the Northern Pacific stock at a figure "several times larger than its own capital stock," had to borrow the money for the purchase; second, that it apparently did not buy this $78,000,000 worth of stock for investment, but for strategic purposes; and, third, that corporations which make such purchases are quite at liberty to sell out again to anybody. As to the purpose of the purchase, it was, Mr. Harriman alleged, "to preserve to the Union Pacific the avenues already open to it," and to "develop an opinion that we were strong enough to control traffic in our own territory." The stock, Mr. Harriman testified, has been sold without loss to the Union Pacific Company; in other words, the operation resulted more agreeably than the Reading Railroad's by no means dissimilar operation of 1892. But we are nevertheless inclined to think that the public will do some sober thinking over this sort of use of corporate capital and credit. Mr. Harriman obtained his strategic purposes and sold out the stock without loss to his company. But who is to guarantee that the next exploit of the kind in the railway world will have the same ending?

The New Jersey Republicans have chosen as United States Senator a man who would never have been heard of in public life but for his money. The business career of the caucus nominee, Mr. John F. Dryden, has been long and successful, but of his political activity the most that is said of him by even his eulogists is: "To the party organization he has been a generous contributor." We have thus another rich man elected to the Senate simply because he is rich. We know nothing whatever against Mr. Dryden, and sincerely hope that his undoubted energy and business capacity may prove of service to the public; but what we say is, that, by the people of the State and by the country at large, his election will be regarded simply as one more step in the commercializing of the Senate. Of his opinions, or of his ability to state and defend them, nothing is known; whether he can draft a bill, what his capacity may be in committee work, what amount of intelligence he may bring to the routine of legislation—all this is an unknown quantity. One of his competitors, ex-Gov. and ex-Attorney-General Griggs, stood for the older Senatorial tradition. He is a skilled lawyer and an able speaker, has had a wide experience of public affairs, and would have distinctly added to the Senate what it most needs—intellect, not money. But he is passed over for a man whose one title to the honor is his wealth. We cannot regard this as an auspicious event.

AN INDEFENSIBLE ACT.

On January 8 Senator Lodge introduced a bill "temporarily to provide for the administration of civil government in the Philippines." One object of this measure, which does not establish a new form of government, is to confirm the action of President McKinley in appointing the present Philippine Commission, and "to approve the acts of the Commission up to this time." In view of the latter purpose, it would be well for the American people, and also for Congress, to know something more about the legislative acts of the Commission, particularly as Secretary Root has hoped that "the work of the Commission will receive the approval which it merits." This work he declared to be praiseworthy "for its high quality of constructive ability, its wise adaptation to the ends desirable to be accomplished, and its faithful adherence to the principles controlling our own Government."

That this praise should apply to a large part, or even the greater part, of the work of the Philippine Commission may very well be. There is one achievement of the Commission in its character as sole legislature in the Philippines, however, which should receive only condemnation from Congress and the American public. This is a statute which became the law of the Philippine Islands on November 4, 1901, and which is verbosely entitled "An Act defining the crimes of treason, insurrection, sedition, conspiracies to commit such crimes, seditious utterances whether written or spoken, the formation of secret political societies, the administering or taking of oaths to commit crimes or to prevent the discovering of the same, and the violation of oaths of allegiance, and prescribing the punishment therefor." It is on its face a measure to assist the military in forcing the sovereignty of the United States down the throats of the Filipinos, and to prevent them from continuing their struggle for independence. Like all similar acts in all lands, it is of an essentially despotic character.

Its first section prescribes the penalty of death or imprisonment at hard labor for not less than five years, with a fine of not less than $10,000, for the crime of treason—that is, levying war or adhering to the enemies of the United States or the Philippine Government. In this it parallels the statutes of the United States. But in Section 5 the law goes beyond anything now upon the statute-book of the United States, and defines as sedition the infliction of any act of "hate or revenge" upon any official of the Government, or, "if with a political or social object," upon individuals, or any class of individuals. These crimes it punishes by a fine of not over $5,000 and imprisonment for not more than ten years. Conspiracy to commit the crime of sedition carries with it a punishment of not more than five years in prison and of not more than $1,000 fine. Going a step further, the taking of an oath to engage in a seditious project, or to bind one to fail to reveal any unlawful combination, is punished by the last-named penalty, as is the action of one who merely attempts to induce a person to take such an oath. But the climax of this extraordinary law is to be found in the following sections:

"Sec. 8. Every person who shall utter seditious words or speeches, write, publish, or circulate scurrilous libels against the Government of the United States or the Insular Government of the Philippine Islands, or which tend to disturb or obstruct any lawful officer in executing his office, or which tend to instigate others to cabal or meet together for unlawful purposes, or which suggest or incite rebellious conspiracies or riots, or which tend to stir up the people against the lawful authorities or to disturb the peace of the community, the safety and order of the Government, or who shall knowingly conceal such evil practices, shall be punished by a fine not exceeding $2,000 or by imprisonment not exceeding two years, or both, in the discretion of the court.

"Sec. 10. Until it has been officially proclaimed that a state of war or insurrection against the authority or sovereignty of the United States no longer exists in the Philippine Islands, it shall be unlawful for any person to advocate orally or by writing or printing, or like methods, the independence of the Philippine Islands or their separation from the United States, whether by *peaceable* or forcible means, or to print, publish, or circulate any handbill, newspaper, or other publication, advocating such independence or separation. Any person violating the provisions of this section shall be punished by a fine of not exceeding $2,000 and imprisonment not exceeding one year."

Plainly, the proper title for this act should have been "A Bill to Put an End to Freedom of Speech and the Liberty of the Press in the Philippines, and to Create a Nation of Spies and Informers"; for such is the purport of the provisions cited, and such will be the inevitable results of the law if it should be rigidly enforced. When it was before the Commission, some of the friendly Filipinos, and also Señor Buencamino, who represented the Federal party, protested against it on the ground that it would undo the beneficial effect of the benevolent speeches of members of the Commission when they first arrived in the Philippines. The Manila *Times* did not hesitate to tell the truth about the act. "There is no loophole left by it by which any man who is disaffected towards the Government in these islands, and so expresses himself by word or act, can escape. Even the secret knowledge of covert workings against the sovereign power in these islands is sufficient to make one culpable and amenable to the new law."

Evidently the new Liberty which typifies the United States abroad should fling away the torch of enlightenment for the bayonet, since her mission in the Philippines is plainly not to encourage men to be free, but to think only what her armed representatives deem wise. One of these, according to Representative Gaines, has declared the Constitution of the United States "a d——— incendiary document"! In what way such a policy as this Philippine one differs from the oppression of Russia in Finland, or that of Turkey in Armenia, it would be very interesting to know. Was there any law of King George the Third as arbitrary or as hard upon his American colonists as this when they revolted? We know of none. And yet Mr. Root would have us believe that the Commission, in all its acts, has "faithfully adhered to the principles controlling our own Government." Only once in its history has this Republic turned to such an extreme law, and that in 1798, when the famous Alien and Sedition Acts were passed, only to be repealed within a few years. "Let us not establish a tyranny," protested Alexander Hamilton, whose own party was passing these acts. Is it not a tyranny which the Philippine Commission has established by its sedition act?

Theodore Roosevelt recently named three characteristics or attainments as the necessary equipment of any man fitted to do useful work in our body politic. One of these he defined as "some knowledge of history." It would seem as if the members of the Philippine Commission were wilfully ignorant of some of the most tragic pages in modern history. For if they were familiar with the struggles for liberty of men under the tyranny of despots or under foreign oppression, they would know full well the futility of trying to overawe men's minds and spirits by threats of prison bars. The dungeons of Russia, the convict hovels of Siberia, the prison stockade on the island of Guam, all attest this truth.

THE SENATE AS TREATY-MAKER.

The ups and downs of the treaty with Denmark for the sale to us of St. Thomas, which is at last before the Senate for its approval, throw an instructive light upon the theories of Senator Lodge respecting the treaty-making powers of the Senate. He holds, in his *Scribner* article, that the Senate must be consulted in the framing, as well as in the ratification, of treaties. Of course it needs a negotiator, since the Senate cannot directly deal with foreign governments, but there stands the Secretary of State ready to carry out the Senatorial behests. Let him first find out what Senators want, then let him negotiate. Ratification will follow as a matter of course. Such is the Lodgian view.

The Danish instance, however, shows that, whatever may be said of the Constitutional questions involved, the practical application of these notions would make an end of all negotiation. The treaty with Denmark has been hanging fire for a year or two. There has evidently been a great deal of diplomatic give-and-

take in connection with it. The Danish Government wants to know what commercial and political rights its West Indian subjects would have under the American flag. It is also thought to have insisted that they be allowed to vote on the question of American annexation. But must Secretary Hay poll the Senate on each one of all such questions arising in his correspondence before he dares to put pen to paper? Must he consult, not his chief, the President, not his colleagues of the Cabinet, but ninety Senators? We hear of a plébiscite in St. Thomas. But Lodge would have a plébiscite in the Senate before this or any other particular could be passed upon by our Secretary of State. If Mr. Hay were to conduct his department with the proper fear of Lodge before his eyes, he would have to keep foreign ambassadors waiting till he had called the roll of the Senate. This would not be very dignified, and it certainly would bring diplomatic business to a standstill. Diplomacy is at best a leisurely affair; this plan would make it a veritable Dead March. By the time that a Secretary had laboriously sounded the opinions of ninety Senators, a new Senate might come in, and the work would be all to do over again. Treaties could not be framed on such terms. No self-respecting man would consent to make himself, while nominally in charge of our foreign relations, in reality nothing but the errand-boy of the Senate, to deliver its messages to other countries.

What Senator Lodge really proves, in his magazine article, is something which nobody ever questioned—namely, the Constitutional power of the Senate to accept or reject a treaty made by the Executive. In this is implied the power to amend a treaty, if the Senate is willing to run the risk of defeating it thereby. To the assertion of this obvious truth, Senator Lodge comes forward with a great array of learning and eloquence. With triumphant logic he establishes what no man disputes, and wreaks himself upon a platitude with the enthusiasm of a Tupper. He thinks, of course, to slip into his Constitutional argument the inference that the power to ratify means the right to be consulted beforehand as to the thing to be ratified. Of course, an arrogant Senate may assert that right, if it can find a Secretary and a President weak enough to yield; but that it is fairly to be deduced from the grant of power made in the Constitution, is another story. Even if the law were good, the consequences would be so disastrous, and would so make an end of American diplomacy, that the practice ought not to be adopted. Indeed, even Lodge himself sees this, and observes that the Senate has "wisely refrained," as a rule, from exercising its "right" to negotiate treaties.

He is not very happy in the little lecture which he reads Lord Lansdowne upon that Minister's ignorance of the American Constitution. Lansdowne's refusal to accept the Hay-Pauncefote treaty as amended by the Senate, Lodge thinks due to entire "misapprehension" of the Senate's rights in the premises. But if the Senator had taken the trouble to read the British Foreign Secretary's minute on the treaty, he would have discovered that there was no reference to any unwarrantable action by the Senate. It was only because the American Ambassador laid the Senate amendments before the British Government that the latter took notice of them. And Lord Lansdowne pointed out, what was perfectly true, that these changes had been proposed without any previous attempt to see if they would meet British views. He added, moreover, that the American Government had before expressed to Lord Pauncefote not only its complete satisfaction with the treaty as it originally stood, but its "appreciation of the conciliatory disposition shown by her Majesty's Government." Here we get a vivid glimpse of the humiliations which the Lodge idea of treaty-making by the Senate would heap upon the American President and Secretary of State and the nation itself. It would give us the inevitable air of not knowing our own mind two days running. Our negotiators would be without authority. Our treaties would be waste paper before the ink on them was dry. We agree with Lodge that the Senate would indeed be "wise" to refrain from exercising a shadowy right which would lead directly to such lamentable results.

Lodge's precedents are not in point, except as they show that a President may consult the Senate in advance if he chooses. This, also, is one of those undisputed propositions which Senator Lodge argues with splendid power. He cites the example of Washington going into the Senate in person with an Indian treaty. Of course, the Senate was then practically a Privy Council, and the President could meet with it in secret, if he wished. So he can seek to know its mind now, no doubt, before taking any given action. The Washington case, if we remember aright, was the one described in Maclay's 'Journal,' when the first President rebuked the Senate for defeating his plan. It was then, as Maclay wrote, that "if the Father of his Country could ever be thought to look angry, he looked angrily at me." If that glance of wrath were to be seen in the Senate of to-day, we suspect that it would be directed towards the seat of the junior Senator from Massachusetts, on hearing his contention that the Senate possesses the power to negotiate treaties, and may exert it whenever it sees fit.

FEDERAL CLEARING-HOUSES.

A bill was introduced in the House on the 7th inst. by Mr. Pugsley of New York, to provide for a more elastic currency than the National Bank Act supplies. This has long been a desideratum, to the securing of which many minds have been working. Everybody who understands our present system knows that our banknote currency does not adjust itself to the demand for it. The demand for money in the commercial centres, where business is transacted mostly by bank checks, is met promptly and easily by the discount of commercial paper, taking the form of deposits. The proceeds of the discount are credited by the banker in the customer's passbook as a deposit, and the customer draws his checks against the same, exactly as though he had deposited there an equal amount of gold. When we speak of an elastic currency, we mean a system by which banknotes may be issued as promptly and readily as bank checks, so that when the customer's paper is discounted, he can draw the money in banknotes, if he chooses to do so. It may be asked, What prevents him from doing so now? In a single case he could do so, but if a large number of cases should come upon the bank simultaneously, its cash reserve would soon be exhausted, and it would be compelled to stop discounting.

If it could issue its credit in the form of its own notes, it could safely discount as much paper in that form as in the form of deposits. The reason why the bank cannot respond to the demand for notes as readily as to the demand for checks is, that the law requires the security of United States bonds before notes can be issued. This fact not only makes the currency inelastic, but makes it dependent upon the bond market. Any demand for bonds for other purposes than those of banknote issues contracts the circulation, even in the face of a demand for more circulation. The latter process is going on now. The Government itself is a buyer of its own bonds. It bids up the price. It offers a temptation to the banks to retire their circulation and sell their bonds, in order to pocket the premium. The law allows not more than $3,000,000 of banknotes to be retired each month. This is the rate at which the withdrawal is now going on. But for this limitation the retirement would be more rapid.

The bill introduced by Mr. Pugsley embodies the ideas presented by Mr. Theodore Gilman in his book on 'Federal Clearing-Houses.' It goes upon the theory that, if the clearing-houses of the country would unite in guaranteeing the goodness and prompt redemption of banknotes, taking the assets of the issuing banks as security and uniting their capital and credit to this end, such notes would be absolutely safe, and the security of Government bonds might be dispensed with.

The bill has two ends in view. One is

to provide a safe and elastic note issue. If the object of the bill could be carried out and the banks of the country be grouped into national clearing-house associations of sufficient size, there is no doubt that notes issued upon the combined responsibility of these associations would be perfectly secure. The second object is to relieve the business interests from the embarrassment and actual damage done by the constant absorption of money by the Treasury and by its withdrawal from the channels of circulation as customs and internal revenue are collected—this to be done upon a security satisfactory to the Secretary of the Treasury. The provisions of the act are vague, cumbersome, and unwieldy. It would be simpler to let the Secretary deposit with the individual banks in his discretion, upon security furnished by them to his satisfaction, and to pay interest upon such deposits. It would be safe to deposit with the associated banks of any clearing-house district without security, but it would be exceedingly difficult to determine the method of doing this, and no one bank would be disposed to become security for the others. The same criticism applies to circulating notes. The strong banks would refuse to be responsible for the note issues of the weaker ones. Section 13 of the bill proposes to tax all clearing-houses that do not come into the system one-one-hundredth of 1 per cent. on all of their exchanges. This forcing process, we fancy, will get very little support in Congress, yet without the application of force it is not likely that the banks will adopt the proposed plan.

The great virtue and efficacy which clearing-house associations possess is that they are not incorporated bodies. They are under no supervision or constraint, and in times of crisis they can do what is deemed to be wise and necessary to meet the situation, unhampered and unrestrained. Under a law like the Pugsley bill these associations would be relegated to the status of regular corporations, governed by law, interpreted and administered primarily at the Comptroller's office. We might very likely have an incumbent in that office who would not be able so to grasp the situation in a time of crisis as to meet the emergency. Besides, if clearing-house associations were incorporated, they would be subject to injunction and mandamus, and the speculative interests in the Street might interpose judicial processes to prevent or enforce action or otherwise embarrass such an association for no other purpose than a speculative one. Such speculation would naturally be on the bear side.

The crux of the matter lies in the question, Will those clearing-houses which have the financial strength to command the confidence of the country consent to assume the duties and responsibilities assigned to them? Until some evidence is presented that they would do so, it is needless to consider the details of the measure.

BOOK COLLECTORS AND OTHERS.

For some weeks past the dispatches have been full of sensational purchases of works of art—a half million paid for such a Raphael, and a cool million offered for a Titian. To-day we are bid believe that the entire Borghese collection is to become the property of one of our countrymen, and the rather dubious rumor is at least taken seriously enough in England to arouse against the sale vigorous protest "in behalf of the civilized world"—excluding, naturally, the Americas. The collectors who buy Raphaels and Titians and galleries *en bloc* might be called the "strong-arm" men of the fraternity. They have in their unlimited wealth an unfailing argument, and they may easily dispense with the guile which is the most salient characteristic of the true collector. It is this fact which, while their conquests are viewed with a kind of fearful admiration, puts them generally out of the pale.

The collector's instinct is like genius, in that it is based upon an infinite capacity for taking pains. It is this which has brought much ridicule upon the craft. And, in fact, money values do come to depend upon the infinitely little. At a book sale the other day a first edition, 1846, of Hawthorne's 'Mosses from an Old Manse' was sold. The book generally is of no great rarity, fetching ten dollars, or thereabouts. But the copy in question was "in the original paper covers as issued," and the fact that no one had taken the pains to bind the two volumes properly was responsible for a price of $170. In the same sale a first edition of Emerson was commended because its paper label was in perfect condition; a crack, a finger-mark, a dog-ear, or a torn corner would notably have lessened the value of the copy. It might be said that these discriminations are often based on reason. One would rather have a clean copy of a book than a soiled, a fair white margin than a page cropped to the headlines. A margin, too, is a pleasing thing around a print, and early states of a famous etching are often preferable, on artistic grounds, to impressions from the finished plate. But these considerations do not explain sufficiently the startling caprices of collecting values—as the fact that Thackeray first editions, neatly bound, may be had for a song, while the same volume in its original serial parts, with the advertising pages and the ugly yellow-paper covers, may be worth a missionary's ransom; that we pay in banknotes for every centimetre of extra height of a rare Elzevir, and must cover every sixteenth of an inch of margin about a Rembrandt print with gold.

What is really paid for in every instance is simple rarity. The unique copy or impression is the ideal for the enlightened collector; and the anecdote which relates how a famous bibliophile pleaded with an associate for a certain book, raised his offer to an irresistible price, and then threw the book into the fire with the taunt, "Now my copy is unique," expresses the spirit in which many collections are made. A kind of madness Dibdin called it, and yet a madness which is fully justified of its children; for the supply of collectors is unfailing, that of desirable objects ever less. This makes a collection which has been shrewdly assembled with due regard to condition and speculative value one of the very best investments. And it must be said that very little collecting is free from this taint of commercialism. The books in a great private library are usually too valuable to be used, even if the collector, which rarely happens, is a reader also. His prints are of a kind too precious to be framed, his china too good for household use. What is he but, on the one hand, a dealer for probable or possible resale, or, on the other, an irrational idealist, in the pursuit not of the beautiful, but simply of the rare?

But the anti-social nature of collectors—their neglect of wife and family for the rare example, their disingenuous wiles for catching the unwary dealer or the ignorant owner—have been fully exposed by members of the craft; and since collectors glory in these things, the severe moralist finds their case beyond the power of rebuke to reach or of warning to stay. It should be said, however, that there is a kind of collector who is free from this reproach. Dealers do not favor him, or even admit that he is a collector at all, though they depend largely upon his enthusiasm for their support. He is unknown to the famous salesrooms, but a familiar figure at the book-stalls and smaller shops. This collector buys the books which he loves in the form in which he loves to read them. He buys cheap, and often wastes his money, but he satisfies his soul. His attitude towards books is a sentimental one. He is not wise about margins, and labels, or even about editions; but he loves the smell of old Russia; he knows, with Charles Lamb, that Beaumont and Fletcher never taste so good as when taken in folio; or he may have an invincible prejudice against reading Chaucer except in black-letter. He values books for their human associations, for all the homely signs of use, the scribbled "valde absurdum est" on a margin, or the signature of a former owner which defaces a title-page.

Only this kind of collector, after all, knows the real luxury of possession. His books, when he is beyond using them, may cut but a sorry figure in the

salesroom, and his heirs and assigns may resent the thriftlessness which was willing to amass such merely personal treasures as are negotiable only at an appalling discount; but he himself should have the pardon of him who has loved greatly. We should not fail to admire the minute special knowledge, the painstaking sagacity, and the fanaticism in the quest exhibited by the great collectors of whom history takes account. But we do well, also, to praise the obscure and disinterested collector who loves his possessions for their own sake; and we may well suspect a definition so rigorous as to exclude from the line of collectors Charles Lamb, who loved old books with a kind of passion, and Sir Walter Scott, who made Abbotsford a veritable museum of objects which, apart from their personal associations, were of pitifully slight value.

HAVANA.

December, 1901.

Though Havana is by no means the oldest seat of Spanish power in Cuba—it is, indeed, the sixth in order of the places from which the island was governed from the days of Columbus to those of Gen. Blanco—its fame, its commerce, and its population so far exceeded those of all other cities in the Antilles and all round the Caribbean Sea, whether Spanish, French, or English, that the visitor approaches it with high expectations of finding a place with a dignity of aspect and a richness of interest corresponding to its history and its importance. In some respects he is disappointed. Of architectural beauty there is very little. The Cathedral, from which some of the remains of Columbus were recently carried back to Spain, is a heavy building, not very large and not very handsome, though the interior, being dignified and well-proportioned, is rather better than the dull exterior leads one to expect. It is not even very old, though the decayed aspect of the coralline limestone of which it is built gives it an air of antiquity. Neither has any other church any considerable merit. There are no striking towers, and but little of that rich ornamentation on the façade or on the doorways which gives a character to many of the churches of Spanish America. The military edifices are not much better. Morro Castle, of whose situation I shall presently say something, is modern, a good specimen of the fortification work of the eighteenth century repaired some seventy years ago, but destitute of beauty or even of picturesque character. The older fortress, on the west side of the entrance to the harbor, is remarkable from its massive solidity, its low gateways, and immensely thick walls enclosing gloomy dungeons, but is equally without architectural merit. Some of the palaces of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries have handsome internal courtyards—*patios*, as the Spaniards call them—with rows of good columns and stately staircases; but very few of these show any street front worthy of note. Here and there one finds pretty bits of iron work, but the streets are generally devoid of such architectural features as give charm to the cities of Spain, Portugal, and Italy.

In the older part of Havana, close to the fort, the thoroughfares, straight, as in all Spanish colonial towns, are narrow and the houses high, and there are sometimes arcades of pillars along them, sometimes awnings drawn from side to side. This part has therefore a kind of picturesqueness, enhanced by the occasional occurrence of small plazas or open spaces, and by the effects of light and shade which one gets in narrow streets with a strong sun and brilliant sky overhead. In the newer parts the streets are wider and probably healthier, but they are even more uniform in the style of building, with little or nothing on which the eye cares to rest. One gets the impression of a city in which there was neither an aristocracy desiring to assert itself by raising stately town houses, nor a body of merchants proud of their municipality, and willing to spend their substance in decorating their dwelling-places as the merchants of mediæval Italy or of the Hanseatic and free imperial cities in Germany were wont to do. This is natural enough when one remembers that Havana never had either a territorial or a commercial aristocracy. It seems strange, considering how rich the Roman Church was in Cuba, that neither bishops nor convents should have devoted more of their revenues to the erection of imposing or ornate ecclesiastical edifices, such as are found in some other parts of Spanish America, as, for instance, in Mexico. Thus there is really comparatively little to see in this famous capital of the Antilles. So far as architecture is concerned, a forenoon's walk is sufficient to show the tourist all he is likely to care for.

But if the student of architecture experiences some disappointment, if the historian finds comparatively little which can aid his imagination to reconstruct the earlier annals of Spanish rule, if the lover of costume and the aspects of social life notes less that is peculiar than he expected, there is, nevertheless, a measure both of beauty and of attractiveness in Havana. It recalls some of the famous cities of the Mediterranean in the brilliance of its light and the striking features of its situation. It stands on the west side of an inlet of the sea, two to three miles long and less than half a mile wide at its mouth. This is the haven which gives its name to the city, and which affords a perfectly safe and good anchorage with a depth of water sufficient, if not for the very largest Atlantic liners, yet for all the vessels that use, or are likely to use, the port. The older part of the town stands on nearly level ground along the harbor. The newer part is on rising ground further back, and has spread northward so as to face the sea outside the harbor, while the suburbs stretch still further along the north coast and inland over the acclivities of wooded hills to the west. Thus, as the visitor approaches in a ship, he sees a mass of white buildings rising on a gentle slope, backed by verdure, above the bright blue waters, usually (in winter) crisping under the northerly breeze. On the further side of the harbor entrance Morro Castle stands upon a high, rocky cape, against which the waves are always foaming, while a little further up the inlet the picturesque pinkish-white walls, now half dilapidated, of the old castle of Cabana crown the crest of a long cliff. The bay within is dotted with shipping, and at its head green hills, as yet untouched by houses, make a charming background, recalling (save that the glittering mosques and the sombre cypresses are absent) the head of the Golden Horn at Constantinople. Neither are pretty bits wanting inside the city. Both the large square called the Parque Central and the Prado, a long, wide avenue running northeast and southwest from that square, are filled with fine trees, many of them bearing brilliant flowers. So, too, in the suburbs there are groves and gardens of great beauty, with hills behind, whence lovely views over the bay and the sea are disclosed, Morro Castle forming a superb central point. At a spot called Vedado, some four or five miles to the west along the coast, a suburb is springing up which will, when the trees planted round the villas have grown taller and the roughness of the newly-made roads has disappeared, be an extremely attractive place for visitors, since it is fresher and healthier than the city and has a good hotel, which was much used by American officers in the early days of the occupation. An excellent service of electric cars connects it with Havana, and there is good sea bathing, though the Cubans, who have the horror so common among southern peoples of entering the sea during the cooler months, leave off bathing and shut up their establishments after the middle of October. To a visitor from the North, the water is delightfully warm even in December.

The American occupation has already done wonders for Havana. Yellow fever has been practically extirpated by the efforts of Gen. Wood and the admirable medical staff that works under him. Rubbish is no longer permitted to be thrown into the harbor. The streets have been cleansed and are now kept in excellent order. The remains of the old walls of the city, which the Cubans desired to clear away, have been preserved, and now form, in several places, singularly picturesque memorials of remote Spanish days. So, too, an ancient fortification on the west edge of the harbor mouth has been saved from destruction, and a handsome promenade laid out, whence a charming view can be had over the sea and across the inlet to the cliffs crowned by the castles of Morro and Cabana. (It is a curious mark of the insensibility of the Cubans to historical sentiment that they do not care for the antiquities of the city, and they actually insisted on removing a statue of Queen Isabella the Catholic, which stood in one of the plazas, a sovereign for whose gracious memory even those who rose against Spanish rule might have been expected to have some reverence.) Of all these services the greatest is the extinction of the malady which has so long cursed the coasts of the Gulf and the Caribbean Sea. The stamping out of yellow fever not only has been a blessing to Cuba, but gives great hope of relieving from the danger of its attacks Galveston, New Orleans, and the Gulf ports of the United States. Moreover, an example has been set which Vera Cruz may soon follow, and which may ultimately be followed even by La Guayra, Buenos Aires, and Rio de Janeiro.

As respects the inhabitants of Havana, the stranger finds less beauty of face or

costume among the women than he has been led to expect. The mantilla is not general; nor do the dresses generally show much of the grace and picturesqueness one associates with Spanish countries. Among the younger women there are many good figures as well as fine eyes; but Cadiz in the Old World and Baltimore in the New have a much higher proportion of handsome faces. Neither men nor women give the impression of a vigorous race; and, indeed, the most industrious and intelligent element in the population (excluding Americans, Germans, and Englishmen—the two latter not numerous) is that which has come lately from old Spain, and especially from the northern provinces—Catalonia, Asturias, Galicia, and the Basque districts. Between them and the native Cubans there seems to be now no ill-feeling, and a good deal of the commerce of the city is already in their hands, or is passing to them.

That the commercial activity of Havana depends upon the general prosperity of Cuba, and especially upon the agricultural development of the island and the construction of railways through it, goes without saying. At present the uncertainty of the political future checks new enterprises and keeps everything in suspense. It is, therefore, the less surprising that there is a want of bustle in the streets, and that the shipping in the harbor is not very numerous. Among that shipping there still stands out of the water one ghastly skeleton. It is the wreck of the *Maine*, which no one is in any danger of failing to remember.

THE REAL CHAUDIÈRE.

NEW YORK, January, 1902.

When I read Gilbert Parker's 'Right of Way' by instalments, I wondered where his Chaudière might be, for I knew the real Chaudière some half-century ago, and his picture of the people and their manners bore no resemblance to the reality. I am relieved to learn, from the preface to the book, that the Chaudière of the story had no existence, except in the author's imagination. The actual Chaudière and its people remain in my recollection as an idyll of primitive purity and simplicity.

The Chaudière River heads near the height of land between Maine and the Province of Quebec, and its waters almost interlock with those of the Kennebec. It was, therefore, from the earliest days—long before Arnold led his troops through it—a waterway between Quebec and the New England colonies; for, though turbulent for some distance above its mouth, where it leaps by its picturesque falls into the St. Lawrence, the upper stretches of the river are so slightly ruffled that the Indians and the Canadian voyageurs could paddle their canoes, with only one portage, for about forty miles. The fertile valley through which it flows in this section of its course was, early in the eighteenth century, parcelled out as seignories of twelve miles by twelve miles in extent to French immigrants of note. And as the land was rich, it was soon taken up by tenants, many of whose descendants still occupy the farms of their forefathers; for the seignorial tenure of land encouraged permanency of occupation. The tenant paid the seigneur only a trifling annual rent of one or two sous per acre, and the farm and its improvements descended on the same terms to the tenant's heirs. But if he sold his holding to a stranger, the seigneur was entitled to *lods et ventes*, or a commission, amounting to a large share of the price. Transfers were, therefore, costly and rare, and generation after generation of the same family occupied the same land, cutting it up, however, into strips, as heirs multiplied who refused to emigrate from the parish, until the attenuated farms became too small to supply even the slender wants of the simple folk who cultivated them.

Some sixty years ago, in the bed of one of the streams flowing into the Chaudière through the Parish of Saint François, a girl picked up a curious stone, which was recognized to be a nugget of gold. But the discovery, though noted by Capt. Badderley in the Transactions of the Literary and Historical Society some years afterward, created no excitement. California and its gold had not loomed up to inflame the imagination of the world; and, to the primitive folk of the Chaudière Valley, the discovery of a nugget was of less moment than the birth of a baby. It had been better for my father's purse had he been as impassive as his countrymen, but he first joined a few other enterprising spirits in buying from the seigneur the right to work the auriferous gravels, and, the company failing, he then undertook alone the unprofitable task. And thus it came about that I spent two pleasant summers among the gentle, courteous *habitants* of the Chaudière Valley.

My job was to superintend some gravel workings on a small stream called after the family who owned the land at its mouth, the Deplante. The farm, of ample width originally, had been subdivided among three branches of the family. One eked out a living by blacksmithing, another had some skill as a carpenter; my host, as the head of the Deplantes, disdained other occupation than farming, which, however, he practised, not in person, but through the members of his family. These consisted of a wizen but shrewd old woman, the wife, who was profuse in her professions, and refused to name any price for her hospitality, but, if her "ce que vous voulez" was not responded to as liberally as she expected, left no doubt in your mind that you had been guilty of disgraceful meanness. It was well she had some business capacity and ambition, for her husband had none. He dreamed and slept his life away in the barn. Some of the hay was always sticking in his shaggy, tawny shock of hair. He was the infidel of the village. He never went to mass, but his heretical notions were not very clear, and he recognized the force of public opinion sufficiently to wisely shut them up in his own muddled brain—except to an admitted heretic. They really consisted of little else than an admiration for a shadowy Voltaire, who he said was "un grand homme. Il a écrit soixante-dix volumes, monsieur." His indolence was inherited by his eldest son Olivier, but the younger son, François Xavier, was an active but rather disagreeably pushing youth, who ultimately broke up the ancestral home; for, years afterwards, when I drove up the Chaudière, the old people had died, the girls had married, the boys had flitted, and the place knew the Deplantes no more. The other members of the family were four girls. The eldest, Euphrosyne, a good-natured, strapping girl, did most of the outside work; Pélagie was the wit of the family; Ellen was a pale-faced, light-haired beauty, who seldom or never spoiled her complexion by field work, but was the family seamstress; and Marie, a bright little girl, was at the village school. She subsequently was sent to the Ursuline Convent in Quebec to complete her education, by fitting herself to become the village schoolmistress in turn.

There were four of us, all in search of gold dust in the bed of the Deplante stream, who wished to board with the Deplantes; but the house contained only two big rooms and the garret. The outer room was the kitchen and living-room, with its big fireplace and its deal table and home-made chairs, whose bottoms were woven out of the underbark of the cedar. The wrought-iron lamp, of the exact shape of those used by the old Romans, filled with tallow, in which a wick was immersed, and which hung from a notched stick secured to the ceiling, gave a dingy light for the short space of evening between suppertime and bedtime, for the family engaged in no literary pursuits. The inner room contained four huge bedsteads, one in each corner, so high that agility or a ladder was required to enter them. What members of the family occupied them when we were not there, we had, of course, no means of knowing. When we were there, the old couple and the girls climbed into the garret, the boys slept in the barn. But to sleep four in a room, even though each occupied a separate bed, was not consistent with our habits; so we suggested that partitions might, without much cost, be thrown up. The mere mention of a change in the architecture of the old wooden house threw the old man into a panic. It was the only occasion in our acquaintance when we observed the slightest disturbance in the placidity of the poor old fellow's temper. His great-grandfather had built the house, and to touch it was a profanity. He could not—he dare not. But, as the alternative was our leaving, the cupidity of the old lady overcame the old man's scruples, and the partitions were knocked up. I have since then felt that we committed a crime, for I fear we broke into and helped to break down a simple mode of life without any parallel on our busy, skeptical, self-seeking continent.

The family lived almost exclusively on bread and milk. A can of milk covered with a luscious layer of cream was placed before each. Pancakes, so light that they almost tossed themselves, made with no stint of eggs, and occasionally a little fat pork, varied the simple diet. But we wanted butter. In the rich meadows along the Chaudière a herd of their cows fed, and milk and cream there was galore, but butter had never been made, and there was no churn in the house. I recall well how Euphrosyne beat up the rich cream into a substitute for butter in a bowl, using her hand as a beater. It was not nice, and it soon turned sour; but, rather than introduce the innovation of a churn, they preferred buying butter at the store. Besides the cows, they kept sheep, whose fleece supplied the family loom, on which the girls, during the long winter months, wove the *étoffe du pays* for the men's clothing, the striped stuff for their own petticoats, and the blankets for the beds. The fleece was spun at home, after being carded at

the seigneur's mill on shares, for, as a condition of the old seignorial grants, a carding and a flour mill had to be run by these representatives of the old feudal lords, for the convenience of their tenants and their own profit. Then there was a patch of flax, beautiful in the flowering season, and in the autumn the flax-beaters were brought out on the banks of the stream, in whose waters the flax stems had been steeped, and the merry clack, clack of the wooden bar was mingled with the happy laughter of the girls, as they prepared the fibre to be made by themselves into the family linen and sheeting. It was not until the beginning of the eighteenth century that the selfish colonial laws of old France—more exacting even than the commercial laws of England—allowed the Canadian-French *habitant* to begin this self-supporting existence. Ever since then they have added little to the revenue derived either from the customs of his Sacred Majesty of France or the British Crown.

Nevertheless, once in a year there was a trading expedition made by some member of the Deplante family to Quebec. The two-wheeled cart was loaded with a few eggs and turkeys and like salable articles, and with provender for the pony and for one of the boys and one of the girls; and the journey of fifty miles to Quebec and fifty miles back was made by easy stages. Every evening the traders camped by the roadside, and, on the evening before they reached Quebec, stopped just beyond Point Levis, so as to take the earliest ferry-boat and secure a good position in the line of market carts, from which the thrifty housewife still buys on market days her provisions—for the huckster is forbidden to purchase from the farmer until after the householder has had his or her first choice. The few dollars' worth of poultry and maple sugar sold, the important event of the year followed—the expenditure of part of the proceeds in a cotton dress or two, for mass on Sundays; some trifling articles of finery, a little green tea, and some simple remedies. The journey back and the pleasant return home completed the one excitement of the year.

It was a very moral village. With a view to excite early marriages, the boys and girls were encouraged by the priest to meet freely, but at discreet distance. Swinging was the fad, and a huge wooden structure stood before our cottage. The boys might swing the girls, but the lads and the lasses must not swing together. Dancing was not forbidden, but round dances were strictly prohibited. On Sunday afternoon the young men assembled by dozens at our house, each arriving with his own horse and cart, which lined the fence around the meadow between the house and the main road; and then the din of laughter and song, and the dense smoke of acrid, home-grown tobacco, made Sunday afternoon less pleasant to us boarders than to the happy, noisy crowds on the other side of the partition.

The principal personages of the parish were the notary and the priest, but of the two the priest stood supremely highest in the regards of the people. The parish priest of the Province of Quebec is not only the spiritual guide of his parishioners, but the adviser to whom they look for counsel in matters of this world, for medical assistance when the doctor is not nigh, and for consolation in every time of trouble. No clergy in the world stand in as close and intimate relation to their flocks, without being in familiar contact with them, as the French priests of Quebec. The Irish priest is socially even nearer to his people than the Canadian curé, but this very sociability detracts somewhat from his influence and the sacredness in which his person and his office are held. One day the children returned from mass looking almost solemn. A tavern had been opened in the parish against the curé's protest. From the pulpit he had anathematized the tavern-keeper as the destroyer of public morals. He had forbidden his parishioners to patronize the evil den, and threatened that, unless it was closed, he would call down fire from heaven and consume it. His congregation believed in his power to do so, and he, convinced that he was doing heaven's work, believed that heaven would help him.

We were very good friends, the priest and myself. I had given him an Italian copy of one of Raphael's Madonnas for an altarpiece. The last time I saw him was under the following rather peculiar circumstances. It was several years after I had lived in the Deplante family. My father's concession of the gold-field had nearly expired when rumor reached Quebec that a wonderful strike had been made by a company of four *habitants*, who had taken out a license to work on halves. I found the stream on which the rich bar had been discovered alive with gold-seekers; but I found also that, unless I reduced the royalty to a more reasonable proportion, very little would be paid. So I notified the diggers that I would accept one-fourth instead of one-half. Small quantities of gold dust were turned in by stray miners, but the lucky four appeared with two and a half pounds of gold, which they claimed was the result of their work with tin pans in the bed of the stream for ten days. I willingly accepted the gold, and believed their statements. But it soon came to my hearing that the returns they made were far short of their luck, so I cancelled their license. The following day the four men met me, and, as a preliminary, wished an assurance that I would still accept one-fourth instead of demanding one-half. This, of course, I gave, and in the evening they arrived at the hotel with a big mustard-bottle full of dust and nuggets. They had washed a pound of gold for ten consecutive days out of the bed of the stream, and they weighed me out the balance of two and a half pounds.

Not unreasonably, they asked for just a little back, the more so as, in not making a true accounting at first, they assured me they had acted with the consent of the curé. So next day I called on my friend the priest, and received a characteristic explanation. After the extraordinary find, the four *habitants* called on his Reverence, told him the truth, and asked, as a matter of conscience, whether they might not conceal temporarily the full extent of their good fortune, inasmuch as a revelation of such unusual wealth might assist the *concessionaire* in selling to the Yankees, and the Yankees might cancel their license. The advent of the Yankee from this point of view mattered little to the priest, but the Yankee as the embodiment of heresy, vice, and worldliness mattered much to his Reverence, and he fell in with their views, provided they pledged themselves to make ultimately an honest return. But, on my cancelling their license, they returned to the *presbytère* and laid the case again before his Reverence. They said they were willing to pay at once, as the love of the gold might grow on them, and, when the season closed, they might be reluctant to part with it; moreover, they might die suddenly, and what would happen if they passed into the next world with stolen gold in their possession?—a question the priest could not undertake to answer satisfactorily. They thought, therefore, that unless his Reverence objected, they had better ease their conscience and their pockets at once—a holy resolve, to which his Reverence heartily assented. It was with this pleasant incident that I ended my intercourse with the simple, sincere folk of the Chaudière Valley. I have seen it since from the railroad cars, but I fear the railroad has changed the habits of its people more than it has altered the aspects of the country.

J. Douglas.

OLD MASTERS AT THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

London, January 6, 1902.

The Royal Academy once more justifies its existence by the excellence of its winter exhibition. After the two memorial shows by Leighton and Millais, the fine Rembrandt and Van Dyck collections, and last year's unfortunate display of half a century of British art, it has returned to the usual miscellaneous series of Old Masters. There have been winters when the great masterpieces have been more numerous and more remarkable, winters when a wiser restraint has been put upon numbers. Indeed, nothing is gained by the two extra galleries added this year to the usual five. But there are many pictures notable for one reason or another, while there is a special exhibition within the exhibition of paintings and drawings by Claude—the first time, to my knowledge, that due honor has been paid in England to the great French landscape painter.

Of the Claudes I shall speak at length further on. To turn to the rest of the collection is to find that almost all old masters and every school and country are represented, with one astonishing exception—there is no English work, none of the Sir Joshuas and Gainsboroughs, the Constables and Turners, hitherto so prominent. The series begins with a sufficient selection of Italian Primitives to afford employment to the Morellian. Already labels are being juggled with, and new "attributions" made. But really in this section is little to give pleasure to the artist save a small "Virgin and Child with Angels," conventional in design, but very lovely in its harmony of gold and rose, catalogued as a Benozzo Gozzoli, and then immediately handed over to an unknown, unnamed Sienese painter, as if it mattered; and two most beautiful *cassone* fronts by Pesellino—the story of David and Goliath told as naïvely as possible, event succeeding event with no interval in the composition on the long panel, but with a splendor of color, a rhythmical swing in the design, decidedly uncommon in the work of the Primitives. Coming down a little later, the most famous picture included is, per-

haps, the Colonna Raphael, with its well-established pedigree and record of adventure. It is the altarpiece which Raphael painted for the nuns of St. Anthony of Padua at Perugia—an early altarpiece. Sold by them in an hour of need, it passed from owner to owner, from town to town, from country to country, resting for a while in Rome with the Colonna family, whose name ever since has clung to it, until, finally, after having been thought not worth a place in the Louvre and the National Gallery, and not worth looking at while it was sheltered at South Kensington, it has fallen into the hands of Mr. Pierpont Morgan, and in England loud lament is heard because it seems destined, with many another celebrated "old master," to leave Europe for America. But, save for the magic which the name of Raphael still has for the world at large, save for its well-authenticated history, the picture is without great merit. In composition it recalls somewhat the Ansidei Madonna—that seventy thousand pounds blunder of a Liberal Government. The Virgin, holding the Child in her lap, sits on the conventional throne with the correct canopy and elaborate decoration; on either side are arranged the conventional saints in saintly halos and draperies—on the left St. Catherine and St. Peter, on the right St. Rosalia and St. Paul, and, almost in front, the little St. John. They have the pretty insipidity, they pose with the self-consciousness, characteristic of Raphael's saints, and Perugino would have designed for them a more beautiful and spacious landscape as background. Above, in the lunette, is God the Father, with two attendant angels in a Peruginesque group. But the most interesting thing in connection with the picture in its present quarters is the fact that all the panels of the predella (with the exception of one said to have already preceded the picture itself to America) are included in the exhibition—the first time, probably, they have been gathered together since the poor nuns in Perugia had to part with them. But the Academy, with its accustomed unintelligence, has seen fit to leave the panels in the first room, and hang the picture in the third—for no better reason, apparently, than because it is rather against precedent on these occasions to hang both small and large works in the third gallery.

Probably, if the Raphael had been the only picture lent by Mr. Morgan, the outcry over America's gradual acquisition of the old masters would be, for the moment anyway, less loud. But he lends four others—on the choice of three he is not to be congratulated—and it is not so long since every one was talking of his purchase of Gainsborough's "Duchess," which nobody envies him, and the beautiful Fragonard series, which every gallery and museum must want to dispute with him. Of his paintings at the Academy, by far the finest is a landscape by Rembrandt—a wood, the light falling on an open glade in the foreground, and, beyond, the mystery and infinite depths of the forest, little figures disappearing into the shadowy distance; above, a clear sky—a landscape charged with romance. A portrait of the "Cardinal Ferdinand," by Rubens, and a "Lady and Little Girl," by Van Dyck, are fairly characteristic examples, if not the most distinguished of the two great Flemish masters. But I do not think Mr. Pierpont Morgan—or America—is to be congratulated on the Titian, a large Holy Family, as cold in color and commonplace in sentiment as any picture I have ever seen labelled with the name of Titian.

Few other paintings, until the Claudes are reached, need detain one in a general notice of so miscellaneous a gathering. In previous shows I have seen nobler portraits by Rembrandt and Franz Hals, more exquisite examples of Terburg, more sumptuous color by the Venetians. Great names are everywhere in the Catalogue, great work is far more rare on the walls. If I except the sketches for Titian's "Last Supper," painted for Philip II., and now at the Escorial, and for Tintoretto's "Marriage Feast" in the Sacristy of the Salute, Venice; if I except a silvery-gray landscape by Murillo—a surprise, to me at least, because it has such charm and is the only landscape by the Spanish sentimentalist I have seen, but how cheerfully would I exchange it for any number of his Immaculate Conceptions and Assumptions; if I except a blue and white glimpse of Venice by Guardi, a delicate study of tender whites and grays, "Grace Before Meat," by Chardin, and, it may be, a few others here and there, the one picture of any special note is the "Finished Sketch," as it is described in the catalogue, of "Las Meniñas," by Velasquez. Though not, within my memory, exhibited publicly before, the picture is well known. It belongs to Mr. Ralph Bankes of Kingston Lacy, and in reproduction can be seen in the late R. A. M. Stevenson's 'Essay on Velasquez.'

The first thing that strikes one in the composition is the absence of the reflection of the King and Queen in the far mirror. One feels still more keenly the sharpness of detail everywhere, but especially in the pictures on the walls and the upright canvas in the foreground. The figures of the little Infanta, with her maids of honor, her dwarfs and other attendants, and of Velasquez are exactly as in the picture at the Prado, and the central group is put in with something of the breadth and freedom of the master, though the faces do not suggest his touch. But figures and detail are not enveloped in the magical atmosphere that is the beauty of the larger finished work; something has gone from those "fields of vibrating space," that "vast shadowed top" of surely the most wonderful room ever painted. For my part, I believe the "sketch" to be a copy, though I cannot understand why a copyist should have omitted such an important feature as the reflected figures in the mirror. Even as I write, I am assured by a critic who thinks himself an authority and has not yet become a dealer, that it is a copy, probably by Del Mazo, and I fancy most lovers of Velasquez will come to the same conclusion without waiting to hear the critic's arguments.

The Claudes alone would make a delightful exhibition. They are lent by several different owners and collectors. The principal paintings come from the Duke of Westminster, Lady Wantage, the Earl of Yarborough, Sir Frederick Cook, the Marquis of Lansdowne; the drawings, chiefly from the King, Mr. Heseltine, Mr. George Salting, Mr. Knowles, About half the pictures I could willingly have omitted. The others show Claude as the great master he really was. His reputation has been somewhat overshadowed in England by the fame of Turner. Ruskin could not exalt the Englishman of the nineteenth century save at the expense of the Frenchman of the seventeenth. The very fact that Turner himself invited comparison by hanging certain of his landscapes for all time by the side of Claude's, made most people come to the conclusion that Turner must stand the test triumphantly. But he does not, and there are no pictures of Turner's anywhere as perfect as two or three in the present collection. In main features they may be alike. Claude delighted always in wide, rich landscape, in noble groups of trees, stately architecture, tranquil stretches of water, the silver light of noonday, the golden glow of evening. He preferred the well-balanced composition to the bit of Nature chosen at haphazard and copied in all its crudeness. And for this reason his work is sometimes thought cold and conventional and monotonous. But what variety there is, even if motive and material are so often the same! How different the light that falls so serenely on the winding river, the low hills, and distant castle in the "Shepherd Playing on his Pipe," and the golden glow with its dramatic fervor in the splendid "Landscape" from Grosvenor House, though in both it is the hour of sunset! How different the architectural stateliness of one or more "Seaports," and the Watteaulike daintiness and charm of "La Récompense du Village"! And though an unmistakable Claude, where is there anything like "The Enchanted Castle," lent by Lady Wantage, with its exquisite cool light, its tranquil space of sea where the white sails hover, its mountains fading into blue haze against the pale distant sky, its Arcadian peace and calm!

It is not only the variety of Claude that impresses you after a careful study of all these pictures; it is even more their modern feeling and tendency. For a while, he was looked upon as the slave of conventions, one of the powers of evil to be warred with in the general revolt against the academies and traditions. But I think R. A. M. Stevenson was right when he bracketed Claude with Velasquez and Rembrandt as the first of the moderns. He it was who, in landscape, first revealed the true beauty of light. The painter of to-day may have learned much about the scientific qualities and effects of light, but he has seldom understood as well as Claude its serenity, its splendor, its poetry. Claude, again, was artist enough to know that the sun could shine with the same charm on an impressive classical landscape as on the cabbage-patch at his door; he was not afraid of beauty. And as, in that lovely village dance I have just referred to, he seemed to anticipate Watteau, so there are many passages in many pictures to which you may trace the inspiration of Corot and the Romanticists, who, however romantic in name, had the Frenchman's instinctive love of harmony and order, and were unwilling to leave the composition of the simplest landscape to take care of itself. Certainly, I have come away from the Academy convinced not only that Claude was the great master in his own time, but that from his work is derived much that is greatest in modern landscape.

I have seen, perhaps, finer drawings by Claude in Florence. But still, many in the

long series shown are of undoubted interest and value, and the chance to compare them with the pictures for which in some cases they are the notes and suggestions, should prove of immense advantage to the student. They are chiefly in sepia, bistre, and pen-and-ink. Many are sketches of places; of Rome, which he knew so well; of Civita Vecchia and Genoa, which he must have known better than is generally supposed. For at Civita Vecchia, more particularly, the tourist may still see, if he has eyes, the stately piles of architecture, the broad quays, with their curving steps descending to the water's edge, the towers, the tall shipping, the splendor of light in the evening where the channel leads westward, that occur in so many of Claude's pictures of seaports. Other drawings are studies for paintings, always distinguished by the same fine sense of composition and love of graceful form, and sometimes, in arrangement, to the very groups of dancing nymphs, curiously suggestive of Corot. Altogether, I do not remember anywhere a finer exhibition of Claude, and it is fortunate that the Academy, after the horrors it perpetuates in the summer, should, in the winter, give one some reason to be thankful for its existence. N. N.

Correspondence.

GERMAN AND AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Without wishing in a general way to deny the soundness of Professor Münsterberg's, and his reviewer's, position in regard to American school education, I should like, with your kind permission, to present a few phases of the subject neglect of which might confirm some of our most earnest critics in their, as it seems to me, rather one-sided view.

First of all, as a matter of fact, the elective system has not become an important feature in the schools of this country below the high school. The so-called introduction of the "kindergarten spirit and methods" into the primary grades has occasionally been carried to excess by well-meaning cranks, but its influence upon primary education has been, on the whole, beneficial, in so far as it has helped to discard many useless formalities and mechanical devices in teaching and discipline. In the primary and grammar grades the pupils are held to prescribed courses of study, and in the high schools the selection of studies is not without restriction. It really amounts to a choice among several courses which, *mutatis mutandis*, differ from each other very much like the curricula in the four or five kinds of secondary schools in Germany. It is doubtful whether a complete separation of pupils pursuing different courses, by assigning to each section a special building and a separate corps of teachers, would be advantageous if it were feasible.

In referring to the superior scholarship of German teachers, one should always bear in mind that the vast majority of German children do not enjoy the instruction of such scholars as constitute the teaching force in the gymnasia and the other secondary schools of a high grade. Among the 85,000 members of the Deutscher Lehrerverein, for example, there are few university graduates. If we could strike the average of scholarship of the teachers of all grades in Germany and compare it with the scholarship of the average American teacher, the advantage would still be on the German side, but there would not appear the wide difference of conditions assumed by Professor Münsterberg. As the American public school combines the various classes of German schools (gymnasium, realschule, etc., down to the volksschule), it is not fair to compare its teaching force with that of the gymnasium alone, which has for generations been enjoying, more than any other institution, the fostering care of the Government. It differs from our high school not only by its more extended course of study, but also by its exclusive function as a fitting school for the University.

Like Professor Münsterberg, I had from my early boyhood none but university graduates for instructors. For two years previous to my entering the gymnasium, I, together with one other boy, was taught by a young theologian taken into the family as a private tutor. I never had any fault to find with him on my own score, and it did not occur to me till many years after that the other boy's nervous system and, to some extent, his life were ruined by that man's pedagogy and the mistaken sense of duty of an ambitious, well-meaning father. The theologian endeavored to pound Latin and Greek into the little fellow, and the father upheld him in the attempt. They had none of the indulgence of American fathers and teachers. (The mother and an aunt entreated the conscientious tutor to desist from using the Spanish reed; he promised, but did not keep his promise.) I have since been able to recall a number of similar cases among my comrades at the gymnasium less fortunate than myself. One boy, I remember, whose case was a hopeless one, left the gymnasium early, after a severe tussle with an irascible teacher. He is now Commerzienrat and the head of one of the largest banking firms in Hanover. That my experience in this respect is not exceptional, and that the present conditions in the German schools, though improved, are not altogether changed, I infer from the reports of others and from the manner in which some recent German novelists have treated the school question. On the other hand, I am firmly convinced, from what I have seen of American "schoolma'ams," that many of them (college graduates, of course, and good scholars in our modest sense of the word) could have taught those boys—who were not dunces—almost anything, not excepting Latin and Greek.

This letter has grown to such length that I must leave it to those of your readers who are interested in the matter to draw their own inferences from the above statements. Allow me only to say, in concluding, that there seems to me good reason for hoping that, as the Germans are gradually transforming their inherited educational system into one of less uniform and rigid requirements, so the people of the United States may evolve out of the as yet somewhat chaotic present conditions a system of popular instruction and education of their own, not yielding in thoroughness and efficiency to any, but superior to all hitherto known in the fuller recognition of the many-sidedness of human nature and of the multiplicity of ways leading to human virtue and happiness. That Professor Münsterberg is contributing his generous share to the realization of such hope, nobody can effectually gainsay.

A. Lodeman.

Ypsilanti, Mich., January 19, 1902.

CHINESE EXCLUSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One would think, to judge by the newspaper press out here, that the whole Pacific Coast was unanimous in favor of Chinese exclusion, but I can assure you that such is not the case by any means. The fact is, the newspapers are pretty much in the hands of the Typographical Union, and it is as much as their going to press is worth to print anything inimical to the so-called cause of Labor; this so-called cause being nothing else than a concerted effort to raise the price of labor and arbitrarily prevent any one else from cutting it. This is legitimate enough if carried on on legitimate lines, but it shows the assurance of its upholders when, as was actually the case the other day in a conference over a labor dispute, they actually have the face to claim from employers the recognition of unionism to the entire exclusion of non-unionism, on the ground that the union enables them to raise wages!

Sentiment from this quarter, like the sentiment of the consumer of high-protection articles, is not voiced much; nevertheless, there is much unspoken protest which will come to a point some day. The salmon-canners are at their wits' end to get Chinese labor, and the serious hampering of this industry is imminent. Then, many farmers and land-owners would be glad to clear up and cultivate what is now waste land, but they cannot possibly do so on the basis of the "high standard of living" that is demanded for the whole working-class. Last, but not least, the humble home-keeper lives in daily terror lest she find herself without help of any kind. White help has always been scarce, but now Chinese is just as much so, and unless an average good Chinese cook can get $35 or so per month, he clears out and goes elsewhere.

What is to be the result it is difficult to see, but there is no question that the Coast is being very much kept back by the scarcity of ordinary labor, and a large-sized vote of thanks will be forthcoming to any agency in the East that will help us to get a fair-sized dose of the "Yellow Peril." W. J. B.

Portland, Oregon, January 20, 1902.

THE ALASKAN BOUNDARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is it too much to ask that gentlemen who propose to instruct the public as to the meaning and scope of an international treaty shall first inform themselves as to the history and object of that treaty, and shall quote it without omitting essential qualifying clauses? This question is suggested by certain recent correspondence in your columns, especially a letter signed Arthur Johnson in the issue of January 23. The history of the treaty

of St. Petersburg made in 1825 has been fully set forth by the writer in 1889; and more recently, from a study of the unpublished documents, the Hon. John W. Foster has given an account of the negotiations which led up to it, the object insisted upon by Russia and finally conceded by Great Britain, and other details. This statement has not been and cannot successfully be attacked on the score of accuracy and fairness. To this inquirers should be referred, as neither your space nor my time permits of an extended restatement here.

The so-called "claims of Canada" arose from the fact that the exclusion of Great Britain from the sea between Skagway and Port Simpson, which was the effect of the treaty, has become inconvenient to Canada now that the hinterland of the Northwest Territory is being developed. This led some ill-informed individuals to propose an interpretation of the treaty, aided by some obscurity in its terms, which interpretation, to obtain plausibility, requires (1) the total ignoring of the history of the treaty, written and cartographic, and of the mutual action of the parties to it after it had been signed; (2) that, when the treaty says Portland Channel, it must be assumed not to mean Portland Channel; (3) that when the treaty purports to convey a continuous strip of coast *(lisière de côte)* it must be assumed to mean broken patches of coast interrupted by foreign territory; (4) that when the treaty directs that a line shall follow the sinuosities of the coast *(parallèle aux sinuosités de la côte)* it shall be interpreted as meaning that the line shall be drawn disregarding these sinuosities.

What, we may ask, is the value of any treaty if it be subject to such interpretations? I believe I am correct in stating that the British Government has never officially adopted these propositions, though colonial politicians have used them for their own purposes; and, by constant reiteration, it is probable that many well-meaning but ill-informed persons may finally come to believe, in defiance of the real facts, that there is something reasonable and even equitable in these hypothetic interpretations.

In addition to hypotheses, Mr. Johnson is guilty of direct error in several instances when it would be inferred he had the treaty before him. He says that a clause in the treaty "grants to Great Britain the right to 'free navigation' of all these inlets," and asks, "Of what use would this be did she not own their upper reaches?" The truth is that the treaty grants this privilege for a term of ten years. If she "owned the upper reaches" of the inlets, she could hardly have been excluded from them at any time. With regard to the name Portland Channel, or inlet, its history is short, definite, and precise, and the contrary assumption is utterly baseless. Its location and character were settled by Vancouver, who first mapped it, and have never been in doubt since. Mr. Johnson also states that there is a clause in the treaty "which expressly denies prescriptive rights to either party." This is untrue. The only clause which gives even a color of plausibility to such a statement is one in which the contracting parties agree not to make settlements in each other's territory. In pursuance of this, Russia made a settlement on one of the Gravina islands within a few miles of Portland Inlet and the British post of Fort Simpson, and her right to do so was never questioned. When the Hudson Bay Company tried to erect a post surreptitiously on Wrangell Island, they were ignominiously driven away by Russian naval forces.

But, we are asked, why are you not willing to arbitrate this question if the case is so clear? In the first place, we may well wait until these preposterous hypotheses are officially adopted by Great Britain before we consider arbitration as in question at all. Secondly, arbitration, unfortunately for the world's peace, has not of late upheld the ideal character with which it was formerly endowed. The result of the Delagoa Bay arbitration has been fitly described as an international scandal. The United States, secure in the possession of her rights, may well wait until they are attacked in good faith by more redoubtable adversaries than colonial Jingoes.

WM. H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, January 27, 1902.

PURCHASABLE FAME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just seen the representative of a Boston firm engaged in the publication of a so-called history of one of our universities. He wished me, as a graduate of the university in question, to furnish a sketch of my life and my photograph for reproduction, which, he represented, would be highly desirable to the completeness of the work. The history is to be edited by two well-known graduates, and a long list assured me that many prominent graduates have already furnished similar biographical material. It soon turned out, however, that I was to be included in the great work only if I subscribed to it in two volumes, at $15 each.

The "scheme" is an old one, often used in the publication of county histories and the like, and it can be "worked" anywhere because the essential human vanity is everywhere present. The large scale on which it can be attempted is shown by the announcement of a history of the "One Hundred and Fifty First Families of the United States," admission to which costs fifteen hundred dollars. But it is humiliating to find that such methods can be applied to one of our great universities.

F. C. P.

ITHACA, N. Y., January 25, 1902.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will shortly begin publication of a new monthly magazine, the *Bibliographer*, edited by Paul Leicester Ford. It will be freely illustrated with photographic facsimiles of rare books, MSS., etc. During July, August, and September the issue will regularly be suspended. The same publishers announce the second volume of Austin Dobson's 'Miscellanies'; a new volume of Essays by Maurice Maeterlinck; the Autobiography of Sir Walter Besant; and 'Paul Kelver,' a tale by Jerome K. Jerome.

Francis P. Harper will publish next month 'The American Fur Trade and the Far West: A History of the Pioneer Trading-Posts and Early Fur Companies of the Missouri Valley and the Rocky Mountains, and of the Overland Commerce with Santa Fé,' by Capt. Hiram Martin Chittenden.

Mr. Frank Stockton's new novel, in the press of D. Appleton & Co., is entitled 'Kate Bonnet: The Romance of a Pirate's Daughter.'

Ginn & Co. will soon issue 'Analytical Psychology,' by Prof. Lightner Witmer, and 'Northern Europe,' in the *Youth's Companion* series.

'Melomaniacs,' by James Huneker, and Paulsen's 'Immanuel Kant, his Life and Doctrine,' translated by G. E. Creighton and Albert Lefevre, are promised by Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Dodge Publishing Co., No. 40 West Thirteenth Street, have nearly ready 'Favorite Songs of Love,' and 'For Every Music Lover, or How to Know Music,' by Aubertine Woodward Moore.

It is enough to say of 'Who's Who for 1902' (Macmillan) that it is more inclusive of men and women of the time by 200 pages than last year's issue—the present being the fifty-fourth. As is well known, this most convenient directory no longer confines itself to British or Anglo-Saxon personages, but has a universal outlook. Its main value, however, is still British above all. In the American portion we might have expected to find our two governors of dependencies, Gen. Leonard Wood and Gov. Taft.

Mrs. Ady's 'Sacharissa' has needed less than a decade to pass from its second to a third edition (E. P. Dutton & Co.). No revision has apparently been found necessary, and we shall add nothing to our comments on this work offered in 1894. It is handsomely made, and has four historic portraits, beginning with Dorothy Sidney herself, and ending with Algernon Sidney.

Extremely attractive is the little two-volume edition of Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' bearing George Newnes's London imprint (New York: Scribners). The print is admirably clear, the binding in pliant leather; and Mr. Edmund J. Sullivan's full-page pen designs are often ornamental and generally effective.

In the pocket "Temple Classics" of Dent-Macmillan we have now Perrault's 'Tales of Passed Times,' with twelve illustrations by Charles Robinson, one in color. The series has been eked out from the Prince de Beaumont and from Mme. d'Aulnoy.

Dr. Edward Everett Hale's 'In His Name' has been translated into French by Mary Prince Sauveur, with the author's sanction (New York: William R. Jenkins), and is offered as a text-book for schools.

Sir Richard Burton might well have prayed to be delivered from his friends. The process of publishing the rakings of his desk-drawers goes merrily on; it is called showing respect to his memory, and bringing home to his countrymen what they have lost in him. His memory stands fast, and will stand fast, and his work was well done when he died. But the "literary executors" continue their antics and refuse to let his ashes rest. If the custom spreads, the eighteenth-century Curll will have found successors, and his new terror added to death will be revived. This last instalment, 'Wanderings in Three Continents,' edited by W. H. Wilkins (Dodd, Mead & Co.), consists of some eight lectures and essays, descriptive, in a more or less popu-

lar fashion, of his principal expeditions, which were read before different geographical and scientific societies. They contain nothing which is not more fully and picturesquely given in his previously published books.

The latest of the Yale Bicentennial publications consists of a series of critical and historical essays by members of the Theological Faculty, originally read before the Semitic and Biblical Club ('Biblical and Semitic Studies,' Charles Scribner's Sons). These are average club papers. Among them is a radical article by Professor Curtis on the nature and origin of the tribes of Israel; others are on the growth and development of Israelitish law, oral and written, by Professors Kent and Sanders; on the Old Testament conception of sin as interpreted and developed in Rabbinic literature, by Professor Porter; on the transfiguration, with a good statement of different theories as to it, by Dr. Moulton; on the argument of Stephen's speech in Acts, by Professor Bacon. To these is added, somewhat incongruously, a translation by Professor Torrey of part of the 'Futuh Misr' of Ibn Abd al-Hakam, narrating the Mohammedan conquest of Egypt and North Africa. All of these papers do credit to Yale University, but no one stands out as a peculiarly significant contribution to its subject. It is to be hoped that Professor Torrey is preparing for publication a complete translation of Ibn Abd al-Hakam.

'Old Times in Dixie Land,' by Mrs. Caroline E. Merrick (New York: The Grafton Press), is a discursive account of life in the Southern Confederacy during the war time, by a woman who was to the manor born, and who knew the alternations of prosperity and poverty which constituted the unwritten tragedy of Southern life in those revolutionary days. The story is of varied interest and value. There are many pathetic scenes, and some personalities of original humor in its pages; and there are also frequent excursions into fields of family experience, and moralizings, which are of more concern to personal friends than to the reading public.

"The New Mexico" is described in the *National Geographic Magazine* for January by Mr. John W. Foster, who has just been the guest of the nation. He contrasts the condition of isolation, bankruptcy, and social disorder which prevailed in 1873, when he first went there as United States Minister, with its great prosperity in nearly every respect under the wise and beneficent rule of President Diaz. Its railroad development, the improvement of its ports, the great canal by which the valley of Mexico is drained, the finances, foreign relations, and commerce are particularly dwelt upon. Mr. Foster touches only lightly upon a most important part of his subject, the increasing absorption by citizens of this country of the various manufactures and mining industries, and of large tracts of the most fertile land. Nor does he refer to the growth of an anti-foreign sentiment, which other recent visitors have noticed, and which they hold to be ominous of the future. A number of interesting illustrations accompany the article. We remark also a "Progress Map of Signal-Corps Telegraph Lines and Cables" in the Philippines, on which is every town or hamlet known by the Jesuits or reported to the War Department. No better proof of the activity of the officials of the Signal Office is needed than the fact that, in three years, 7,000 miles of wire has been strung in the islands, penetrating into nearly all corners of the archipelago.

The *Geographical Journal* for January opens with an account of the Uganda protectorate, by Sir Harry Johnston, in which there is much information as to the scattered native races, their origin and language. Among some of these occur curiously varied human types, as, for instance, in the same cluster of Andorobo there will be "hideous little black prognathous dwarfs side by side with handsome youths of almost European features." Sir Harry dwells on the great beauty of part of the land, and especially of the mountain lake Hannington, the haunt of innumerable flamingoes. "Seen from above, they look like a belt which on its outer side is gray-white, then becomes white in the middle, and possesses an inner ring of the most exquisite rose tint. The reason for this is that all the birds on the outer edge of the semicircle are the young in their immature plumage, those in the middle of the belt are full-grown birds that have not acquired the full beauty of the adult, while along the inner edge are old birds in the full beauty of a plumage which ranges from pale blush-pink to scarlet crimson." In his description of the exploration of the Ruwenzori range of snow-mountains, there is a useful summary of the vegetation, in which are some remarkable features, as lobelias twenty feet and more in height, and mosses eighteen inches thick on tree trunks at a height of 12,000 feet. The Rev. Dr. Zwemer tells of three journeys in northern Oman in Arabia, in which he refers to the great civilizing influence of British trade on the fanatical inhabitants of the so-called Pirate Coast. With but a single companion he traversed the coast and crossed the peninsula, being received everywhere with genial hospitality. Col. G. E. Church gives a summary of an exploration of the upper Paraguay, made by order of the Bolivian Government to determine whether it offers a navigable route to the Atlantic. There seems little doubt that steamers drawing three feet of water can ascend the river at all seasons to the Bolivian frontier. The easiest and most direct route, however, is by the Amazon, which Col. Church thinks will eventually take to foreign markets the wonderful natural wealth of the heart of South America. Among the numerous illustrations of this number are some cinematograph pictures of the Severn bore, taken by Dr. Vaughan Cornish.

An interesting discovery is announced by Prof. F. R. von Wieser, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number 12, of a copy of Martin Waldseemüller's world-chart of 1507 in which the name America is first given to the Western Hemisphere, together with a copy of his Carta Marina of 1517, in a private library in Wirtemberg. After describing the charts, of which he is about to publish facsimiles, Prof. von Wieser laments that Waldseemüller's true claim to fame, "the extraordinarily widespread and permanent influence of his chart of 1507 upon the development of the true conception of the world's form," should have been so completely overshadowed by this mere name-giving. Other articles are upon the question, Is Lake Tanganyika a "relict sea"? upon Baratta's earthquake map of Italy, and an inquiry as to the distance at which land is visible at sea.

A large convention of the directors of the so-called "Reform" gymnasiums, also termed the "Frankfort and Altona" system, held in Cassel, was a revelation of the strength of this movement in the German educational world. The leading characteristic of these schools is their "lateinloser Unterbau," and also the innovation that fewer studies are taken in a single year, and these finished if possible. Eighty-four representatives of these institutions were present, of which there are now thirty-seven scattered over Germany, new ones being established every year. The new scheme has been able to compel recognition on all hands. At the Strassburg National Philological Convention, the Rector of the pioneer institution of this kind (that at Frankfort) made an excellent impression by his dispassionate presentation of the "Reform" principles. At the Cassel meeting the Government was for the first time officially represented. The movement has evidently become a fixed fact in secondary-school discipline in Germany.

Modesty almost restrains us from mentioning an article in the London *Publishers' Circular* of January 11, very flattering to the *Nation* as a journal of the class to which it belongs. The praise, however, both precedes and follows a reproach of "anti-English bias" on the political side, seemingly not without some reference to our indisposition to approve of the war in South Africa. This bias, moreover, is detected in our recent review (No. 1904) of Miss Meakin's 'Ribbon of Iron'—an account of the Siberian Railway—in which we alleged aggression on the part of the Chinese in the outbreak at Blagovestchensk on July 14, 1900, for which they suffered so terribly at the hands of the frenzied Russians. But the editor of the *Publishers' Circular* might have read a similar statement in the letter of our special correspondent, Prof. G. Frederick Wright of Oberlin, published in the *Nation* of September 27, 1900, who came upon the scene when the Amur was still "fairly black" with Chinese bodies. He did not justify the slaughter committed by the Russians, but he described the peaceful and harmonious relations existing between the Cossacks and the Chinese up to the moment when the Chinese fort at Aygun "began, without warning, to fire upon passing steamboats," and presently on Blagovestchensk itself; and contended that every appearance argued against Russian intention to disturb those relations.

—Following his series of portraits of women, Mr. Hart begins in the February *Century* a presentation of Stuart's portraits of men. He has chosen for a beginning the portrait of Washington painted by Stuart in Philadelphia, 1795, for William Bingham, Senator from Pennsylvania from 1795 to 1801. Although Stuart made some half-dozen copies from it, Mr. Hart points out that these each show some intentional variation, leaving the original a distinct type, as compared with the commonly known "Stuart Washington." In the paper following Mr. Hart's, and describing a visit to Mount Vernon by the Polish poet Niemcewicz, it is interesting to find the Pole recording in his diary a conversation with Mrs. Washington

on "the small likeness that there is between the General and his portraits." Mr. Daniel H. Burnham of the Commission for the Improvement of Washington city introduces briefly a series of papers on the past and prospective improvements of the capital, giving high credit to the Columbian Exposition for teaching the country the great truth of the need of a comprehensive design and plan for the improvement of cities in their entirety. The first paper is by Charles Moore, clerk of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, and its most promising feature is its evidence of the growing tendency of officials in power to do nothing involving the improvement of the city, except on consultation with the commission of experts authorized a year ago, consisting of Daniel H. Burnham, Charles F. McKim, Augustus St. Gaudens, and Frederick Law Olmsted, jr. The tendency to civic improvements elsewhere is represented by papers on the recent alterations in the Chicago River and on the Cathedral of St. John the Divine, in New York. The first subject is treated from the standpoint of utility rather than beauty, but the necessary results of Chicago's new drainage system have removed such a mass of positive ugliness that the contrast may almost deceive one into regarding the present condition as one of positive beauty.

—While the *Century* gives particular attention to the contemplated improvements in the Federal capital, Francis E. Leupp contributes to *Scribner's* a glowing tribute to the picturesque character of the city as it is. He has not only thoroughly "covered the ground," but has even witnessed a Washington sunrise from the summit of the Monument, and his paper is certainly convincing as to the wealth of fragmentary beauty which the new Park Commission is to weld into a harmonious whole. William Jarvis gives a brief account of the young sculptor Paul Troubetzkoy, whose work has attracted much attention during the past decade. The question as to what nation deserves the credit of his work is of considerable interest. He was born at Intra, Lago Maggiore, of a Russian father and an American mother, and is claimed by the Italians, though he has no Italian blood and his characteristics as an artist do not link him with any Italian sculptor. Still further in the line of art, Russell Sturgis gives a brief description of the collection of etchings, lithographs, photographs of paintings and drawings, and miscellaneous prints recently presented to the New York Public Library by Samuel Putnam Avery—in all, 17,775 separate prints, and about 500 books. Important papers of immediate public interest are Mr. Vanderlip's second article on our "Commercial Invasion" of Europe, and a twenty-five-page article on the proposed Isthmian Ship-Canal, profusely illustrated, by William H. Burr of the Canal Commission.

—Though there may be differences of opinion among economists and historians as to the value of a particular interpretation of history, both agree that economic activities play an exceedingly important part in shaping national policy. The most significant example in recent years of how an economic change can affect great national interests is to be found in the development of synthetic indigo. In *Science* (January 3) is to be found an account of a paper read by Arthur C. Green before the Chemical Section of the British Association, at the Glasgow meeting, last summer. Mr. Green gives an accurate account of the present status of the coal-tar industry, and incidentally of the whole chemical industry, which is of interest to us in view of the new trade relations of Germany and the United States. Artificial indigo first saw the light of day as far back as 1870, though the synthesis was really completed only in 1878. For a score of years synthetic indigo was simply a laboratory curiosity; but in 1898, the Badische Anilin und Soda Fabrik brought it on the market, and it was a commercial fact. To-day, Germany has control of the English color industry, is no longer dependent upon England for raw material, and threatens the natural indigo industry, whose destruction would mean a loss to India of nearly $15,000,000 annually. The Baden company alone can produce enough artificial indigo to supply the world's consumption.

—The Indian planters have only begun to bestir themselves. Against the prevailing low prices the only suggestion had been to increase the output; but now they are talking of encouragement to scientific research, and appealing to the Government of Bengal for aid. Some have gone so far as to suggest "Americanizing" the industry by combining the interests in Behar and even in the whole of India. But the army of research chemists engaged in the splendid laboratories of the European coal-tar color factories have a great start on the one or two chemists studying the means of improving the cultivation and manufacture of natural indigo. While scientific methods may be applied to the cultivation and extraction of the indigo-plant, the ever-delicate financial relations of the great dependency and the United Kingdom will be subjected to an additional strain. Mr. Green is convinced that a scientific revival is wanted in England, and that the gloomy condition of the color industry is due to the short-sightedness, ignorance, and want of enterprise of the English manufacturer. The control of the industry has passed into the hands of men who have no knowledge and absolutely no appreciation of the science upon which their business rests, and, concerned only with getting the ultimate amount of present profit, have discouraged all scientific investigations as waste of time and money. Speaking of the establishment of technical schools, Mr. Green is not very confident of their effectiveness "until the public can be completely disabused of the fallacy that a year or two of technical training pumped into an ignorant schoolboy will produce a better works-chemist than a university course of scientific study laid upon the foundation of a good general education."

—'Menelik et Nous,' by Hugues Le Roux (Paris: Lamm), was written at the request of the Negus, who invited the French author to visit Addis-Ababa, and to prepare a volume on Abyssinia after a journey from one end of it to the other accompanied by a small troop of Abyssinians selected from the Emperor's best soldiers to act as guides and escort. Le Roux relates his experiences as political envoy, his observations as an explorer and discoverer of new regions from a geographical and commercial standpoint, his experiences as a hunter, and his sensations as a *romancier*. The book is illustrated from photographs taken by himself on the journey. It is divided into five parts: "The Cross-roads of Aden," "The Route to Addis-Ababa," "Guest of the Emperor," "Toward the Blue Nile," "France and Abyssinia." It describes various audiences, both public and private, with Menelik, gives accounts of life and customs among all classes in Abyssinia, and reports the expedition to a hitherto unexplored part of the Blue Nile, whose course Mr. Le Roux was able to determine definitely. The fifty-two days of caravan were enlivened by elephant hunts, the pursuit of lions, leopards, rhinoceroses, and hippopotamuses, and a brusque encounter with the most savage negroes of Africa. As M. Le Roux was given permission by Menelik to visit the gold mines and placers of the west, his caravan was joined on its way by gold-seekers. Two of these were seized and cut to pieces by the Shankallas, whose chiefs the French explorer led in captivity to the Emperor. The book contains a definite statement of the mining and agricultural resources of Abyssinia, and it closes with these words concerning the future: "It is no prophecy that I place at the end of this volume, but a logical conclusion drawn from facts I have myself observed. Before a railroad is completed from Cairo to the Cape—a highway of ambition and conquest across Africa—there will be a great commercial route offered to the kindly activity of all. From the cross-roads of the Red Sea, its triumphal course will have been opened by Menelik and us."

—In view of the recent death of the Amir of Afghanistan and the political situation which has now developed, the republication of Dr. J. A. Gray's 'At the Court of the Amir: A Narrative' (Macmillan Co.) is certainly timely. Dr. Gray was surgeon to the Amir for some years, and gives in his book a very vivid account of his experiences and impressions at the Afghan court. In it he has used the letters which he had written home, and has made, apparently, little change in them or addition to them. As a consequence, his book has the liveliness of epistolary first-hand, snapshot effects, but has also many trivialities and some most exasperating lacunas. It is evident that Dr. Gray made no systematic attempt to study and understand the Afghans or to enter into their life. He was always dependent upon an interpreter, and to that his troubles, which were many, seem to have been almost entirely due. He was also of a phenomenal uncuriousness when he met anything that he did not at once understand: "I don't know why," occurs again and again. Yet, with all that, the picture which he gives us is of an insistent truthfulness. If he was not a trained Orientalist and could never possibly have become one, he was a trained physician, and saw everything with the precise physician's eye. He had, too, a liking for the registering of little details, and these are so accurate that it is possible for the student of the East to reconstruct from them matters of which Dr. Gray himself, in all probability, never dreamed. On himself and the happenings of his life he lavishes a minuteness and liking which have the true Boswellian charm. The humors of the mediciner-at-large *in partibus infidelium*

were always present with him; he enjoyed them to the full, and his reader cannot help enjoying them with him. The gusto with which he describes makeshift operations and terrific doses is irrepressible. He is evidently a man of great resource and a skilled and experienced physician, and so can afford to tell tales of his own mishaps and failures. His book is entertaining in the highest degree and more than entertaining; but the pity is that he could never bring himself to learn Persian, and so shake free of the whole rabble of interpreters, backbiters, and spies. If he had, the Amir might have been alive to-day, and the Central Asian crisis further in the future.

—Tadamasa Hayashi was the Commissary-General for the Empire of Japan at the Paris Exposition of 1900. He is not to be confounded with the Baron Tadasu Hayashi, who is Minister from Japan to Great Britain; nor yet with Toshio Hayashi, also residing in London. He was the founder of a Paris importing house which, in the hands of his successors, has done much to acquaint Europe with the higher and less-known arts of ancient Japan; but it is some years since he has been actively engaged in that commercial enterprise. It served him, however, to form a great collection of Japanese art treasures; and it was under his direction that was prepared a great folio dealing less with what was shown within the Japanese enclosures of the Exhibition than with the whole field of Japanese cultivation and Japanese thought, as embodied in their plastic and graphic arts. It is, of course, in this book alone that any Oriental or non-European nation has spoken its mind as to its own fine art in any such way that the West could understand it. Here, in decent French, is set forth the view which able and highly instructed Japanese take of their national arts for a period of 1,200 years or more. Its pages are thickly sown with text illustrations, and there are, in addition, about eighty full-page plates, some containing two and some a greater number of separate pieces of fine art. A note to the reader is signed by Mr. Hayashi; and the preface, signed by the Director-General of the Imperial Museums of Japan, Baron Riyuitci Kuki, announces that a man known to European students of the East, Kakuzo Okakura, first planned the work, and that he, abandoning it, turned it over to others, whose names are given in detail; also, that the translation into French has been done by Emmanuel Tranquois. This is a book of permanent rank, a book of reference to which we shall go as to the foundations of anything to be written hereafter on Oriental art. It will be interesting, as time is afforded, to compare the statements of this work with the disagreements among Western writers as to the epoch and as to the relative importance of this and that branch of Japanese fine art.

—In addition to the above-named book, now a year old, we will mention a first volume or first part of an illustrated catalogue describing the collection of Tadamasa Hayashi's collection, which it appears that he is going to sell (or at least the part of it represented by this volume) at auction, in Paris, at the close of the present month. Its nature is, of course, that of a full and very intelligent sale-catalogue, with minute descriptions of the pieces exhibited, and, so far, it would have but a limited interest to those who have not the pieces before them. It contains, however, a large number of photographic plates, representing so many pieces of Japanese art, and of so many different kinds, that these, taken with the full descriptions of the text, easy to find and to compare, will serve as a handbook for the beginner and as a check to the opinions and the conclusions of the more advanced student. Another volume covering the collection of illustrated books is announced, but no date is set for its appearance, nor for the sale of those objects.

FURNESS'S TWELFTH NIGHT.

A New Variorum Edition of Shakspere. Edited by Horace Howard Furness. Vol. XIII. Twelfth Night. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

The thirteenth volume of Dr. Furness's great Variorum lies before us, and a delightful book it is. "Twelfth Night," to be sure, is "good enough without notes," but notes are necessary evils, and the history of Shaksperian annotation has almost become a specialty by itself. Variorums we must have, and Shakspere grammars and lexicons, and treatises on "metric"; nor are we ready to join the cry of those who jeer at commentators. The dullest of them may stumble upon an idea, and there is still much in these dramas which resists explanation. When the whole body of pertinent and impertinent scholia is collected and sifted and set forth by a scholar of Dr. Furness's learning and accomplishments, it might seem only becoming to accept the gift in reverential gratitude, acknowledge it courteously, and say no more. But every fresh volume of this series tempts to extended comment. The mere toil of the editor, prodigious as it is, is the smallest part of the wonder. The skill with which he arranges his unwieldy material seems to increase with every year, and—more admirable still—his spirits never flag. The present volume is not merely a record of what his predecessors have done, or failed to do; it is full of original contributions, varying in their value with the circumstances, but joyous to read, and instinct with the keenest appreciation of Shakspere. Clearly it has been a constant delight to Dr. Furness to edit "Twelfth Night," and he permits his readers to share his pleasure. We are in the presence of an uncommon phenomenon—a Variorum that exhilarates.

Dr. Furness is resolutely consistent in his gentle scorn for those who care to determine the dates of Shakspere's plays. All or most of his prefaces give utterance to this feeling. "We who have free souls," he says, "and, *as far as the plays themselves are concerned,* care as little for the hour when Shakspere wrote them as for the quality of his ink. . . ." This is going pretty far. But, after all, the words that we have italicized imply a virtual abandonment of the extreme position. "As far as the plays themselves are concerned," quotha? Let it read "as far as the individual play," and one may give (craftily qualified) assent. We have all been worried by those Shaksperian chronologists who insist on times and seasons to the exclusion of everything else—who will not suffer us to read "Hamlet" or "Henry IV." without obtruding upon us a cumbrous machinery of groups and periods. Yet surely it is also admissible to contemplate the dramas as a kind of whole—as the *work* of Shakspere no less than as his *works;* and for such study the consideration of dates is indispensable. Dr. Furness apologizes for the repetition necessitated by his plan of making each volume complete in itself. It is not to be avoided, for the most part, but no one would object to his omitting, in subsequent volumes, this particular bit of personal opinion. There is good sound doctrine in Romans xiv. 3, and it is not limited to sacrificial scruples.

The text of "Twelfth Night" is unusually free from corruption. So accurate is it, indeed, that Dr. Furness, discharged from the duty of registering countless quarto variants, draws a long breath, and expresses his satisfaction at the absence of all authorities save the First Folio. On another occasion we have adverted to the increasing conservatism, in this matter of text, that has marked successive volumes of the 'New Variorum.' In "Othello," published in 1886, Dr. Furness abandoned his plan of constituting a text, and reprinted the Folio letter for letter, eloquently justifying his procedure in his preface. Since the *apparatus criticus* is always before the reader's eye, and since the editor expresses his own opinion whenever a doubtful reading occurs, no objection can be urged to his method, and it has obvious advantages for such an edition. Occasionally, however, Dr. Furness carries his respect for the venerable too far, and defends a manifest error. In the present volume—though there is still a prefatory fling at the quartos, delicately put, but showing that he regards them as vicious intromitters—we detect a slightly lessened regard for the Folio, in healthy reaction from a too exclusive reverence. The druidic mist that enshrouds the "true original copies" of Heminge and Condell's title-page covers a multitude of their sins. Folio-worship is a form of religion that is not quite free from superstitious taint. Among the Baconians, indeed, it has grown to be a kind of melancholy madness.

The care which Dr. Furness has bestowed on the text, despite the fact that he has chosen to reprint the Folio, is shown in a thousand places. A striking example is his commendation of Capell's "excellent comma" (p. 168)—excellent indeed, and too seldom heeded; Dr. Furness is the first editor to do justice to Capell. He even suggests emendations himself. A tempting one is the transference of a speech (p. 171) from Sir Toby to Sir Andrew, whose "weak treble" one seems to recognize—"and yet we know not." On the other hand, a subtle but inconclusive defence of the Folio may be seen at p. 186, where it is a question between *and* and *not.* Another instance of excessive faith in the Folio is the defence of "with adorations, fertile tears" as a complete verse, with an appeal to the overworked doctrine of the "pause that makes up to the ear for the loss of a metric foot." Whatever may be said of this doctrine in the main, the present passage, with its lyrical richness, is no place for its application. Pope's emendation *"with* fertile tears" is not only a metrical necessity; it is stylistically inevitable, and will keep its place in defiance of even Dr. Furness's persuasive note. On the other hand, Theo-

bald's unnecessary (though not improbable) emendation of *out* for *on't* (p. 232) is approved as something "demanded." It is hard indeed to hold the balance in such cases. Be it remembered, however, that in general Dr. Furness has an uncommonly steady hand.

Some of the editor's remarks are extremely subtle. "Unless the master were the man" (p. 92) gives occasion to one of these, which is so pretty that we dismiss it with great reluctance in favor of the more obvious interpretation. A felicitous gloss, and certainly correct, is that on "gives a very echo to the seat where love is thron'd" (p. 138). *Per contra*, the point of Sir Andrew's "Jezebel," applied to Malvolio, is lost (p. 161). For *reader*, in the last line of the notes but one, read *writer*. This is not a misprint, but an injustice; let it be rectified, if the heavens fall or the plates have to be cut. Now and then, Dr. Furness's humor will puzzle foreigners, who may take it in dead earnest—as where he says that "*firago* seems far more expressive than the tame *virago;* there is in it a suggestion of *fire, fury, fiend, ferocious*, all combined" (p. 240).

It is impossible to criticise the work in detail, nor is such criticism required. A few matters in which we disagree with the editor, or in which we detect slight omissions, may now be specified. Most of them are trifles, and, were they all important, they would count for nothing in comparison with the excellence of the whole. Sir Toby's song, "O the twelfe day of December," is still left unidentified. Is it not, in all probability, the historical ballad of "Musselburgh Field," preserved in the Percy MS., and beginning—

"On the tenth day of December,
And the fourth yeere of King Edwards raigne"?

In the note on *ay-word* and *nay-word* (p. 129) we miss a reference to Dr. C. P. G. Scott's admirable monograph. The miss is more seriously felt in the case of *cockney* (p. 251). Grey's note (p. 152) which restricts to poisoners the punishment of boiling to death, is quoted with approval, but it is incomplete; there is much lore on the subject collected by Robertson in his 'Materials for the History of Thomas Becket.' On "Jolly Robin" (p. 266) a quotation from Chaucer's "Troilus" would have been in order, and a reference to Professor Flügel's 'Neuenglisches Lesebuch' would have cleared up the subject still farther. It is not quite certain that *jig* is from *giga*, "a sort of fiddle" (p. 51). "*But* . . . in its original meaning, namely, *out-take*, or *except*" (p. 77) seems to imply a misapprehension of the history of the word, but the reference to Abbott's 'Shakespearean Grammar' mends matters. How *a*, for *he*, could be "reduced to a mere aspirate" is not quite obvious (p. 77). The suggestion that to "our American minds" a squash "can be only a large melon" will certainly disturb Dr. Furness's agricultural readers. Boys who steal squashes thinking them melons are immemorial objects of rural wit. Is "a *dry* jest" a "stupid" one (p. 42)? Hardly; any more than "a dry blow" is a dull stroke. At p. 62 a reference would have been in place: "Montaigne has two stories" is pretty vague. We venture to doubt the supposed pun on collars and colors (p. 61), though asserted with "of course" by no less an authority than Dr. Aldis Wright and backed with a reference by Dr. Furness. One wonders to see the editor objecting tautology to the usual and inevitable explanation of "Good my mouse of virtue" (p. 68)—as if idiom and humor shuddered at tautology (a word to conjure with!). Dr. Furness's perception of Shakspere's humor is extremely delicate, but here it seems to be at fault. One passage, which Dr. Furness calls "dark," is not hard: "Words are very rascals since bonds disgraced them." In the old days, a man's *word* was as good as his bond—or, rather, a *word* was sufficient, and hence *bonds* were never heard of. The introduction of *bonds*, then, was a plain discrediting of *words*. It is odd that Dr. Furness should have missed this; the notes that he prints are truly, as he himself declares, far from illuminating, and his own suggestion will hardly meet with acceptance.

But enough of this. It is small business and may seem ungracious. We yield to none in our admiration for Dr. Furness's achievement. Our "excepts before excepted" must be taken merely as a proof of the interest with which we have read the volume. May there soon be another!

SOUTH CAROLINA IN THE REVOLUTION.

The History of South Carolina in the Revolution, 1775-1780. By Edward McCrady. Macmillan. 1901. Pp. xxxiii, 899.

The third volume of Mr. McCrady's elaborate history, our notice of which has been far too long delayed, is chiefly remarkable, aside from its detailed account of military operations, for its exposition of the attitude of South Carolina towards the mother country during the Revolution, and of the slow and reluctant growth of the idea of independence. To the majority of South Carolinians, vigorous resistance to the course of Great Britain not only did not mean political separation, but did not for a long time preclude the possibility of reconciliation. The "Association" organized by the Provincial Congress in June, 1775, became practically a revolutionary Government, and, through a system of committees with indefinite powers, began an aggressive enforcement of the agreement. The address of the Congress to the new Governor, Lord William Campbell, a few days later, declared the desire of the people for reconciliation, though preparations for military defence continued, and consignments of powder were seized. But the power of the general committee to punish non-subscribers to the Association "according to sound policy" was soon arbitrarily exercised, with the result of replacing the despotism of King and Parliament by the despotism of a self-appointed committee, representing but a small fraction of the people of the province, with no support in the interior, and with the opposition of many of the most prominent and influential men of Charleston and the low country.

The Council itself was divided into moderates and extremists, the one hopeful of reconciliation, the other bent upon war. The Germans in the interior, with little knowledge of the merits or facts of the dispute with England, living a freer life than they had ever enjoyed before, and, having no use for either stamps or tea, were not disposed to join the Revolutionary party; and the same sentiment obtained among the Scotch Presbyterians. The merchants and planters in Charleston were as a rule opposed to war. But although the grievances of South Carolina were different in character from those of Massachusetts, and different, also, in onerousness, the radical leaders, like Drayton, Middleton, and Gadsden, pushed with vigor and address the advantage already gained, took possession of the political machinery, and did their utmost to force the colony into war. In September the Governor, whose prompt action at the beginning might have defeated the movement, withdrew to a sloop-of-war in the harbor, provincial troops took possession of Fort Johnson, and Charleston was fortified. How far the movement was from representing any majority of opinion was shown by the numerous acts of violence perpetrated by the Revolutionary party, and the narrow majorities by which its measures were passed. A military demonstration in the back-country brought on, in November, the first bloodshed, and the opposition in that section was ruthlessly put down.

The same general feeling of regard for England which denied popular support to these proceedings, made the idea of independence also of slow growth. When Gadsden declared for it, in February, 1776, the declaration came, as Drayton expressed it later, like an explosion of thunder to the members of the Provincial Congress who heard it, and called forth a warm reproof from John Rutledge, who asserted his willingness "to ride post by day and night to Philadelphia, to assist in reuniting Great Britain and America" (p. 109). Even the resolution for the establishment of an independent government was carried by a House in which less than two-fifths of the members, apparently, were present, while the fact that the proposed government did not represent the whole province, but only the low country, made its influence divisive. The choice of John Rutledge for President—as the official who replaced the old Governor was now to be called—was most fortunate, his natural conservatism and firm stand against separation from England enabling him to act as a bulwark for the people against the precipitate conduct of the radical leaders. A little later, Chief Justice Drayton, in his charge to the grand jury at Charleston, followed Gadsden's example, and declared for independence, but neither his indictment of Great Britain nor his argument in support of it was such as to appeal strongly to the people of South Carolina. In his bill of grievances, as Mr. McCrady says:

"There was nothing which particularly affected their colony but the general charge that Parliament claimed the right to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever. And in regard to this, no one in South Carolina, not even Gadsden, had ever denied its right to bind them, except in the matter of taxation. . . . Then, in the matter of taxation, it was open to the friends of the royal Government to refer the Chief Justice to his own *Letters of Freemen*, in 1769, in which he had strenuously maintained this right of Parliament in that particular. . . . It is singular, too, that, in justifying the great step, the Chief Justice does not allude to the real grievances of this colony. He does not point out how the native colonists had been superseded and set aside by the officials of the Board of Trade for the placemen who hung around the throne for recognition and reward for questionable service rendered. He does not point out to the people of the Up Country

that it was the wilful neglect and corrupt conduct of that Board in England which had deprived them of courts for the punishment of crime and the maintenance of justice. . . . In the stead of all this, he appeals to them to declare themselves independent of England because New England's fishing trade had been interfered with, and because the Legislature of New York had been suspended, the charter of Massachusetts altered, and the Roman Catholic religion recognized in Quebec. But what had the Scotch-Irish Presbyterians who, with the Bible containing their own version of the Psalms, were enjoying the liberty of conscience in the country they were wresting from the Indians, to do with all that? Were they, for the sake of the New England fishermen and the Canadian Protestants, to go into a war and expose themselves to the inroads of the Indians, and to set up a government on the coast which was not yet prepared to abandon the Church of England as a church of State? . . . The Chief Justice had nothing to say to the people of the Up Country, explaining why they should fight for representation in the Parliament in England at the bidding of a body in which they had had no representation at home" (pp. 119-122).

With South Carolina, as with the country at large, it was the logic of events rather than of argument that urged the colonies to independence. Yet even here the reluctance of South Carolina was strikingly exhibited. The representatives of the State in Congress signed the Declaration "with grave misgivings" (p. 175). Not until July 9 did they write to President Rutledge, and even then they referred to the matter only incidentally. Their reluctance but reflected the hesitation and uncertainty at home, where there were few families in the low country but were divided on the question. The same reluctance to admit independence as final, while still resisting the coercive policy of the Crown, was strong in 1778, when the terms offered by the peace commissioners would, Mr. McCrady thinks, have been gladly accepted by a majority of the people of the State.

Upon the rejection by Congress of the offer of conciliation, and the departure of the commissioners in November, 1778, the British moved upon the South. The flourishing trade of South Carolina and Georgia favored by the interval of peace, the active commerce with France and consequent opposition to the French alliance, the importance of Charleston as "the storehouse of merchandise and the retreat of privateers," combined to make these States an inviting object of attack, while the remoteness of the region from the previous centre of hostilities, and in particular the defenceless condition of Georgia, promised an easy victory. The military operations that followed are traced by Mr. McCrady in great detail and with not a little adverse criticism. He points out that, from the beginning of the war, the prevailing military theory had intrusted the defence of the country to a regular army, notwithstanding that a regular army was one of the institutions which the colonies generally feared; and the consequent neglect of the militia left without defence any section in which a sufficient force of Continental troops could not be maintained. Moreover, although the regular army was open to all who would probably have served in the militia—a point to which we think Mr. McCrady does not give sufficient weight—the service soon deteriorated, and the ranks came to be mainly filled, not with patriots such as those who fought at Bunker Hill, but with hired soldiers who fought for pay, and who often served as readily under British as under American commanders. Mr. McCrady has no condemnation for Washington, but he points out that when, in May, 1779, Washington declared to Gouverneur Morris his inability to respond to calls for help from "particular States" without sacrificing "the most obvious principles of military prosperity," South Carolina was left to take care of itself; and it did in fact meet the British attack mainly with its own forces.

The conspicuous fact about the British operations in South Carolina was their success. The sentiment of Charleston was shown during the first siege, when it sought neutrality for the remainder of the war. The capture of the town was shortly followed by the submission of virtually the entire State. In June, 1780, "there was not a Continental officer or soldier in the field." Clinton wrote to Lord George Germain, "I may venture to assert that there are few men in South Carolina who are not either our prisoners or in arms with us" (p. 533). The revolutionary party was broken up, and only John Rutledge remained, clothed with full powers to keep alive, if only in his own person, the State Government. "There can be little doubt," says Mr. McCrady, "that at this time wise rulers might, with care and moderation, have reëstablished the royal authority," and reconciled South Carolina to the Crown (p. 535).

The widespread belief "that in order to secure the independence of the others Congress had determined to sacrifice the Southern States," was a further powerful inducement to submission. Mr. McCrady seems to be convinced that the belief was well founded, and that the resolution of Congress denouncing the report as "insidious and utterly void of foundation" was a case of protesting too much; and he further adduces the testimony of Luzerne and Duane. The time was unquestionably a critical one, but the conduct of Clinton, Cornwallis, and Lord Rawdon proved ultimately to be the salvation of the Union so far as the South was concerned. When Clinton, in June, 1780, issued his proclamation, restoring to all the rights and duties of citizens and inhabitants such of the people of the province as were prisoners on parole, but declaring that all such persons "who should afterward neglect to return to their allegiance and a due submission to his Majesty's Government should be considered as enemies and rebels to the same, and be treated accordingly" (p. 554), he fixed the turning-point in the contest. The cruelties of Tarleton and the outrageous conduct of the British troops were not easily to be forgotten, while the attack upon the Scotch-Irish, who heretofore had taken no active part in the war, "converted the neutrals in the State into . . . implacable enemies." And, with the war spirit no longer confined to a class, but animating the whole people, the "heroic period," as Mr. McCrady calls it, began.

We have no space to follow Mr. McCrady through the four hundred pages in which he traces, with minute detail, the first months of the partisan warfare that ensued. No other writer has examined this phase of the Revolution with such painstaking care, or shown so clearly the place in the struggle of the new leaders who come upon the field. The narrative ends with 1780, the remaining years of the Revolutionary period being reserved for a fourth volume. The emphasis which is put in the present volume on the services of Marion, Sumter, and the other popular military leaders, and the intimation in the closing paragraph that the treatment of Greene's career will not be entirely in the spirit of eulogy, makes us hope that the remainder of the story which Mr. McCrady is telling with such spirit and success may soon be made public.

THE MUSICAL BASIS OF VERSE.

The Musical Basis of Verse. By J. P. Dabney. Longmans, Green & Co.

The title of this book is somewhat misleading; we expect to read a succinct monograph on those features of music which underlie the structure of verse, whereas we find a discursive treatise upon poetry in general. A great deal indeed is said about music, but it is rather the enthusiastic assertion of the author's belief in its basic relation to verse than any cogent proof that such an affinity exists. Still less is anywhere definitely expounded the nature and extent of the relationship between the two kindred arts.

Hitherto no satisfactory book on poetics has appeared in English. They have variously exhibited grave defects—imperfect grasp of the subject, incomplete analysis, disregard of previous investigations, hasty composition, unsystematic presentation, or, worst of all, a false and pretentious affectation of system. Those most recently published have generally labored under the incubus of a preconceived idea, and have striven to wrench from the facts a confirmation of a beloved hypothesis rather than to build up a theory out of usages of verse writers. Most have altogether exaggerated the importance of musical knowledge as an aid in explaining the difficulties of English versification. Many have wasted much space and effort in a tedious application of the historical method where it is not at all needed.

This fresh attempt we took up with much interest, but do not find it in any respect an improvement upon its forerunners. Each and all of the faults of its predecessors might be found in it by meticulous criticism, such as we do not propose; and other grave defects are manifest to the most cursory perusal. The bulk of the book is made up of examples culled from the poets, and of passages quoted from the critics; an astonishingly small proportion of the matter is in the author's own words. This in itself is not necessarily a weakness; but, in the excerpts as well as in her own utterances, the author seems often if not usually to mistake assertion for argument, and asseveration for demonstration. See, for instance, the footnote on page 81, and the second paragraph of page 52. In the footnote we are told "I have shown": on page 52 we find the merest implication, not even a clear statement. The same matter is referred to on page 77, but with the airiest assumption in place of proof. What the author wishes regarded as true, is accepted unhesitatingly; and what does not appeal to her, is cavalierly dismissed.

The first chapter, on the relation between music and verse, extends to fifteen pages. It may be summed up in one of its own sentences: "If we glance down the vistas of history and examine the evidences, we shall perceive one fact, that the two

arts of music and poetry have always waxed and waned together." It hardly needs so much space to set this forth, and it seems quite obvious that all arts together flourish amid fostering circumstances, and languish under unfavorable conditions.

The second chapter offers a system of notation for scanning verse. Some of the characters used in writing music are employed to denote the syllables of poetry. Here, if anywhere in the book, we expect the justification of its title, and do not find it. What we find is almost precisely the system of scansion used by Schmidt in his well-known 'Rhythmik und Metrik,' the English translation of which is readily accessible to any one. The crotchets and quavers which the author uses are clumsier than the familiar long and short marks of the classic scansion—they take up more room; but it is impossible to discover any difference in their meaning, or anything recommending them over the customary characters. It is a pity that each new writer on versification finds it necessary to invent a new system of notation and terminology. It would seem that even a hasty examination of existing works must save a great deal of mental exertion. The author appears to have thought out, individually, a system practically identical with Schmidt's, in the ideas it sets forth, and manifestly inferior to it in the notation used to express them.

Again, in the same chapter, we find a new terminology. The terms "rising" and "falling" as applied to rhythm are fairly well established, and are used by most writers on the subject. What is there to gain by calling the rising measures "strict," the falling measures "with direct attack," and those wavering between the two, or hard to assign to either, "free," as is done on page 47? The tendency to elaborate a new nomenclature and terminology appears very often throughout the book, and seems a source of confusion rather than of clearness. Especially do we fail to perceive what is gained by denoting as "primary rhythm" what Sidney Lanier (in his 'Science of English Verse,' pages 71, 77) calls "secondary rhythm." It would seem that the terms used by an admired pioneer ought to suit an enthusiastic disciple. Considering the matter for ourselves, it appears to us that Lanier's terms are far better than this author's innovation.

The remaining chapters are so unsystematic that no detailed criticism is possible. The author sets out, to all appearance, to weigh and value the metrical structure of a quotation or of a poem. The upshot often is the praise of poor metrification because of the excellent presentation of the subject, or because of beauties in the imagery. Quite often really good lines are condemned because of the defects, not of the verse structure, but of the matter or diction. The word "vibration" is abused throughout the book to a painful degree (see pages 17, 59, 61, 63, 88, 95, 97, 98, 133, 242). Some of the judgments put forth seem risky, to say the least; some very individual, some one-sided. For instance:

"Wordsworth, too, though in a very much less degree, was defective of ear" (p. 53).

"Neither Wordsworth, Coleridge, nor Emerson was a metric artist of a high order" (p. 71).

"We perceive this to be the favorite metre of Scott, Byron, Wordsworth, and others, which was mentioned on page 70 as being monotonous and without much motion" (p. 151).

Such utterances as these shake one's faith in the author's capacity for the task attempted, and make implicit confidence in the book's conclusions quite impossible.

If we grant for the time being the assumptions upon which rests the system of scansion used by the author, we find that it is applied for the most part consistently, and that the passages it undertakes to analyze are mostly well understood in respect to their movement when considered as verse. The notation, too, expresses the author's ideas fairly well. Some of the excerpts, however, are manifestly miscomprehended, and the system is mercilessly applied as a Procrustean bed to those which, using the author's own nomenclature, begin in a 3-beat rhythm and change to a 2-beat rhythm later. The author denies that this ever occurs, and relentlessly scans uniformly a quotation from "Christabel" (p. 42) and Shakspere's "Come away, come away, death" (p. 45).

Enough of strictures; the book is certainly a failure, but we honor its aim. While no good manual on this subject exists, praise is assuredly due to any one who attempts what is plainly a desideratum. Although we feel that this volume cannot serve as a safe guide for ambitious beginners, striving to learn how to write English verse, cannot make for itself a place as a book of reference for mature students of English poetry; although we believe it may in some cases balk and mislead callow aspirants for the poet's bays, befog and becloud earnest searchers after the verities of English versification, yet we find more good in the book's purpose than evil in its execution. It can neither direct the student nor illuminate the scholar; still, it can hardly fail to stimulate either. In reading it, we feel continually baffled by the shapeless jumble of snap-judgments, unsupported statements, and undeveloped quotations. The constantly recurring criticism of the poetic quality rather than of the versification in the excerpts from the poets is irritating. Yet the book, indirectly rather than directly, stimulates a reader to further thought. The author fails to grasp her subject fully, to express what she grasps, or to set forth the musical basis of verse, is loose and vague to a degree, fails to convince, to comprehend what she feels, but (and here is the saving clause), while there is an astonishing amount of miscomprehension in the book, there is an amazing amount of right feeling. Hardly any one will need this book on oft-sought shelves; almost anybody at all interested in the subject will be the better for one perusal.

The book has a good index.

Hypolympia; or, The Gods in the Island: An Ironic Fantasy. By Edmund Gosse. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

Mr. Gosse's 'Hypolympia' is a graceful piece of high-toned foolery. The sources of his inspiration, and the tradition which has been his guidance, are not far to seek. Heine's 'Gods in Exile,' the Dialogues of Leopardi, Dr. Garnett's 'The Twilight of the Gods,' Pater's 'Apollo in Picardy,' are some of the literature of which one is reminded in reading 'Hypolympia.' The likeness, however, is never very close. Mr. Gosse rarely approaches either the satiric pungency or the poetic beauty of his masters. But his work is none the less admirable in its kind; the prose is graceful, the verse melodious, the irony pleasant and timely, and the difficult tone of ironic fantasy well sustained.

The fable is the old one of the wandering of the Olympian deities after the *Götterdämmerung* in the South. The scene is "an island, hitherto inhabited by Lutherans, in a remote but temperate province of Northern Europe." The time is early in the twentieth century. The scene opens upon the entrance of Aphrodite, out of breath, in her new mortality, and Eros. They are anxious and distressed, and but little comforted by Pallas, who, entering later, seeks to hearten them by a sight of the strange opal-like jewel of Pandora, which has been commended to her by the oracles as a charm against the woes of Olympus. Pallas herself is quite content and calm, for, as goddess of wisdom, she ponders on the vicissitude of things, and so is enabled to be herself even on a "beechwood peak in the cold sea." To them enters Zeus, perhaps the best conceived of all the dramatis personæ. The nerves of the Cloud-compeller are unstrung, and he is in a mood of garrulous irritability. After Zeus, the other gods appear upon the scene one by one, quite to the end of the pageant.

The action of the piece from this point is too fantastical and various to be retold. The special ironic manner which Mr. Gosse has adopted is nowhere seen to better advantage than in the conversation between Phœbus and Pan. Phœbus is the poet and idealist of the party on the island, and, for the most part, talks verse; but, in his interview with Pan, a very materialistically minded person, he talks good prose. The conversation is concluded by Phœbus, who is made to remark pregnantly: "I congratulate you, Pan, upon your temperament, and I recommend to you a further pursuit of the attainable." Another notable episode is that in which Zeus is made to pose as a fatuous patron and critic of modern poetry, and the current vein of poetic "symbolism" delightfully derided.

The nodus of the fantasy, in so far as it exhibits such a thing, consists in the slow reconcilement of the deities to their mortal condition. This end is furthered by the subtle influence of Pandora's opal-like jewel, which creates in them a mood of "wistful cheerfulness." But the chief agency is the philosophical admonitions of Æsculapius, who points out that mortality is really the root of true pleasure, that without the chance of satiety there can be no satisfaction, that the art of right living is "to keep the supports and alleviations of your labor about you as skilfully as you can, and, in the fuss and business of the little episodes of climbing, to forget as long and as fully as may be the final and absolutely unavoidable plunge." So successful is Æsculapius that at last even Nike cries out: "Ah! I see, I think I partly see. The element of real victory was absent where no defeat could be. . . . And it may be present even where no final conquest can ensue."

So far Mr. Gosse differs from most others who have handled the theme, in making his fantasy tend toward optimism. But at the very last he goes back to the tradition, and so enforces his irony. Suddenly Iris ap-

pears with miraculous ships to convey the gods and goddesses back to their earlier home and their immortality. They forget their newly acquired philosophy, and, with Olympian jubilation, prepare to embark. Just as they go off, it is discovered that Hermes has given away, to a mortal maid, the opal-like jewel, the begetter of "wistful cheeriness." But Pallas assures them: "It is of no moment. It would be an inconspicuous ornament in that blaze of the heart's beauty to which the white ships are about to carry us."

It will be seen that, while the conception of the work is light and fantastical, it is not devoid of serious criticism of life. It contains, of course, nothing conclusive, but it will furnish reading stimulating as well as pleasant to one wth a taste for the peculiar *genre*.

Old-Time Gardens, Newly Set Forth. By Alice Morse Earle. A Book of the Sweet o' the Year. Pp. xviii, 489. 204 illustrations. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

What a pleasant surprise to some people must be this book about 'Old-Time Gardens.' Many had expected to find in it a superabundance of sentiment falling into sentimentality. Some had looked for a book made, as it were, to order and with an evident effort; some for little real knowledge and the lack of it none too well concealed. A half hour's reading is enough to convince the most skeptical that it has none of these failings. Sentiment it has, to be sure, but this is kept well within bounds, as if there were somewhere in the author's mind a sense of humor sure to give warning before the brink of sentimentality was reached. Knowledge there is, and of a very real kind—knowledge that has been many years agrowing, consciously and unconsciously. And as for the book's being made to order, it comes straight from the heart, and from a kindly heart at that. Mrs. Earle had the good fortune as a child to pass her summers in an old-time garden. There she laid in great store of knowledge of the ways of children among flowers, a store that she is now able to draw upon at will and in most delightful fashion, so that one of her best chapters is about childhood in a garden. Her forebears, too, for generations, seem to have been garden-lovers, so that her sympathy with growing things may well be an inherited trait. Her love of gardens and the interest in colonial life and manners which her earlier books have manifested, are in this one most fortunately joined, so that she has here given us a fund of information about the old-time American garden and the things that grew in it, the like of which cannot be found elsewhere.

The real colonial garden that has been well maintained, and has come down to us without change from the days before the Revolution, is a hard thing to find. A few exist, but for the most part our old gardens, notably those of the South, have been permitted to fall into decay and have lost their former charm of primness. Others have been so changed by "landscape artists," ignorant of the laws that governed their planning and out of sympathy with their well-ordered reticence, that their original form may hardly be discovered. Of such as are left in a condition reminiscent of their best time, Mrs. Earle has succeeded in finding the best. Photographs and descriptions of them she gives us; but the thing that lent them their distinctive character—their plan—is missing. Sketches of such plans, even though small and rough, would have made all clearer than many words. Here and there, however, the plan is so clearly defined by neatly trimmed box-edging that the photograph serves in place of a plan.

But it is not on the side of garden design that Mrs. Earle shows her strength and knowledge. They appear when she speaks of flowers. With them she is at home, and about them she discourses in a pleasant way that puts the reader on good terms with himself. With flowers old and new the book is chiefly concerned, and some of its most entertaining parts deal with the introduction of our garden favorites into this country. What flowers the Dutch brought with them, what the Swedes, and what the Pilgrim Fathers—such things are curiously sought out from ancient sources and here set down with minuteness and fidelity. To convey an idea of the exact scope of the book is not easy, but some nction of its varied contents may be had from the fact that its twenty-two chapters cover subjects as widely separated as front door-yards, the gardens of the poets, sun-dials, and the herb garden.

Country Life and *House and Garden* have set such a high standard in the reproduction of garden photographs that it is much to be regretted that the publishers have not treated the book as well as it deserved in this particular. The photographs, assembled, doubtless, with great care and difficulty, have been turned into half-tones of doubtful quality, and printed in a fashion that would do no credit to a first-class newspaper. With few exceptions they are gray and often vague or lacking in detail—not in the purposeful way in which the skilful photographer gives vagueness, but in the way that carelessness in the press-room and unsuitability in the paper give it.

The Welsh Wars of Edward I.: A Contribution to Mediæval Military History, Based on Original Documents. By John E. Morris, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

The Welsh campaigns of Edward I. are described by Mr. Morris in great fulness of detail, but also in such a manner as gives them general significance for the mediævalist. In other words, this book is more than a narrative of fighting in the Welsh marches; it is an essay on certain important aspects of warfare during the Middle Ages. Furthermore, it is closely related to the Constitutional history of England. The time was one when the paid soldier was taking the place of the simple feudatory, and when the money which military operations demanded under this new condition could be secured only by a confirmation of the charters. Moreover, the sovereign was the "greatest of the Plantagenets," the chief Constitutional king of that wonderful age, the thirteenth century. Considering space alone, Mr. Morris keeps the local or topographical element prominent, but he does so merely for the sake of thoroughness, that he may by precise demonstration establish certain views concerning military operations and the interlacing of Constitutional development with the development of war.

In different ways this exhaustive study recalls the writings of Round, Clark, and Oman, beside the best of which it is entitled by its quality to stand. For its data it relies largely upon the Exchequer accounts now preserved in the Record Office, although it draws much from the pipe, the patent, and the close rolls. Compared with the definite statements of such sources, the accounts given by even the best of the chroniclers like Hemingburgh, Trivet, and Wykes of Osney seem vague and misleading, but occasionally they yield a valuable passage, as, for instance, the description by Trivet of Warwick's victory over the Welsh near Conway in 1295. Mr. Morris has taken infinite pains with his preparation, and his results are so clearly stated that none of his labor seems wasted.

The groundwork is furnished in large part by a statistical analysis of the Edwardian army. Every one knows how misleading mediæval statements are regarding numbers, when once the modest limit of three figures is passed. Unfortunately, it is not possible to discover, however diligent research may be, what the forces actually were in every case, or how they were equipped, or in what order they fought, but the pay-rolls furnish accurate figures, so far as they go, and much may be gleaned from material contained in the 'Parliamentary Writs.' Thus a basis of inference is established, and important conclusions, both negative and positive, may be drawn. One of them is that the normal strength of an Edwardian force towards the close of the reign is about 2,000 horse and 10,000 foot; another, that "the legend of the 40,000 horse and 60,000 foot of Bannockburn is the merest poetic figment."

Mr. Morris is particularly interested in the history of the long-bow. How had the English archers been trained who riddled and turned the ranks of the French chivalry at Crécy and Poitiers? The usual answer to such a question points in the direction of the Scottish wars, and fixes chiefly upon the battle of Falkirk. Mr. Morris carries the evolution back one stage and connects it with the Welsh wars. "It is clear that the earliest foot, partly spearmen, partly bow-armed, were drawn alike from the Welsh 'friendlies' of marcher lordships and from the border counties between Lancashire and Gloucestershire, while the men of nearly all the other English counties had yet to be trained in the Scottish wars." Another matter which Mr. Morris keeps well in view is the intermingling of bowmen with cavalry and the gradual emergence of an infantry force. Edward's systematic methods also anticipated the transformation of war from the feudal to the modern type.

These campaigns must, perforce, be regarded from the English standpoint, because little information concerning the equipment and projects of the Welsh can be secured. "We know hardly anything of Llewelyn's men. Their tactics were of the guerrilla type. They avoided pitched battles, sought cover in the forests and mountains, and loved to pounce upon convoys. They were very active and difficult to reach. Their chief weapon was a long spear, and one doubts if the Welsh of the north ever practised archery." They fought stubbornly, but, after they were once beat-

en, the marches became an excellent recruiting ground for the English kings. The Welsh entered into the Hundred Years' War with the same eagerness which the Scottish clansmen showed in the Seven Years' War. Despite the later rising under Glyndwr, large numbers of men from the west side of the marches were serving against the French in the fourteenth century.

Apart from his account of the campaigns themselves, Mr. Morris discusses the relations of England and Wales during the Norman period, the organization of the Edwardian army, the custom of the march, and events leading from the Welsh wars. Altogether, this is a work of solid scholarship and lasting value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. County and Town in England. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Amherst, Lord, of Hackney, and Thomson, Basil. The Discovery of the Solomon Islands by Alvaro de Mendaña in 1568. 2 vols. London: The Hakluyt Society.
Baker, M. N. Municipal Engineering and Sanitation. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Ball, W. E. St. Paul and the Roman Law. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Barnum, Francis. Grammatical Fundamentals of the Innuit Language. Boston: Ginn & Co. $5.
Barton, G. A. A Sketch of Semitic Origins, Social and Religious. Macmillan. $3.
Bell, Mrs. Arthur. Lives and Legends of the Evangelists, Apostles, and Other Early Saints. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Bolton, Gambier. The Animals of the Bible. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. 75 cents.
Bunyan, John. The Pilgrim's Progress. 2 parts. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.40.
Canfield, J. H. The College Student and his Problems. Macmillan.
Carr, C. S. A Preacher Preaching to Himself. Columbus (Ohio): Light of Truth Pub. Co.
Cartwright, Julia. Sacharissa: Some Account of Dorothy Sydney, Countess of Sutherland. Third ed. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Cumming, A. N. Public-House Reform. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.
Dodge, H. N. Christus Victor: A Student's Reverie. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Ellicott, J. M. The Life of John Ancrum Winslow, Rear-Admiral, United States Navy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Fleming, W. H. Shakespeare's Plots. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.80.
Fletcher, B. and B. F. A History of Architecture on the Comparative Method. New ed. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Gray, W. C. Musings by Campfire and Wayside. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Holme, Charles. Modern Designs in Jewellery and Fans. The International Studio. $1.75.
Hurll, Estelle M. Correggio. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Lemcke, Ernest E. Creation—Recreation: Poems. Orange (N. J.): Privately printed.
Levi, Moritz. Manzoni's I Promessi Sposi. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Lilley, J. P. The Pastoral Epistles. (Hand-Books for Bible Classes.) Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. 75 cents.
Love Poems of Sir John Suckling. (Lover's Library.) John Lane. 50 cents.
Lumby, J. R. The Acts of the Apostles. (The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Menpes, Dorothy. Japan: A Record in Colour. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Morris, Mowbray. Tales of the Spanish Main. Macmillan. $2.
Nichols, F. M. Britton. Washington: John Byrne & Co.
O'Connor, J. A. The Converted Catholic, Vol. xviii. James A. O'Connor.
Parker, E. H. John Chinaman, and a Few Others. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Pietsch, Ludwig. Herkomer. (Künstler-Monographien.) Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 4 marks.
Piolet, J. B. Les Missions Catholiques Françaises au XIXe Siècle. Paris: Armand Colin.
Russell, C. E. Such Stuff as Dreams. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Schäfer, E. A. Directions for Class Work in Practical Physiology. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Sherman, L. A. What is Shakespeare? Macmillan. $1.50.
Sladen, Douglas. In Sicily. 2 vols. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $20.
Wade, G. W. Old Testament History. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Wherry, Albinia. Stories of the Tuscan Artists. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.

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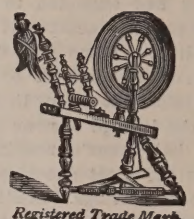

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Premium Notes on Policies in force...		697,032.91
Cost of Real Estate owned by the Co.		11,919,575.31
Cost of Bonds.....		24,557,153.61
Cost of Bank and Railroad Stocks		803,454.00
Cash in Banks		1,105,970.23
Bills receivable		3,918.77
Agents' Debit Balances.....		9,062.25
		$62,649,582.92
ADD		
Interest due and accrued,	$900,712.62	
Rents due and accrued...	10,633.28	
Market value of stocks and bonds over cost....	1,374,761.17	
Net uncollected and deferred premiums.....	354,470.24	
	$2,640,577.31	
Less Bills Receivable and Agents' Debit Balances.	12,981.02	
		2,627,596.29
ADMITTED ASSETS, December 31, 1901,		$65,277,179.21
LIABILITIES:		
Amount required to re-insure all outstanding Policies, net, Company's standard.....	$56,748,091.00	
All other liabilities.....	1,518,047.62	
		58,266,138.62
SURPLUS (including contingent real estate depreciation mem. account, $548,082.56).....		$7,011,040.59

Ratio of expenses of management to receipts in 1901..... 12.28 per cent.
Policies in force Dec. 31, 1901, 69,016, insuring..... $163,680,144.00

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JOHN M. TAYLOR, Vice-Prest.
HERBERT H. WHITE, Secretary.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 6, 1902.

The Week.

Some of the desperate shifts resorted to at the eleventh hour by the enemies of Cuba's welfare are sufficient to show that they know their cause to be failing. The Speaker is reported to have warned the President of the bad political consequences of keeping faith with Cuba. It may give the next House to the Democrats. To this the ready retort would be that an even surer way of giving it to them would be to exhibit the Republican majority as a set of protection-ridden poltroons; but we suspect that Mr. Henderson got a sharper and more scornful reply than this if he tried to frighten Mr. Roosevelt away from a moral position by threats of what might happen if he did not run ignominiously from his own words. More ingenious, but equally futile, is the other idea of clapping a countervailing duty on German and Austrian sugar, and so giving the Cubans a practical differential. Aside from the difficulty of doing so legally, the notion of deliberately entering upon a fierce tariff war with Germany and Austria in order to avoid keeping our promises to Cuba, is one which might be entertained in Bedlam, but certainly never will be in the White House.

Tax-reduction is an undoubted and imperative necessity, yet we cannot think the bill reported by the Ways and Means Committee for repealing war taxes altogether wise, either in manner or matter. Say what Chairman Payne may, the suspicion will remain that this suddenly devised bill of his had a sinister relation to the project for the relief of Cuba. It may have been intended, first of all, to get in the way of Cuban legislation and block it by indefinite delay; and, further than that, to make the argument in behalf of Cuba more difficult by cutting down the huge surplus out of which concessions could so easily be made. But, saying nothing about this, the measure has too slap-dash an appearance to look like a carefully considered plan of tax-reduction. Whole classes of taxes are swept clean away without sufficient inquiry as to their productiveness or oppressive nature, and without asking whether other taxes are not more burdensome and might not be removed with greater benefit to all concerned. It looks as if the House were once more playing stupidly into the hands of the Senate—hurrying through ill-considered bills for the sole purpose of showing the country that the Senate must be looked to for the patient framing of proper legislation.

It was only by a hair's breadth that "tariff-tinkering" was kept out of the bill for doing away with war taxes. Congressman Babcock's amendment putting certain iron and steel products on the free list received two Republican votes in committee, and was defeated by only one majority. It is obvious that the same proportion of Republican votes in the whole House would easily pass the Babcock measure. This fact of itself indicates a state of discontent with the existing tariff, even within the party. In it a real statesman would have found his opportunity. Imagine the use which a Gladstone or a Peel would have made of it. He would have insisted, as Gladstone did in his budgets, upon retaining every tax possible that rested on accumulated wealth, and upon abolishing every tax possible that burdened national industry. Better that the workingman pay a tax on his beer and tobacco, asserted the great Chancellor of the Exchequer, than that customs duties should interfere with the manufactures from which he derives his wages. The United States is now very much in the position, industrially, that was occupied by England in the years when Gladstone came forward to strike off the last fetters upon free trade. The immense prosperity that followed, everybody knows. Yet our statesmen, in a similar juncture, would throw away easily borne and automatically collected taxes for the sake of retaining those which are a standing menace to our commerce.

It is a sorry joke which the Manila correspondent of the Associated Press is trying to play on the American people. He gravely informs them that "two parties have been formed" in the Philippines, "the optimists and the pessimists." This may pass with the thoughtless. The wag goes on to say that what the optimists and the pessimists are disputing about is the question whether life and property are safe in the Philippines outside of the towns. As if it could not be determined by a simple experiment! Adjourn the debate to the back country, and see what happens. Any optimist would be willing to risk having his throat cut to prove that he was right; and a knife between the shoulders of a pessimist could not really deepen his melancholy. But our Manila jester pushes the laughing matter too far when he solemnly writes about the importance of having a "large body of resourceful and self-reliant" promoters and exploiters scattered throughout the archipelago, to act as a "reserve force in case of necessity." In the case of necessity imagined, it is obvious that this "reserve force" of isolated Americans would be found reserved in jail, or headless in a ditch, and such a result would be certain to swell the ranks of the pessimists.

A large map has been prepared at the War Department under the direction of Gov. Taft, representing graphically the spread of civil government over practically the whole Christianized territory of the Philippines, showing the districts under military rule to be practically confined to the pagan peoples in the extreme southern islands, where Spain never obtained a firm foothold. The map, it is said, also demonstrates the comparatively insignificant area now in revolt, there being no insurrection outside of Samar, Laguna, and Batangas. It is added that "throughout the rest of the archipelago peace and *contentment* reign under civil rule." In the same newspapers which supply this information is a dispatch from Manila saying that "the policy of *reconcentration* and the stern measures of closing the ports to commerce have accomplished everything expected of them." The improved conditions represented in the map are due to the policy of Weyler, which we have adopted and enforced so successfully against the Filipinos. "Peace and contentment" are the terms here used to describe the results of reconcentration. Subjugation and silence would seem to be more appropriate.

Evidence as to the use of the water-cure torture by American officers in the Philippines continues to accumulate. A correspondent of the Manila *Times*, writing from Samar, in August, had the following to say of the methods of Major, now Lieut.-Col., John J. O'Connell, First Infantry: "Major John J. O'Connell, First Infantry, of Gussie expedition fame, who arrived on the scene about this time [after the killing of Lieut. Downes and a soldier] as commanding officer, said that a good *shaking-up* all around would be good; that 'he wanted no traitors about him.' Therefore, all the suspected were given a 'dose' of the 'water-cure,' which proved effectual in bringing to light the guilty. These were locked up in prison." This officer has been in the army since 1865, and served in the war to free Cuba from the horrors of Weylerism. Yet in Samar, if this account be true, he surpasses the Spaniards by applying one of the most exquisite modes of torture known to mediæval or modern times—one which he never would have dreamed of applying to any Confederates in 1865, to any Indians on the plains, or to any Spaniards in Cuba. But the Filipino, being an Asiatic, must not complain, and must proceed to love us at once, even though we violate the laws of war so cruelly. The War Department

or the Philippine Investigating Committee should ask Lieut.-Col. O'Connell under oath as to the correctness of the Manila *Times's* correspondence. A regular army officer newly returned from the Philippines says: "I have never seen the 'water-cure' practised, though I have had fifteen or twenty officers tell me how they did it, and I know they were telling the truth. I have seen the apparatus in the Manila prisons, and know that it was habitually used there."

Mr. A. Burlingame Johnson, who on Thursday gave his views upon the Philippine situation to the extent of three columns in the *Tribune*, insisted that the Filipinos would accept the Americans as their rightful lords and masters if the Americans would only accept them. Mr. Johnson believes in practising what he preaches, and, therefore, is doing his best to make as much money out of the Philippines as he can. He resigned his place as consul at Amoy in order to help develop the Philippine Islands, and, after careful study of the situation, hit upon Negros as the most promising field. Hence his great familiarity with the Philippine situation, and the ease with which he sees peace only, at the very moment that Col. Miner, Sixth Infantry, commanding officer in Negros, reports the situation there as again extremely unsatisfactory, although the island has been completely "pacified" four times to our certain knowledge. The Philippine Syndicate over which Mr. Johnson presides has very broad-gauge plans. It is to construct a railroad in Negros 140 miles long from Escalante to San Juan de Ilog; to develop immediately 10,000 acres of choice sugar land, to be stocked with up-to-date machinery; and to acquire still more extensive tracts of sugar land and some rich mineral property. As a side issue, the Syndicate will erect an electric light plant in Iloilo, for which a municipal contract for 300 lights is about to be secured. Our readers will admit, we are sure, that Mr. Johnson is one of the most consistent men in the United States. We sincerely trust that nobody will be so unkind as to suggest that assurances of peaceful conditions in the Philippines come with dubious taste from one who is seeking to induce capital to go there. Mr. Johnson is evidently too high-minded a civilizer of the beneficent Anglo-Saxon type to be affected by any such considerations as would influence the ordinary man seeking to attract capital to a mercantile enterprise.

The treaty recently signed by Secretary Hay and the Danish Minister is not without its fine political irony. The impartial observer must be struck by the fact that this treaty has been signed by the representative of the first Danish Liberal Ministry of recent times, in direct defiance of the expressed wish of a large proportion of citizens of the mother country and the colony. But now that the preliminaries of the sale have been a second time consummated, and with every prospect of speedy approval by the Senate, the question of the reluctance of the inhabitants of these islands to change their allegiance becomes of actual interest to us. Even if we regard it as old-fashioned to refuse to buy territory simply because the inhabitants object to being sold, we must feel some interest in the cause of this dissatisfaction. With the Danes at home the feeling is almost wholly sentimental—the natural disinclination to surrender any part of little Denmark. On the islands also this feeling is strong, but it is combined with more practical objections. The strongest of these is the fear of the mixed population that their present democratic position of equality with the whites will suffer a change to the aristocratic exclusiveness of this republic. In Copenhagen, colored people are received at the best hotels, and it is possible to share a box at the Royal Theatre with a member of the "inferior race." The main element in favor of annexation is the influential class of plantation-owners, many of them already American citizens, who hope to gain a better market for their sugar. The whole situation is similar to that in Hawaii, a few years ago, with the substitution of a bargain-counter sale for a comic-opera revolution.

Senator Bacon's adroit amendment, by which the new executive department is to be entitled the Department of Commerce and Labor, probably had something to do with the easy adoption of the bill by the Senate. As it now goes to the House, it has not been much disfigured. With one or two unimportant exceptions, the new Secretary will control all of the bureaus allotted to him by the measure as introduced. The proposed amendment by which the Interstate Commerce Commission would have been included, was withdrawn, because its mover "has been convinced that such a transfer would destroy the functions of the Commission." Just why such a result should be anticipated is not clear, but unwillingness to incorporate the Interstate Commerce Commission with the new department may be easily accounted for on the ground that such a transfer would undoubtedly enlarge the powers of the new Secretary to an excessive degree. Some exception to the title of the department will probably be taken by objectors. Inherently there is no more reason for a Department of Commerce and Labor than for one of commerce and manufactures. The change of title will, however, be a final reply to Mr. Gompers's prospective demand for a "Secretary of Labor," and is probably as good a compromise as could have been arranged.

Unluckily for the happy-family theory of public office as a "divide," there is a very particular and supersensitive person in the White House who will not tolerate it in the Federal service. The country saw, some weeks ago, in the President's summary removal of the Governor of Oklahoma for allowing a corporation to "place" $10,000 worth of stock with some "friends to whom," said the innocent Gov. Jenkins, "I owed some political obligations"—the country saw with surprise that altogether too nice standards would be insisted on by Mr. Roosevelt. Does he think that he can suspend the operations of the laws of commerce (political), or prevent bosses and candidates from selling their wares in the dearest market? We hear just now of his having demanded the resignation of two Republican office-holders in a Southern State. One was paying the other $500 a year out of his salary. Neither had the slightest idea of anything wrong in the transaction. We understand that the office-holder who surrendered the money to the other (in consideration of his standing aside as a candidate for the better-paying berth) is especially indignant that there should be any question of his stainless honor. What higher proof could he give of his absolute disinterestedness in office? He argued that, when the President himself is capable of equal devotion to duty, not to mere money rewards, and will offer to give up $5,000 of *his* salary to a rival, it will be time for him to make reflections on the conduct of as pure a patriot as ever delivered delegates to Hanna. But the "very positive young man" in the White House demands the resignation obstinately, in perfectly brutal disregard of the new code of honor among office-brokers and office-holders.

The action of the United Mine Workers at Indianapolis in ordering an assessment for a strike fund producing $23,228 a month, has an unfortunate air. It was thought to be the determination of President Mitchell to bring the miners' grievances before the Arbitration Committee of the Civic Federation. It would now seem, however, that he intends to fall back upon the strike. One passage in the resolutions of the convention is of peculiar significance. Strikes in the past have often been confined to the bituminous or to the anthracite fields, and they have frequently been defeated by the substitution of one kind of coal for the other by consumers. It is probably with this fact in mind that the mine workers say that, "should it develop that coal is being shipped from the bituminous districts into those markets which properly belong to the anthracite product, or should it develop that the Eastern railroads which now consume anthracite are being supplied with coal mined by members of our organization in the bitumi-

nous fields, the National Executive Board shall have full power to order a sectional or national suspension of work, or take such action as they may deem necessary to make successful the movement of the anthracite workers." This is ominous enough, since the disturbed condition of several important mining sections during the past few months and the strong demand for coal furnish the conditions that usually produce a conflict. It is discouraging that so little heed should be paid to the example of arbitration by the Illinois miners, and so little disposition shown to accept the good offices of the Arbitration Committee of the Civic Federation.

The report of the State Board of Tax Commissioners on the special franchise tax which was passed by the Legislature during Gov. Roosevelt's Administration, informs us that in the rural counties, where taxpaying has become a patriotic practice, payment has been made upon these assessments, almost without exception, without quibble or protest, and that it is estimated that, outside of New York city, taxes have been paid upon fully 80 per cent. of the special franchise valuations made in 1900. The sum of $1,021,000 was thus paid into the local treasuries in that year. There were, however, 278 writs of certiorari served on the Board by tax fighters in the cities; that is, appeals to the courts to review and reverse or modify the valuations of the Board. The tone of the report is encouraging, and leads to the belief that the obstacles heaped up by corporation lawyers against the franchise tax will be swept away, and the litigation soon be brought to an end. The operation of the law of 1901, eliminating street and highway crossings from special franchise assessment, has been to reduce the valuations about $10,000,000. Neither the effect nor the reason for that law was understood at the time when it was passed. It was slipped through without notice. The reason for it is now very plain. It reduced the amount of taxes to be paid by the franchise holders about $200,000.

No very good reason is apparent for the action of the State Senate on Thursday in recommitting the Cocks Automobile Bill. The bill as originally reported provided that no automobile should be driven on a public highway at a speed greater than twenty miles an hour, under penalty of fine or imprisonment. That there is pressing need of some restriction upon reckless driving is proved by numerous complaints from many portions of the State. In certain sections, said Senator White, the residents of little townships are fairly excluded from roads recently constructed at great expense. Such a condition clearly calls for legislative relief, and the Cocks bill certainly imposed no unduly severe penalty. It is the alternative of imprisonment which arouses the automobile interests against it. Of their suggestion that reckless driving be made a misdemeanor only upon the third offence, and that the first and second offences be punishable only by a fine, it may be said, first, that the proposed fines of $25 and $50 are not a sufficient deterrent to the wealthy class of chauffeurs; next, that, in view of the difficulty of detecting violations of the speed law and of catching the offender, to relegate imprisonment to the third infraction of the law is practically to remove it from the law entirely. Judges, in any case, would hardly apply the penalty of imprisonment recklessly, any more than they do in other instances; for example, the anti-spitting ordinance. But the courts should be free to deal with cases of gross carelessness in the most exemplary fashion, and without waiting till the gross carelessness has been thrice committed. The law, with the amendments proposed by the President of the Automobile Club, would be no law at all, but a kind of low-license measure for the dangerous misuse of the public highways.

That, even under the worst kind of Quay misrule, civic pride and the desire for municipal betterment cannot be crushed to earth, has recently been demonstrated in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. The seat of a most corrupt Legislature and the scene of many an unblushing "steal" from the State, it would have surprised no one had the city simply settled down to a condition of hopeless indifference to its own needs. Such has not been the case, however, for last May some sixty public-spirited citizens raised a fund of $5,075, to employ three experts to study municipal conditions and to suggest plans for the sanitary and æsthetic regeneration of the town. This was done under the supervision of an executive committee of seven, together with the Mayor, the city engineer, and one member from each of the local legislative bodies. The first result is the publication of a report of 120 pages, setting forth in detail how the city's park system may be properly developed, how the water supply and sewage system may be modernized, at a cost of but $661,000, and how the highways and streets may be improved. As the plans for the park system call for an expenditure of only $300,000, this and the water supply and sewage changes can be undertaken at once, while a good start can be made in the direction of bettering highways, as the city may increase its indebtedness by nearly $1,100,000. The action of these public-spirited citizens of Harrisburg is another extremely encouraging example of the widespread awakening to the needs and responsibilities of our American cities. It may even be possible that, with such an example in their own commonwealth before them, Philadelphians will realize the low estate to which they are fallen.

That drift of population to the cities which is so strongly marked in the more densely peopled countries may be observed also in Canada. In 1891 the great province of Ontario had a total population of 2,114,000, of whom 1,295,000 were rural and 819,000 urban. The corresponding census figures for the year just past show a total population of 2,182,900. Of these, 1,247,000 live in the country, and 935,700 in the towns and cities. That is, the country has lost in the decade about 48,000 inhabitants, while the towns have gained 116,700. These figures are especially striking because Ontario is still under-populated rather than over-populated, and because the provincial and the national Governments make systematic efforts to attract immigrants to the farms. In the great wheat-growing province, Manitoba, these efforts have been successful. In ten years past the increase in the fields has been 73,000, in the towns only 29,000. But the fact that the drift to the towns is so strongly marked in the largest Canadian province seems to show that this movement rests upon social rather than economic motives. For in Ontario there is not the excuse of a depleted soil or of hard conditions of tillage. It is probably, as in other countries, quite as much discontent with the social conditions in the farming districts as the hope of bettered fortunes that drives thousands to exchange the comparative certainty and comfort of the farmer's life for the great hazards of the town.

Prince Henry is coming, but the Reichstag goes on with its plans to pay us off in our own tariff coin. Its tariff committee accepted on Friday the clause of the new bill providing that, in the absence of treaty stipulations, the same rates of duty shall be applied to foreign goods as are enforced, in the country of their origin, against "similar German goods." Do our Western farmers know what this means? It means Dingley rates clapped upon American wheat and bacon and pork seeking a market in Germany. The "fake" agricultural duties put into our law to fool the simple-minded farmer will, in other words, become a stern reality in German hands. On our wheat we should have to face a tariff tax of 25 cents a bushel; bacon and hams would have to pay 5 cents per pound, salt pork 25 per cent. ad valorem, and so on. Meanwhile the German reciprocity treaty sleeps the sleep of the forgotten in the Senate, and, with a tariff war plainly in sight, we are giving ourselves up to the coming fêtes intended to show our warm friendship for Germany. This is a fatal misreading of the signs of the times.

SCHURMAN VS. TAFT.

The people of the United States are beginning to ask themselves in a serious way why they are in the Philippine Islands, and whether they are to remain there for ever; and, if so, what relations they are to hold with the people thereof. The smoke of battle has blown away, the glamour of being a world Power has ceased to charm, the realities of death and disease are sickening the hearts and stirring the consciences of many. To all such, President Schurman's monograph of 109 pages, just published by Scribners, will come as a light in a dark place. To the questions why we are in the Philippines, what we are to do with them, and when we ought to do it, he gives unequivocal, straightforward answers. Unless we are hypocrites, unless we have backslidden from republican principles, unless we are oppressors of our fellowmen without cause and against reason, we must either take them into our political system, or we must give them their independence. The former we can never do.

"No political party," he says, "will ever propose so insane a programme; no statesman will ever venture to advocate a policy so repugnant to American sentiment. The case needs no arguing. The objections to the plan are insuperable; the reasons against it invincible; the hostility to it ingrained and ineradicable."

What is the alternative? Either to hold them as subject provinces, or give them liberty *and* independence, for the one cannot subsist without the other. If this is not what we are in the Philippines for, if we are there for commercial gain, or to make our power felt in Asia, or for any other selfish purpose, then are we destined to vast and bitter disappointment, and eventually to poignant remorse. One more paragraph out of many of equal plainness that we might quote, is this:

"No prospect of profit, however assured, no wealth or advantage, however colossal, could ever atone for the precious American life-blood swallowed up by the hungry soil of Luzon and the Visayas. For such a sacrifice there is only one justification: it is the discharge of duty, service in a righteous cause. If our presence in the Philippines be not justified in its purpose and intent, then our soldiers' blood is on our hands; ay, and all the blood, in that case innocent, of the Filipinos we have fought, the misery we have caused their families, and the devastation we have wrought in their homes."

Whether we are there in the discharge of duty and in the service of a righteous cause depends upon our course in the immediate future. Mr. Schurman thinks that the time has now come for Congress to order the election of a representative assembly in the pacified provinces—that is, in all the provinces except Cebu, Bohol, Samar, Batangas, and Mindoro; that the delegates so chosen should be allowed to declare whether they wish independence or not, and, if so, at what date they think it should be conferred, "and then," he says, "we shall have before us all the conditions necessary for the final solution of the Philippine problem." Whether or not this plan will be entirely satisfactory to those among us who have opposed occupation of the islands, we feel sure that they will place no obstacles in the way of carrying it into execution.

Mr. Schurman gives his reasons for thinking that the time has now come for taking this step. He says that when he was in the islands himself as chairman of the first Philippine Commission, looking at the heterogeneousness of the populations, races, and languages, and their antipathies to each other, he had thought that a whole generation would be needed to solidify them as a nation and compose their antagonism. He finds now from the testimony of Gen. Chaffee that they have been forced into a union among themselves by the very war waged against them. Gen. Chaffee has been quoted as saying that the natives of the islands are all traitors to American sovereignty, and have their hearts set on independence.

"When I wrote in 1899," says Mr. Schurman, "that no one can foresee when the diverse peoples of the Philippine Islands may be moulded together into a nationality capable of exercising all the functions of independent self-government, though I hoped for the dawning of the day within one generation (as I there intimated), I did not expect as early as 1902 to learn from the commanding general that, under the hammer of war and the heat of strife, the welding of these diverse peoples into a common nationality had been consummated."

Another reason for the faith that is in him is the continued testimony from the civil Government at Manila that the islands, with the exceptions noted, are now pacified.

Mr. Schurman qualifies his opinion as to the time when American control over local administration should be supplanted, by saying that it should not be done until Gov. Taft, or whoever is in charge of the civil government there, approves of it. Turning to Mr. Taft's testimony before the Senate Committee on the Philippines on Saturday, we find that he holds the same opinion now that Mr. Schurman held in 1899. Replying to a question of Senator Rawlins concerning the aims of the Federal party in the Philippines, who are our friends if we have any there, and whose platform contains a declaration that "the Philippine Islands should form an integral part of the United States of America, to be organized as a Territory with all the rights and privileges which the Constitution of the United States concedes to other Territories, including that of becoming in time a State of the Union," he took a very discouraging, almost contemptuous, view of that scheme. According to the newspaper report, "he held the opinion that the question of Statehood, *like the question of independence*, is so far in the future that he did not regard it as of present importance." So we have an issue between the presidents of the first Philippine Commission and of the second one as to the line of policy to be adopted upon an agreed state of facts. Mr. Taft tells us that the islands are so far "pacified" that we can safely withdraw all but 15,000 soldiers. If that is the case, says Mr. Schurman, now is the time to put representative government in motion, with a view to the future independence of the Filipinos. Not at all, says Mr. Taft; all such questions are so far in the future as not to call for present consideration.

This is a sharp difference of opinion, on the part of the highest authorities, in reference to the weightiest question now before the country. More people of the thinking, reflecting, influential classes have been reconciled to our occupation of the Philippines by the arguments of Mr. Schurman's report and by his reputation and authority than by any other means—more even than by the action of President McKinley himself. We shall see now whether they will continue to follow their leader.

IMPERIALISM AD ABSURDUM.

The *émeute* in the Senate, in the course of the Philippine debate on January 28, shows how Imperialism has added to our dignity. Who could imagine Senator Lodge, as a citizen of a mere republic, advancing with clenched fists upon the venerable Senator Teller, while his face "blazed with anger" and his "lips were white with rage"? It is only the proud consciousness of world-empire that inspires such a magnanimous bearing. One remembers the prophecies of the great increment of power and glory which was to come to this nation from the annexation of the Philippines, and it is fine to see how the simple mention of the name of the archipelago, the mere discussion of a bill for a Philippine tariff, impels Senatorial courtesy to preen its wings for a loftier flight. Lodge and the other squabblers are nobly fulfilling their own predictions—namely, that the fact of having to legislate for the isles of the sea would give to Congress a new soberness in debate and a prouder sense of the honor of the American name.

Other such left-handed dignities and strength is Imperialism giving us in the actual working. What could be more absurd than the demand that a supposed military exigency in a miserable little island 7,000 miles away should silence the speech of freemen all over this broad continent? Yet that is the kind of affected terror which has been held up before us for three years past, and which is seen again in Gen. Wheaton's anger in Manila at what President Schurman said in Boston. We say nothing now of the military ethics or the legal principles involved. What strikes us most is the sheer absurdity, the downright pre-

posterousness, of the position. We are asked to surrender one of our greatest privileges and most boasted glories—why? Because we have acquired so much new power and glory that we cannot be allowed to enjoy what we had before!

The absurdest comparisons, as of a philosopher like Kant afraid of his valet, or a King not daring to speak above a whisper lest the cook should hear, could not do justice to the situation to which Imperialism would degrade us. A Senator cannot rise in his place and say what he honestly thinks is for the best interest of the United States, because a boloman in the wilds of Samar might not understand. A man of prominence and authority like President Schurman must be muzzled, lest a Visayan guerrilla leader be encouraged to fight on. What a contemptible plight is this to which Imperialism would bring us! We should have to change the proud saying about the right of a man in the land of the free, whether girt by friend or foe, to speak the thing he will, and modify it so as to read, "provided he first get permission of the military authorities half way round the globe." A President about to send in a message to Congress, a Congress about to enter on a discussion of public measures, newspapers about to comment on the news of the day, must all, according to this new way of padlocking free speech, first ask Gen. Chaffee if it will do. Thus would the Imperialistic tail wag the dog.

Such humiliating bonds are not laid upon free citizens by American Imperialism alone. We see the same principle at work in England. Chamberlain has commanded silence for much the same reasons that have led our military censors to cry "Hush!" More than that, in a recent speech about the possibilities of peace, he took the ground that the Government could not make a peace which is earnestly desired by the people of England, and might be very advantageous to them, unless the distant colonies were satisfied. "A new factor," he affirmed, had entered into English politics. "In future you will have to take account of the opinion of your colonies." If they object to talk about negotiations for peace, why, the negotiations must cease. It was one of the frankest acknowledgments ever made of the way in which an empire may be crippled by its own greatness. It adds island to island, and protectorate to protectorate, only to find that it has but made itself more vulnerable to attack and less able to act on its own initiative. Poison comes from the extremities to dull the brain and paralyze the will.

That this absurd fettering by an Imperialistic policy will long be submitted to by Americans it would be ridiculous to imagine. The Senate is showing us how impossible it is to secure bated breath and whispered humbleness in this country at the word of command from a distant isle of the sea. All these great questions will have to be argued out after the wont of freedom. The very turbulence of debate is one of those "manners of liberty," in Lemaître's phrase, which it is idle to expect Americans to abandon. The reaction is already in full tide. We are going to be allowed to say what we think, and urge the policy we believe best, without waiting to get permission from an officer of infantry in Mindanao, or inquiring too curiously what will be the effect of our words when translated into Tagalog. The Spanish war was said, like the Mexican, to have made us "more respected abroad." In the process we must not fall into less self-respect at home, as we certainly should if we were to ask humble pardon every time that a speech of a college president or a minority report of a Senate committee failed to meet the notions of a soldier in the Philippines. Let our prestige abroad be what it may, it must not be permitted to impair our liberty at home. Lowell's warning of fifty years ago is still in point, in the face of our tawdry Imperialism, tripping over its own bedraggled purple: "We are anxious to be acknowledged as one of the great Powers of Christendom, forgetful that all the fleets and armies in the world are weak in comparison with one sentence in the Declaration of Independence."

PERPETUAL EDUCATIONAL TRUSTS

There is no more considerate provision of the deed of trust of the Carnegie Institution than that by which the founder has empowered his trustees "to modify the conditions and regulations under which the funds may be dispensed, so as to secure that these shall always be applied in the manner best adapted to the changed conditions of the time." This means that the trustees will never find themselves in the ungracious attitude of blinking the very terms of their trusteeship, and discrediting the judgment of the founder from whom they derive their authority. It means, too, that a great philanthropist has had the discretion, and, one may say, the sense of humor, to see that the needs of to-morrow are not those of to-day, and that wisdom does not die with the makers of philanthropic bequests.

It is strange that so simple and sensible an attitude should be unique among great benefactors, and that the teaching of the past in this matter should have been so heroically ignored. Everybody knows that, if every mass solemnly endowed *in perpetuo* for the repose of a soul were sung, the whole Continent of Europe would be vocal in the Gregorian mode; that if the bread and ale provided by pious founders were actually dispensed at the wickets of dismantled abbeys, whole countrysides might dismiss their overseers of the poor. Even when time does not wholly efface such donations, it often leaves them but ridiculous; or reasonable only because their original purpose has been disowned. And yet people confidently seek to perpetuate their personal preferences, or even their simple whims, and corporations still receive bequests the conditions of which, even upon acceptance, they have every intention of evading. The question of casuistry here involved is one of peculiar interest, because the delinquents, potential or actual, belong to the most highly esteemed order of society. What shall one think when the presidents and trustees of institutions of learning or charity play fast and loose with the desires of their benefactors, and, for that matter, with the laws of the land?

Of course, it may be said that common sense imposes a statute of limitations in these matters. Frequently the change in the administration of a trust is so gradual that it would be impossible to determine just when contravention of the founder's purpose began. Thus, one can hardly hold it against the incumbents of several chairs of metaphysics of colonial date that they do not annually denounce *ex cathedra* the errors of Roman Catholic, Arminian, or Baptist theology, as the case may be. And yet such conditions have been the occasion of grave moral scruple, even in recent times. In all cases of this sort it may be assumed (if there was originally nothing eccentric in the terms of the foundation) that the testator, could he be summoned to council, would assent to any reasonable modification of his bequest which changed times might require.

But the matter frequently presents itself in the far less pleasing aspect of early and premeditated evasion by the immediate beneficiaries of the gift. The ingenuity of administrators is constantly at work in arranging to transfer funds given for specific purposes to the general uses of the institution. A certain Eastern college has a chair of American history, literature, and eloquence, founded some ten years ago, the incumbent of which gives *pro-forma* instruction in American history for a few weeks a year, while he illustrates American literature only in his published writing about European travel and art, and American eloquence chiefly in his lectures on the art of the Middle Ages and of the Renaissance. Similarly, the library of a great university has an unduly large fund for, we will say, Scandinavian literature. How many departments fly the Hyperborean flag, for library purposes, it would be unwise to specify, but it is safe to say that only the newest and most ingenuous professors of French, German, Italian, Spanish, or English fail to prove that their desiderata are indispensable to a Scandina-

vian library. The moral question here involved is a complex one, for very generally the beneficiary institutions have had no voice in the framing of the bequest. They have had usually simply the option of accepting the bequest under its conditions or foregoing it entirely. Practically, the moral sense of a corporation, even of a university, is very weak before so crucial a test.

If to be caught in such a moral dilemma is unfortunate, the resultant harm from these apparent perversions of trusts is more apparent than real. It must fairly be assumed that a testator intends primarily to aid the institution in which he creates a foundation. It certainly must be taken for granted that he would not insist upon literal fulfilment of the terms of his will, to the detriment of its beneficiary. But the weighing of the subtile question of relative good, with its infinite possibilities of casuistry, should not, it seems to us, be thrown wholly upon the tender consciences of presidents and trustees. When a specific trust has plainly outlived its usefulness, or, again, if its terms are originally detrimental, it should be possible to obtain from the law-makers an order converting a specific into a general trust, or, when feasible, authorizing a new disposition of the fund which shall be germane to the intention of the founder. So much deference, it seems to us, trustees owe to those from whom they derive their powers. We need hardly add that if donors generally had, like Mr. Carnegie, held the view that if a man is competent to frame a trust wisely, his representatives in future times will be wise enough to change it judiciously, a very pretty question in casuistry, and an occasional stumbling-block in morals, would never have arisen. In this matter Mr. Carnegie has set most gracefully an example which is worthy of general imitation.

JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

In these days the historian inclines to disdain the general reader, but historian and general reader alike may turn for amusement and profit to the Letters of J. R. Green. The one can hardly pass by a correspondence in which Mr. Bryce is affectionately nicknamed the "Holy Roman," and Freeman is told that his "strenuous" prose is "neither prose nor poetry, but like some one holloaing." The other will find that the fun is not confined to mere historical allusion. After collapsing physically in East London, Green is ordered to a "Cockney Patmos" at Margate, whence he writes: "I only came yesterday, and so have no bulletin of health to forward, save that I am taking more kindly to cod-liver oil. Why cods—so exquisite in all else—should concentrate nastiness in their liver, Science may explain." But there is more in these letters than good-humored chaff. They keep touching upon matters of the utmost moment to the historian and of the liveliest interest to every one. They are the outpourings of a man who loved history so intensely because he entered with such dramatic feeling into all the situations of life.

Mr. Leslie Stephen, the editor of the Letters, likens the success of Green's 'Short History' to that which Macaulay's 'History' had met with twenty-five years before. He recalls, however, Macaulay's two advantages in being already famous, and in writing upon a scale which admitted of pictorial treatment; "whereas Green had the difficult problem of combining the greatest possible condensation with undiminished animation of narrative." Regarding the immediate popularity of the book in both hemispheres there can be no doubt. It only remains to ask whether or not the success was deserved. Apart from the damnatory articles in *Fraser's Magazine*, with their long list of inaccuracies, a good many historians feel about the 'Short History' as art critics feel about "the picture of the year," which may be good enough for the Tate Gallery, but is of itself condemned because the multitude like it. What the artists have to say on their own behalf need not concern us. In Green's case the question is important, inasmuch as his attitude towards historical study and composition was extremely pronounced. Although in strict logic the worth or worthlessness of his general views need not be imperilled upon the success or failure of the works wherein he illustrates them, the two things are, as a matter of fact, very likely to be connected.

If it came to an issue of compurgation, Green could collect a great weight of testimony. The writer in *Fraser's Magazine* (September and December, 1875), maintained that the large sale of the 'Short History' was due to the puffing it got from the Freemanites. This allegation was far from being true, as the event has shown, and it rested upon a false foundation. Green was comparatively weak in verbal memory, and the misfortune of ill-health compelled him to do his writing at places where he was beyond the reach of books. Thus, while he took the utmost pains in the revision of his proofs, mistakes of names and dates were bound sometimes to slip in. The hostile reviewer inferred from these that he was superficial, and merely worked up in picturesque form the results of others. On the contrary, Green's learning was wide and solid. Stubbs has said of him:

"All his work was real and original work; few people besides those who knew him well would see, under the charming ease and vivacity of his style, the deep research and sustained industry of the laborious student. But it was so; there was no department of our national records that he had not studied, and I think I may say mastered. Hence, I think, the unity of his dramatic scenes, and the cogency of his historical arguments. Like other people, he made mistakes sometimes; but scarcely ever does the correction of his mistakes affect either the essence of the picture or the force of the argument."

We shall not carry the discussion of Green's accuracy or inaccuracy any further, because for present purposes it is not the essential point. He knew the sources of English history at first hand, and worked with incredible energy to gain the information which his task demanded. He was not in any sense a dilettante. His letters prove this past all doubt, and the story of his methods adds testimony to the letters. Concerning the 'Making of England,' Mr. Stephen says: "This extraordinary achievement had tried his strength to the utmost." And well it might have done. Long before the work was finished, Sir Andrew Clark had said that Green could not live for six weeks. Yet he kept alive by dint of will power, and spared no exertion to make his book perfect. "For many weeks, he could not sit up or take solid food. He was unable to hold a pen, or even to make pencil corrections on a proof. At intervals he could dictate for a short time or go through references with his wife's help. He dictated, as he talked, very rapidly, and with perfect clearness and precision." In spite of this facility in composition, much of the book was wholly rewritten five times, and for parts of it there were eight or ten different proofs. "When the last proof had been corrected, a discovery was made about a certain Aethelwald. Wearied as he was, Green spent two more days in work rather than leave the incorrect statement."

With Green a *tour de force* like this did not represent the feverish excitement of a dying man so much as the unflinching enthusiasm of the born historian. Unlike 'Vathek,' for instance, the 'Making of England' was less a spasmodic effort than the fruit of deliberate and steady purpose. Green was always full of ideas, full of sympathy, full of eagerness. He was a brilliant talker, a ready and effective speaker. Whomsoever he met, his intense vitality and directness left their effect upon the hearer. Mr. Bryce heard him preach for the first time when he was at St. Philip's, Stepney. "I shall never forget the impression made on me by the impassioned, fiery little figure in the pulpit, with its thin face and bright black eyes." His paper on Dunstan, delivered in 1862 before the Somersetshire Archæological Society, carried Freeman by storm. After a visit to Hampden in 1895, Sir M. E. Grant Duff wrote in his diary: "Green, whom the more I see of him, the more I think likely to be, if he lives, the greatest English historian who has yet been, with the exception of Gibbon." Mrs. Humphry Ward has written: "There was in him a perpetual eagerness, an inexhaustible power of knowledge, that were ever putting idler or emptier minds to shame."

We have collected these passages about Green by those who knew him, partly because they are sincere tributes to the memory of a remarkable man, and partly because they describe in terser form the qualities which are expressed with living reality throughout the whole course of his letters. Here undoubtedly was one whom nature destined to be an historian as she destines another to be a painter, and a third to be a musician. He had the power, so rarely given to historical writers, of realizing the past by a true poetic sense. Sir M. E. Grant Duff says he never had it so much brought home "that the real historian is an animal different from and of a superior order to ordinary human beings who possess the power of narration," as when he saw the effect produced on Green by the view from Whiteleaf Cross. If you call an historian imaginative, some people will think you mean that he draws on his imagination for his facts. Green had power, and his power was due to the fervor of his imagination, working, as it did, harmoniously with his warmth of heart and his interest in human life.

Can the historian who lacks these gifts

ever be more than a collector of facts and a master of logic? The scientific age had come even in Green's time. It is just twenty-five years since he wrote to Macmillan that he must decline to be editor of the proposed *English Historical Review:*

"I shall be looked upon by the bulk of historic scholars as a person imposed on the review by the unhappy necessity of securing a publisher and a popular circulation, and as the representative not of the scientific, but of the non-scientific, elements in it. The justice of this is not to the purpose here: but I must own that, for my own part, I feel my historic tendencies to be sufficiently at variance with the general tendency of historic research just now to give such sentiments a certain color of truth."

Perhaps the strongest praise which Green has received from Stubbs is contained in the following words: "In him the desire of stating and pointing the truth of history was as strong as the wish to make both his pictures and his arguments strong and forcible. He never treated an opposing view with intolerance and contumely; his handling of controversial matter was exemplary." So it was when he faced the difference between his conception of history and Mr. Gardiner's. He did not think the "pragmatic" historians unjust for attacking his view. "It is very natural that, working as they do to bring out the actual political facts and clear away loose talk, they should look jealously at what is, in effect, a protest against their whole conception of history, and what must look to many of them like an attempt to bring the loose talk back again." Nevertheless, his conviction was plain. He felt that, however imperfect, his work was "on the old traditional lines of English historians." He was a liberal to the tips of his fingers, he accepted the scentific method, and science swept him away from the church whose ministry he had entered; but in a scientific age he felt himself to be a *vox clamantis*, whose business it was to protest against mere pragmatism. Every word he writes goes to the same point—"to a protest, that is, against the tendency to a merely external political view of human affairs, and to a belief that political history, to be intelligible, must be based on social history in its largest sense."

Among historians the scientific method, which began long ago as a heresy, tends in the days of its triumph to harden into a superstition. Above all things, a good historian is never narrow. Green's principles run counter to the present tendency on this continent, as they clashed with the principles of his leading contemporaries in England. Yet there is much in his letters that historians should read and weigh. While every one will be impressed by the spectacle which they afford of high-minded enthusiasm, of devotion to friends, of intellectual honesty, and of an intrepidity almost surpassing belief, the teacher and writer of history may well ponder these words: "We English folk live in free human air, and it is impossible to us to sink into 'mere paper-chasers.' And so I don't doubt that the English ideal of history will in the long run be what Gibbon made it in his day, the first in the world; because it can alone combine the love of accuracy and external facts with the sense that government and outer facts are but the outcome of individual men, and men what body, mind, and spirit make them."

CONDITIONS IN PORTO RICO.

SAN JUAN, January, 1902.

One of the most prominent members of President Roosevelt's Cabinet lately said the Government at Washington was so well satisfied with the conditions in Porto Rico that it gave no more thought to that island than it gave to the State of New Jersey. While this attitude of the authorities at Washington is sufficiently complimentary to the insular Government, there still remain unsettled a few questions of moment relating to Porto Rico, which it would be well if the Washington officials did not so readily dismiss from their minds.

While in a political sense the island and its affairs, the system of insular government, including the system of taxation, of revenues, and of public schools, have been set going to the entire satisfaction of the President and his advisers, and have ceased to be a source of doubt and anxiety, in a commercial sense the island and its possibilities are just on the verge of discovery by the people of the United States. The newspapers in "the States," the title by which the islanders distinguish the home country from its new possessions, have just recorded certain experiments made in Connecticut in the direction of producing a cigar-wrapper like the Sumatra wrapper by growing the leaf under shade. More than two months ago a representative of the Tobacco Trust went to Porto Rico prepared to grow a tobacco crop under the shelter of canvas or wooden slats. He selected a field in the Cayey district, and by this time his crop should be well under way. Unless high winds, which are more frequent in Porto Rico than in Connecticut, should destroy the shelter, there can be little doubt of the success of this early and important experiment in thinning the Porto Rican leaf and growing for the United States market what is considered by Americans a more attractive wrapper than this leaf in its natural state produces. The removal, last summer, of the United States tariff on Porto Rican tobacco caused so sudden and enormous a growth of the market in the States for Porto Rican cigars that some manufacturers were unable to supply the demand for their product.

The coffee industry is in a less flourishing state. The hurricane of two years ago did great damage to the coffee plantations, and from it they have not recovered. Moreover, the Spanish duty on Porto Rican coffee has had the effect of closing this important transatlantic market, and the people of the United States are not yet aware of the great superiority of the island coffee in richness of body and flavor over the thinner Brazilian coffees, which are so largely consumed in the States, where the latter coffees are bought by consumers for the Java and Mocha product; the Mocha being readily supplied by sorting the round berries from the flat ones growing in the same pod. The influences named, together with the desire of Spanish owners to withdraw from the island since it has come under American rule, have resulted in placing coffee plantations in the market at much less than their former value.

The future prospects of the sugar industry are indicated by the erection by the American Sugar Trust of what is believed to be the most complete plant in the world for crushing the cane. In the extraordinary depth and richness of the soil, and in the climate, to which frost is unknown, and which permits one crop to succeed another as fast as the first matures, is found the certainty of a great agricultural development in the future, to which the agricultural schools started by Dr. Brumbaugh, the former capable Commissioner of Education, will also in turn contribute. With a population of nearly one million inhabitants, in an island some ninety miles in length and forty in width, but one-fifth of the land is at present cultivated, and thousands of the natives suffer from anæmia, the most common disease of the island, largely because of an unvaried diet of a few fruits obtainable without labor.

As a winter resort for Americans, the development of Porto Rico will probably wait upon the building of roads and the introduction of means to vary the monotony of life. A few miles from Coamo, which is on the military road within an easy drive from Ponce, at Coamo Springs, the Spaniards maintained a resort which is well worth a visit. The hot waters gush from the hillside into the stone baths, whose size, huge stoppers and faucets excite the visitor's curiosity. The grounds have an interesting collection of tropical vegetation, and the rooms, beds, and cuisine are not only safe—which is a high recommendation in a hot climate—they would be unusually attractive in the United States or Europe. The same thing may be said of the French hotel in Ponce. But at San Juan, the capital, a good hotel, clean in all its appointments, is needed.

The most marked progress in Porto Rico has been made in the school work under Dr. Brumbaugh. The new frame schoolhouses met with in all parts of the island, or the old Spanish buildings of stone altered into schoolhouses, all with American flags waving over them, are, of course, more visible evidences of work accomplished than are the results of other governmental work on the part of Gov. Hunt and his subordinates. But even allowing for this, the chief hope for the future of Porto Rico seems to lie in the school work. At Ponce there is a school of some 400 children in which no Spanish is used. Even in the "shack" school on the mountain top the native teacher, clad in her simple but clean gown, her stockingless feet covered with slippers, is day by day teaching the English equivalents of Spanish words. Everywhere American patriotic songs are sung by the children, often in English, and the dedications of new schoolhouses exhibit the hospitality of the local Porto Rican authorities and their enthusiasm in the cause of education as well as the ardor of the children. With what spirit these last sing "The Star-Spangled Banner" and wave their tiny American flags! These occasions were always used by Dr. Brumbaugh to impress upon the large gatherings of adults and children that opportunity for all to learn to work and to develop followed the flag, and everywhere the eager faces showed appreciation of the new doctrine. Perhaps not much can be expected of the ignorant adult population of mixed blood; but the 50,000 cleanly dressed, bright-looking children now cared for by the public-school system, which includes a normal school, are destined to lead the native population of the island from the shiftless shack life which has endured so long.

The chief American officials in Porto Rico are, without exception, men of high character, dignity, and ability, who have the future welfare of the island at heart. The only thing to make an American blush, if some inferior bridge-building under the military government be excepted, had its source at Washington. Popularly, the influence of a prominent United States Senator is credited with responsibility for the extraordinary powers conferred upon the Bank of Porto Rico at San Juan. Congress permits the bank, with a capital of $900,000 and power to increase it to $1,200,000, to issue banknotes at present to the amount of $2,700,000, and to increase the circulation to $3,600,000—which latter sum is equal to the entire circulation of money in the island. Of the authority thus misplaced, Treasurer J. H. Hollander, well known by reason of his connection with Johns Hopkins University, and as the author of the revenue law of Porto Rico, said: "The possibility of large issues at any time in the future cannot be regarded as other than a standing menace to the financial security of the island. . . . No sane mind [in the United States] would propose to vest in a private agency power to issue notes to an amount equal to the total circulation of the country, and enjoying no preference over other liabilities of the bank with respect to the security given by a metallic reserve of one-third. Yet this is precisely the relation of the Spanish bank to the island of Porto Rico." The custom-houses and the post-offices in the island will not accept the bank's notes.

It is understood that the Danish islands, when ceded to the United States, will come under the insular government at San Juan. Already the island of Porto Rico is self-supporting. The island politics is absurdly personal from habit. The Federalist still regards the Republican as an enemy not fit to break bread with and unworthy of any recognition. He is, perhaps, as vociferous a herald of a personal cause as the world has ever seen; but, fortunately, his energy evaporates in speech. The swift years will change many, and the rest will die. The Federalist would like a Territorial or State government, with himself and his friends in the offices. The time for Porto Rico to become a Territory will be nearer when the school agencies have sent a hundred thousand pupils back to their communities, there to spread the example of respect for labor, truth, and decent living, for manhood and womanhood.

THE CRISIS IN THE FRENCH THEATRE.

PARIS, January 17, 1902.

It must be a surprise to a foreigner, happening by chance to go through Paris, to see how much space is devoted in our newspapers to theatrical matters. For some little time we have been in a state of excitement over the quarrel which has arisen between the administrator of the Comédie-Française and the actors of this theatre, which is considered the best school of acting in France. The choice of the plays has been left till this year to a chosen committee of actors and actresses, having the rank of *sociétaires* or partners, and constituting what was called the Reading Committee. It was a great honor for an author to have a play read before these severe judges; at the end of the reading a vote was taken—the play was refused, or admitted, or admitted conditionally upon revision. This has all been changed by a stroke of the pen of the Minister of Instruction and Fine Arts. The Théâtre-Français, receiving an annual subsidy from the state, is under the supervision of this minister. The Reading Committee has been simply abolished. The "Maison de Molière," as it is often called, had to change its form of government; the administrator alone will have the right to accept or to refuse a new play. An absolute government is substituted for a republican régime.

This *coup d'état* has been the occasion of a long debate in our press. The great public really cares for but one thing: it would like to be invited to hear good plays, whether ancient or modern. All the more recent plays have met with little success; they all dilate more or less on the question of divorce, and this subject, which was new a few years ago, before divorce became the subject of a law, is now thoroughly exhausted. It occasionally furnishes comical incidents in our light theatres, but its serious aspects have ceased to be a matter of interest.

Many of the newer comedies have shown a sort of timid imitation of the manner introduced some years ago by a bold and intelligent actor named Antoine in a small theatre which bore his name. It is not easy to translate the word "rosse," which has been given to this manner. The *théâtre rosse* has for its object to be absolutely realistic, to do away with all the conventionalities of the stage which have been admitted for centuries. It does not develop an action with the usual exposition and the necessary end of a plot; it means to give to the public mere "slices of life," and life is not made out of three, or four, or five acts—it goes on and leaves us at any time in suspense. It is not difficult to imagine why the first adepts in this new theatrical formula became very enthusiastic about it; it gave them absolute freedom, it made their work very easy, in many senses, as it did away with all complications and all intrigue. A new kind of acting, also, in harmony with it, was introduced. Actors and actresses sprang, so to speak, out of life; they needed no preparation, no long studies such as those of the Conservatoire; all that was asked of them was to be natural, to be faithful exponents of their own individuality. I will not deny that this return to nature had its advantages, that there was too much convention both in the creation and in the interpretation of theatrical works—the Théâtre-Français felt its effects in a certain degree; but, unfortunately, the new playwriters, while they attempted to get as near to life as possible, produced no plays of undoubted importance that could impress themselves on the public.

The famous theatrical critic Francisque Sarcey always protested against the introduction of an exaggerated realism on the stage of the Théâtre-Français. He protested, also, against the exaggeration of what is called the "mise en scène"—against the importance given to the material part of the theatrical art, the furniture, costumes, etc. The French Theatre receives a large subsidy from the state for no other object than to revive in each generation the best traditions of the past; it is bound to what is called the "répertoire"—a name that includes the classical plays, the masterpieces of Corneille, Racine, and Molière, to which have been added in our time the finest plays of Alfred de Musset and of Victor Hugo. An expensive "mise en scène" is quite unnecessary in such plays. When it becomes too operatic, it is even detrimental to the emotion of the audience. To please the eye and the ear is the privilege of the opera; the Théâtre-Français made its world-wide reputation by caring more exclusively for the pleasures of the mind. But the new realism has forced itself not only into the composition and development of the plays, but also into all the material accompaniments and surroundings of a plot. The Théâtre-Français would never, in old times, have played Sardou's "Patrie" as it is given now, at an enormous expense. "Patrie" was played, when it came out, at the Porte St.-Martin, but a theatre of the Boulevard can play the same piece a hundred, two hundred times in succession, and, if the piece is a success, the expenses of the "mise en scène" are soon repaid. The French Theatre is bound to vary its programme incessantly, and cannot afford to take the same risks as a private theatre.

Madame Sarah Bernhardt is just now playing Sardou's "Theodora" at her own theatre, and I am told that she has spent no less than 200,000 francs in the setting of this drama, which is a spectacle for the eyes more than for the mind. The Théâtre-Français cannot venture (or at least ought not to venture) such experiments; it ought to follow, more than it does at present, the sensible advice of Francisque Sarcey. The class of people who go to the Français care little for furniture, for costumes, for absolute exactness in all material details. Sarah Bernhardt made her reputation in the classical tragedies of Racine, which are ruled by the inflexible unities of Aristotle; the scenery did not change about her in every act; there were always the old temple, the naked walls, the cold hangings; she, and she alone, was enough. "Moi seul, et c'est assez." Whoever is so fortunate as to have heard her with her golden voice, to have seen her stand and move in the long draperies of *Phèdre* or *Andromaque*, will always remember her, and will care little for all the pomp and Oriental splendor with which she now surrounds herself in "Theodora."

It is difficult to prophesy what will be the end of the present crisis of the French Theatre. The actors and actresses who were members of the Reading Committee, just abolished, are partners in a sort of commercial society. They draw every year a certain sum, which might be called a dividend, out of the profits and outside of their salaries. This dividend, which, a few years ago, amounted to 40,000 francs for each of them, dwindled down to 12,000 francs last year. The burning of the Théâtre Français was in great part the cause of this diminution of profits, as many extraordinary expenses had to be met. The reports of last year's expenses and receipts are valuable documents which I need not analyze.

After all has been said (and there has been no end to the discussion on this subject), I willingly return to Voltaire's *mot* in 'Candide': " 'How many plays have you in France?' 'Five or six thousand.' 'It is much,' says Candide. 'And how many good

ones?' 'Fifteen or sixteen.' 'That's a great many,' says Martin." Good plays! there is the secret. Good actors will always be found, I venture to say, in France, which seems to have a peculiar genius in this respect, owing to centuries of peculiar culture. It is impossible not to be struck by the fact that in the meanest little theatres or even music-halls of the capital, and even of the large cities of France, you always discover some actor or actress with a special gift for acting. There is a whole populace of "cabotins," of both sexes, always looking for employment, always trying to get an engagement. It would be interesting, and sometimes very painful, to describe the career of so many men and women drawn by an irresistible calling to the hazardous life of the theatre. We know how difficult were the beginnings of some—of Rachel, for instance, the most illustrious of all; but nothing can deter many thousands, I may say, from the attraction of the stage. The demand for actors will always be answered by a supply. The same, alas, cannot be said of the demand for really good plays.

Correspondence.

CUBA AND IRELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While our statesmen at Washington are debating what to do with Cuba, it will not be inopportune to recall a few well-known facts from the history of another island dependency.

Two centuries or more ago, Ireland, devastated by famine and war, lay at the mercy of England. The little energy that remained in her was turned to cattle-raising, which was as well suited to her by nature as sugar-raising to Cuba. The English landowners took alarm, and, by the 18 Charles II., c. 2, prohibited the importation of Irish cattle into England. This destroyed the rising trade. Ireland then turned to wool; but, by the 10 and 11 Gul. III., c. 10, this attempt was crushed by a still more sweeping prohibition. Smuggling began, and wool was carried to the manufacturers in France. Finally, the Irish turned again to their ancient manufacture of linen; but in vain, for the country had been crushed. Her poverty was irremediable and her despair final. By these measures England destroyed a possible market, stimulated her rivals, strengthened her enemies, blasted the hopes of a nation, and sowed the seeds of hate around the world.

For those who rely on the adequacy of free institutions, it is well to remember, also, that the commercial imperialism of the Whig ascendency was more grinding upon the colonies of England than the more generous absolutism of the Stuarts.

Yours truly, William P. Gest.

Merion, Pa., January 30, 1902.

THE BEET-SUGAR CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The controversy between Cuban and domestic sugar being now at its height, it is curious to note the actual condition of public opinion throughout the nation. It must be admitted that the preponderance of opinion expressed in the leading journals can hardly be claimed as in favor of the just demands of domestic sugar-producers. There are several grave and obvious errors in the argument that constitutes the Cuban case, and the most important reasons for the establishment of beet sugar are not understood and are not presented—and perhaps never will be. One error, that of extravagant profits continuously enjoyed by cold-blooded producers of beet sugar, has now become less militant. The popular idea as to these profits and the cost of domestic sugar was an error, and could have been disproved by an examination of books; but it had great weight, and perhaps has now.

The claim is made every day that Cuban sugar will destroy no industry, and it is assumed that domestic sugar-producers in this country have a proposition of fixed and reliable factors, which enable us to say whether or not we can make money as the seasons roll along with a precision that is not possible to the foresight of mortal man. Actually, there is not one single critic of the position taken by domestic sugar-producers who is qualified to criticise their acts, and who would not in the same circumstances take exactly the same position that these producers do.

It is not true that the cost of sugar has admitted of extravagant profits, but, on the contrary, very little money has been recovered by investors in beet sugar in the way of dividends. If any profits have been made, they have been put back into the plant. The prospectus printed in newspapers all over the land, and scattered broadcast by the Sugar Trust, has conveyed an impression quite incorrect, and the result is simply a great mistake. Qualifying conditions, such as droughts, floods, and other misfortunes, have made the actual conglomerate experience of beet sugar widely diverse from the cheerful results indicated. Beet-sugar people have undertaken a task which involves a change in the fundamental conditions of agriculture, and the time and labor required have been underestimated in such degree as to make any prospectus appear absurd when checked up with actual results.

In spite of the phrase "No industry destroyed," the insincere motto of the Trust, a victory for Cuba means an early extinction of all domestic sugar, either in Louisiana or the North. A victory for domestic sugar means the gradual exclusion of foreign sugar till it forms an insignificant fraction of our consumption. The two are antagonistic, and one or the other must prevail. If we are beaten, the nation loses for ever its opportunity to secure in rural districts which cannot get other industrial life the most beneficent and valuable factor that we may ever know for education, improvement of agriculture, some degree of urban civilization, and fixing on the soil the owner who tills his own land. If we could now see clearly what beet sugar may accomplish, there would be no further discussion, and only our imperfect view of the future gives the Cuban argument any standing whatever. We have nothing but good will for the people of Cuba, and are willing that our Government shall make them any allowance necessary for their support; but we are not willing to build up their sugar industry at the cost of our own.

Yours truly, R. M. Allen.

Ames, Nebraska, January 27, 1902.

OUR NEW BELONGINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is interesting to note the variety of terms employed in current newspaper and magazine literature to designate the territory acquired by the United States through the Spanish war. Thus, the phrases "our new possessions," "our island empire," "our new territories," "our dependencies," "our colonies," and the like, are all in every-day use. None of these names is entirely satisfactory. For instance, *colonies* smacks too much of Imperialism, *dependencies* appears out of harmony with republican ideas, and so on through the list. Even the Government term, "our insular possessions," lacks greatly in precision, as we have one insular possession no farther away than across the East River.

In view of this, a specific name is desirable to describe the Philippines and Porto Rico, and such a term seems to have been provided for us by Judge Brown in the Supreme Court decision. The distinction between the different sections of the country he makes to hinge upon the clause "territory appurtenant and belonging to" the United States. Why not, then, assign to the word "appurtenants" of the United States the technical meaning intended?

Yours very truly, Jos. V. Collins.

217 Division St., Stevens Point, Wis., January 28, 1902.

CANADA AND ALASKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The present contention of Canada about the Alaskan frontier, which she brought up at the Quebec Conference in 1898, is that she is entitled to many outlets upon tide-water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude; and the possession of even only one such outlet on the Lynn Canal would serve her purposes admirably well. The United States, on the other hand, as Russia before them, have always maintained that (by Articles iii. and iv. of the Anglo-Muscovite Treaty of 1825), no matter whether the frontier pass over a certain mountain top or through a given gorge, yet it is at all points far enough inland to entirely cut off the British empire from all contact with tide-water above the Portland Canal, which debouches into the ocean at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. And this view of the United States has been supported in the past, and not so long ago either, by both the British and the Canadian Governments.

In the early course of the negotiations between Russia and England in the years 1822 and 1824, Sir Charles Bagot fought strenuously to keep open for Britain an outlet upon tide-water as far up above fifty-four degrees forty minutes as possible. But to all his propositions, including his last one that the frontier should pass from the southern extremity of Prince of Wales Island up through Clarence Straits, which wash the eastern shore of Prince of Wales Island, the Russians would not agree. And finally England, represented by Stratford Canning, yielded the point and agreed on the Portland Canal as a boundary. As to what sinuosity Count Nesselrode, M. de Poletica, and Stratford Canning meant by the Portland Canal, when they negotiated and concluded the treaty of 1825, may be seen by looking at Vancouver's chart, upon

which is marked clearly "Portland Canal." And the map of the "Northwestern Part of the Dominion of Canada," published by the Surveyor-General at Ottawa, in 1898, agrees with Vancouver and the United States as to where is the "Portland Canal."

In 1872 Sir Edward Thornton, acting on his instructions from the British Foreign Office, which was serving as the intermediary for the Government of Canada, proposed to Secretary Hamilton Fish the advisability of having a survey made of the territory through which the boundary ran, so that the frontier could be located exactly, and Mr. Fish thought well of the idea and said that he would urge Congress to provide funds for such a survey. At that time no mention was made of Canada's present claim, that she is entitled to the upper part of many or all of the fiords or sinuosities that cut into the mainland above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. On the contrary, the Surveyor-General of Canada, J. S. Dennis, in a written communication in 1874 to the Minister of the Interior of the Dominion, gave his opinion that it would be sufficient at that time to determine exactly the points at which the frontier crosses the "Rivers Skoot, Stakeen, Taku, Isilcat, and Chilkaht." He added further: "The United States surveys of the coast could be advantageously used to locate the coast line in deciding the mouths of the rivers in question, as points from whence the necessary triangulation surveys should commence in order to determine the ten marine leagues back." In addition, a United States Coast Survey map, certified to "January 16, 1878," by Surveyor-General Dennis, was published in connection with this letter, with the boundary line crossing the Skoot, Stickine, and Taku Rivers, ten leagues back from the coast.

In 1877 the Canadian Government, through the intermedium of the British Foreign Office, formally recognized that the *lisière* of Alaska shut off Canadian territory from access to salt water. The previous year, while taking a prisoner named Peter Martin, who was condemned in the Cassiar District of British Columbia for some act committed in Canadian territory, from the place where he was convicted to the place where he was to be imprisoned, Canadian constables crossed the Stickine River. They encamped with Martin at a point some thirteen miles up the river from its mouth. There Martin attempted unsuccessfully to escape, and made an assault on an officer. Upon his arrival at Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, he was tried and convicted for his attempted escape and attack upon the constable; and the court sentenced him. Our Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, protested vigorously against this infringement of the territorial sovereignty of the United States in the Territory of Alaska. After an investigation into the facts of the case, the Dominion Government acknowledged the justness of Secretary Fish's protest by "setting Peter Martin at liberty without further delay"; and thus recognized that the Canadian constables who had Martin in their charge when they encamped on the Stickine thirteen miles up from the mouth of the river, were on United States soil, and so that Canada's jurisdiction in that region did not extend to tide-water.

A striking truth of what the best official geographers of the British Government thought was the true boundary, is "Admiralty Chart No. 787" of the British Admiralty, that gives the northwest coast of America from "Cape Corrientes, Mexico, to Kadiak Island." This was prepared in 1876 by F. J. Evans, R. N., published in 1877, and corrected up to *April*, 1898, only a few months before the opening of the Quebec Conference. On this chart of the British Admiralty, the frontier of the United States descends the one hundred and forty-first degree of longitude west from Greenwich, and then, advancing on the Continent, but passing around the sinuosities of the coast so as to give a continuous *lisière* of territory cutting off the Dominion of Canada from all contact with any of the fiords or sinuosities that bulge into the continent between Mount Saint Elias and the Portland Canal, the frontier is drawn to the head of the Portland Canal at about fifty-six degrees, and then down that sinuosity, striking Dixon's Entrance at fifty-four degrees forty minutes. *Thus the British Admiralty itself upholds the territorial claims held and maintained by both the Russian and the United States Governments.*

It is one thing to ask the United States to agree, as Mr. Fish was willing to do in 1872, to have a joint survey to examine the country in the interior in order to locate exactly where the frontier runs. But it is quite another thing to ask the United States to submit to arbitration their right to all the sinuosities of the coast in their *entirety* above fifty-four degrees forty minutes, and the unbroken strip of territory round these sinuosities, which Great Britain recognized, from 1825 to 1867, as a part of Russia, and, since then, until recently, as a part of the United States. The more the subject is examined, the more evident does it become that there is nothing in the proposition of Canada and England which the United States should refer to arbitration.

T. W. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, January 27, 1902.

[The argument must close here.—ED. NATION.]

UNIFORM MUNICIPAL ACCOUNTING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our City Comptroller, Hon. James H. Smith, has added Baltimore to the list of cities that have taken up the important subject of uniform municipal accounting. In his report, just published, there is a schedule of the receipts and expenditures of the city arranged according to the scheme suggested by the National Municipal League. This scheme distributes the receipts and expenditures of the municipality under the general heads of ordinary and extraordinary. In the case of receipts, the ordinary embrace income from taxes, licenses, and so on; the extraordinary, income from sales of property, issuing of city bonds, and the like. Ordinary expenditures embrace what are usually termed operating or maintenance expenses. Extraordinary expenditures are made for purchases of property, erection of public buildings, redemption of the public debt, and so on. It is the request of the National Municipal League that all city comptrollers and auditors will, as an appendix to their report, state the receipts and expenses of their respective municipalities according to the scheme suggested by the League, so that by actual experience and a comparison of results a uniform schedule may be adopted which will commend itself for use in all municipal reports.

In order not to trespass too much upon your space with an elaborate explanation, it is proper to add that all who may be interested in this important branch of municipal government may obtain information in detail from the Secretary of the National Municipal League, Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Building, Philadelphia.

JOHN H. BLACKLOCK.

235 EQUITABLE BUILDING, BALTIMORE, January 27, 1902.

AN EARLY ALLUSION TO OMAR KHAYYAM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All lovers of Omar Khayyâm know that his early fame in the West rested on his ability as an astronomer rather than on those wonderful quatrains which breathe the *Weltschmerz* of our modern age. The burden of the song of the "tent-maker," as FitzGerald has given it to us, has become part and parcel of our literature. It becomes of interest, then, to trace the European knowledge of Omar as far back as possible. FitzGerald's teacher, Prof. E. B. Cowell of Cambridge, supposed that the earliest reference to our poet in the West occurred in the well-known passage in Thomas Hyde's 'Historia Religionis Veterum Persarum,' pages 498-500 of the first edition (Oxford, 1700). Here almost certainly is the first Occidental publication of any of his quatrains, the one which FitzGerald rendered,

"O Thou who burn'st in Heart for those who burn."

There is, however, at least one allusion to the poet which antedates the passage in Hyde by more than a century. Here, too, the reference is primarily to the astronomer, but his poetic talent is altogether unnoticed. The ancient calendar of the Persians had fallen behind on account of faulty intercalation, and a reform was necessary, as was to be the case with the Gregorian reckoning in Europe five centuries later. Accordingly, the old friend of Omar, the Sultan Alp Arslan, summoned to his assistance the eight most eminent astronomers of Persia, including the poet himself. Among Al-Khayyâmi's associates were two whose names are familiar to all students of the Orient, Avicenna, the Arabic Aristotelian philosopher, and the chronologist and historian of India, Al-Biruni. The allusion to the poet to which reference is here made is found in the work of the great Dutch scholar, Joseph Scaliger, 'De Emendatione Temporum,' page 304 of the Geneva edition of 1629 (first edition, Basel, 1593), and runs as follows in text and translation:

"In illa autem forma vaga anni Iezdegirdici difficile est id assequi, tam propter neglectum in anno Persico quadrantem, quam propter praegressionem aequinoctionum; ob eam rem, Imperator Corasan, siue Mesopotamiae, conuocatis peritissimis astrologiae viris curam noui anni instituendi delegauit. Imperatoris, qui id edixit et sanxit, nomen est, Albu Arsalan Elselegeuki Elhavvaraz, Muschahi Sultan Corasan. Conuenerunt ad edictum Regium octo praestantissimi viri, Omar Elhaiamu, Abu Hali, Hasan filius Haitham, Elbiruni, Abu Elvvapha, Elbuzgiani, Ellukari, Iudex iurisdictionis Elphakati, et Aben Sina, quem vulgo Auisenam vocant. Erat annus Christi Dionysianus 1079."

"Now, in that vague form of the year of Yezdegird [the old system of time], it is hard to secure this [an accurate calendar], not alone because the quarterday is neglected in the Persian year, but on account of the progression of the equinoxes as well. Therefore, the Emperor of Chorasan, or Mesopotamia, called the most skilled astrologers together and commissioned them to determine a new year. The name of the emperor who ordained and enacted this is Alp Arslan, the Seljuk al-Havaraz Mushahi, Sultan of Chorasan. According to the imperial mandate, eight most distinguished men convened, Omar Khayyam, Abu 'Ali, Hasan ibn Haitham, al-Biruni, Abu al-Vapha, al-Buzgi, al-Lukari, judge of the district of al-Fakat, and Ibn Sina, whom they commonly call Avicenna. It was the Dionysian year of Christ 1079."

Whence did Scaliger get his information? To this question I can at present give no answer. Very probably his source was some one of the numerous Arabic or Persian astronomers, many of whose works are even yet unprinted. Yet, whatever his authority, Scaliger's words, from what we know of the poet's life from Oriental writers, bear the stamp of credibility. So, as a contribution to Persian and to English literature alike, I have transcribed them from a work but little known to-day as an offering to those who, like myself, find consolation and new courage in the Rubâiyât of Omar Khayyâm.

LOUIS H. GRAY.

NEWARK, N. J., January 27, 1902.

THE MICROBE FORESHADOWED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Chaucer long ago told us,

"Ther nys no newe gyse that it nas old";

and perhaps, in view of recent researches into the ætiology of diseases, the theory propounded by Samuel Foote in his comedy "The Devil on Two Sticks" (1768) may have interest. The President of the College of Physicians is delivering a lecture:

"Brethren and students, I am going to open to you some notable discoveries that I have made respecting the source or primary cause of all distempers incidental to the human machine; and these, brethren, I attribute to certain animalculæ, or piscatory entities, that insinuate themselves through the pores into the blood, and in that fluid sport, toss, and tumble about like mackerel or cod-fish in the great deep; and to convince you that this is not a mere *gratis dictum*, an hypothesis only, I will give you demonstrative proof. Bring hither the microscope! . . . Take a peep. . . .

"Those two yellow drops were drawn from a subject afflicted with the jaundice—What d'ye see?

"*Last.*—Some little creatures like yellow flies that are hopping and skipping about.

"*Hel.*—Right. Those yellow flies give the tinge to the skin, and undoubtedly cause the disease: and now for the cure! I administer to every patient the two-and-fiftieth part of a scruple of the ovaria or eggs of the spider; these are thrown by the digestive powers into the secretory, there separated from the alimentary, and then precipitated into the circulatory; where finding a proper nidus or nest, they quit their torpid state and vivify, and upon vivification, discerning the flies, their natural food, they immediately fall foul of them, extirpate the race out of the blood, and restore the patient to health."

W. H. B.

Notes.

Mr. Charles Evans, No. 1045 Pratt Avenue, Rogers Park, Chicago, sends us a rather effusive prospectus of his 'American Bibliography: A Chronological Dictionary of All Books, Pamphlets, and Periodical Publications Printed in the United States' from 1639 to 1820, inclusive. The first volume will extend to 1740. How many there will be in all is not stated, but the price of each will be fifteen dollars. Each will have indexes of authors, subjects, printers, and publishers. Seventy thousand titles are estimated. It is Mr. Evans's purpose to append to each title the auction value above ten dollars, so far as ascertainable. This ambitious enterprise is wholly private, and the launching depends on receiving 300 subscriptions.

One of the books now going through the University Press at Cambridge, England, is 'The Unreformed House of Commons: Parliamentary Representation in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland before 1832,' by Edward Porritt, of Farmington, Conn. The first volume deals with the franchises on which the old House of Commons was elected; the changes which took place in the relations of members and constituents between 1295 and 1832; the incoming of the patronage system, and the relations between members and the patrons by whom they were nominated; the relations of the Crown to the franchise; and the organization of the House of Commons, its officers and procedure. The volume covers the old electoral and parliamentary systems of Scotland and Ireland and the Unions of 1707 and 1800. The work aims principally to show how the representation stood when Grey and Russell approached the question of parliamentary reform, and what causes had made reform necessary. It was written in this country, and the material for it has been obtained chiefly in American libraries. Macmillan will be the American publisher.

The two concluding volumes of the late Canon R. W. Dixon's 'History of the Church of England from the Abolition of the Roman Jurisdiction,' edited during the past year by the Rev. Henry Gee, D.D., will be published immediately by the Oxford University Press (H. Frowde).

The University of Chicago Press announces a series of "Contributions to Education," by Professors John Dewey and Ella Flagg Young of the University. "Isolation in the School," "Ethics in the School," "Types of Modern Educational Theory," are some of the topics.

The Grafton Press, 70 Fifth Avenue, is about to publish Chaucer's 'Nonnes Preestes Tale of the Cok and Hen,' with an introduction by William Cushing Bamburgh. The limited edition will be printed handsomely in black-letter. There will be four antique illustrations.

W. R. Morfill's 'History of Russia from Peter the Great to Alexander II.' is soon to appear with the imprint of James Pott & Co.

'Wireless Telegraphy,' announced by McClure, Phillips & Co., will contain Marconi's history of his epoch-making invention up to date.

In conjunction with Cassell & Co., A. Wessels Company will publish immediately 'Chinese Porcelain,' by Cosmo Monkhouse, with numerous illustrations.

D. C. Heath & Co. have undertaken a 'Workingman's English-Italian Language-Book and Reader,' to meet the needs of our Italian population.

'The Americanization of the World,' by W. T. Stead, is in the press of Horace Markley, No. 6 Vestry Street, New York.

Henry Harland's new novel, 'The Lady Paramount,' will bear Mr. John Lane's imprint, as will Mrs. Leslie Williams's 'Garden in the Suburbs,' 'The Book of Bulbs,' by S. Arnott, and 'Poems,' by Arthur Symons, in two volumes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have placed a prettily illustrated edition of Stevenson's 'Child's Garden of Verse' in their series for school reading. This will help confirm its lasting quality.

There was room for a new edition of the 'Memoirs of Major-General Heath,' for the original issue has long been out of print. But a new edition would call for careful editing, as the naïve narration of "our General" is very partial, and can hardly be appreciated at its worth without many notes or illustrations drawn from contemporary accounts. The material for these notes was to be found in the large collection of "Heath Papers," still in existence, and the Washington correspondence already published. Yet the editor (and publisher) of the volume before us, Mr. William Abbatt, has not availed himself of either of these sources of information and correction, and has been content with adding a few notes drawn from the army rolls, chiefly confined to identifying the officers named in the text. A very few letters have been added in the notes, but the one from Gen. Lee, mentioned in the preface as a remarkable one, cannot be found by the index, and must be sought without that aid. It appears on p. 85. While it is well to have the text of the Memoirs in this form of a limited edition, yet a very good opportunity of making it more valuable has been lost.

In connection with this reprint may be mentioned the same editor's 'Battle of Pell's Point,' which is an attempt to make a mere skirmish into one of the important battles of the Revolution. The effort is not successful, but the illustrations are of interest.

Of five volumes additional to the handsome "Versailles Historical Series" (Hardy, Pratt & Co.), four are given to the Memoirs of D'Argenson and the Cardinal de Bernis; the last, to the letters of Mademoiselle de Lespinasse. These translations, by Miss Wormeley, are literal enough to give one a definite impression of the original styles, and thus reflect the mild fatuity of De Bernis quite as faithfully as the passion of the enamoured lady. But we must note that the following sentence from Sainte-Beuve is hopelessly un-English: "Let us return to the general character of Cardinal de Bernis, whom I did not at first intend to take so politically nor in a manner so grave." From this to Du Maurier's Frankingle (or Inglefrank) is no incredible stride. And *stürm und drang* would hardly pass for German in a school exercise.

The name of Madame de Lamballe suggests to the ordinary reader little more than a dramatic page of Carlyle, or perhaps a stanza from Thackeray's "The Chronicle of the Drum." M. Georges Bertin's complete, though disjointed, narrative of the unfortunate noblewoman's life seeks to em-

phasize her estimable character and the unmerited tragedy of the close. An obvious literary defect of this work may be found in the too liberal use of quotations, which greater literary skill would have blended with the author's own text. The translation now offered by Miss Arabella Ward (Godfrey A. S. Wieners) is therefore creditable as successfully dealing with a more than usually refractory original. An appendix of historical notes is not unwelcome.

Mr. Norman Hapgood's 'George Washington' (Macmillan) deals mainly with the life of Washington down to his election as President, the years subsequent to 1789 being but briefly surveyed. In general plan and method of treatment the work suggests the "true biographies," several volumes of which have lately appeared. There is the same copious quotation from letters and journals, the same interesting emphasis upon details, and the same distinctly personal impression as in the well-known biographies by Ford, Curtis, and Fisher. Like those writers, too, Mr. Hapgood brings into prominence sides of Washington's character not commonly dwelt upon —his thoroughly practical and matter-of-fact mind, his mingled modesty and self-confidence, his outward show of courage and faith in spite of inward doubt and trial, and his conscientious devotion to the small details of private and public duty. The result is a presentation of Washington on his human side which, while at times somewhat painful to hero-worshippers, happily avoids the belittling manner into which this style of biography easily falls. As an illustration of Mr. Hapgood's skill in holding the balance true, we may instance his treatment of the brief period, on the eve of the Seven Years' War, in which Washington's ill-concealed desire for a military appointment was coupled with a determination not to accept an appointment save on terms as advantageous to himself as they were commensurate with the need of the colonies. The volume is attractively printed and bound, and the pictures, especially the reproductions of manuscripts, are well executed. We note an obvious misprint on page 8, where 1848 should, of course, be 1748.

'Memorials of William Charles Lake, Dean of Durham, 1869-1894.' edited by his widow (London: Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.), tells the uneventful story of one who was useful and prominent rather than eminent. Archbishop Temple writes that "he was a very able man" and "a very good man," and Canon Rawlinson calls him "one of the noblest and most remarkable personalities of our day"; but his sphere and fame were wholly Anglican. The portrait shows a fine, strong, kind face; the text seems to disclose a character safe, sound, and solid, one of the men who, short of individual greatness, go far to make up that of England. He was one of Arnold's boys at Rugby, and intimate with Stanley there and at Oxford, where he became fellow and tutor of Balliol, and held various University and governmental posts, and, as afterwards at Durham, did much ruling and reforming work. A High Churchman but not a Ritualist, he "had sympathies with the three different schools," kept friends with members of each, and opposed the persecution of any. His intimates were disappointed that he missed the great prizes as an undergraduate, and perhaps (though this is not admitted) that he made no more noise in later life; but he raised the University of Durham to honorable rank. His brief autobiography is eked out by letters, newspaper articles, etc., enough to make a goodly octavo, which is yet rather a thing of shreds and patches.

Dr. Edward J. Chinnock's 'A Few Notes on Julian, and a Translation of his Public Letters' (London: Nutt) is a modest booklet by a British scholar, of interest to students of the last pagan Emperor. One of the notes suggests that, as "all the accounts we have of St. George were written by his deadly enemies," perhaps he was not as black as he was painted.

The college student of to-day who should make mistakes in the choice of his college or the conduct of college life would not do so for lack of good advice. In 'The College Student and his Problems' (Macmillan) Mr. Canfield offers the counsels of one who has directed two Western universities and is now officially connected with a third in the East. The difficulty about this sort of book is that the student who might be the better for reading it is not the sort of person who could be induced to glance at its contents. Probably oral advice to collective gatherings of students in their first year is the only sort that will come home to the naturally shiftless or indolent among them. Mr. Canfield's warnings against the abuse of the elective system—which he aptly compares with dynamite as at once dangerous and useful—against too much athletics, and, finally, against the waste of those four precious years of opportunity are well reasoned and convincing. Perhaps he is too much inclined to give both sides of each question with such force that (as, for instance, in the matter of choosing between a university and a college) one is left with a more vivid impression of the difficulties involved than of his cautious solution; but it is well to have these questions carefully argued, and in any case one is likely to make a decision with a sublime disregard of advisers. In his appendix Mr. Canfield gives a useful table of the expenses of students at the thirty-one more important colleges and universities.

In 'My Host the Enemy, and Other Tales: Sketches of Life and Adventure on the Border Line of the West' (Fleming H. Revell Co.), Mr. Franklin Welles Calkins tells of real Indians and lifelike borderers a number of stories, ranging from indifferent to excellent. While by experience made master of his material, he frequently slights it, for some of the better tales are the merest framework, and disappoint by bareness and brevity. In the title story the narrator takes refuge from a blizzard in the tepee of hostile Sioux, who give him full measure of hospitality until the blizzard is past and he departs. Then the Sioux pursue and shoot at him for some miles. Here was opportunity for a fine story, but Mr. Calkins has so good an eye for dramatic situations that he neglects the stage business that helps them along, and shears the tale of half its legitimate measure. However, if we must have faults, brevity is a good one, and the bald style at least convinces of the veracity of the narrative. Mr. Calkins will do excellent work when he adds to his forceful way of driving on a story a little grace in embellishment. As a rule, we prefer prefaces to "forewords," but Mr. Calkins's few lines of introduction come well under the latter designation.

Among recent popular books pertaining to trees is one by G. Frederick Schwarz, entitled 'Forest Trees and Forest Scenery' (New York: The Grafton Press). The author discusses briefly some of the characteristic features of the forms of trees belonging to the broad-leaf and cone-bearing types, and indicates the relation of these features to their beauty. The influence of the undergrowth and of the climbing forms, the manner of attachment of the leaves, and other features, are considered in their relation to the æsthetic effect produced. Plainly the writer has studied trees and forests closely, and knows them well, although he really gives but little information in his book. He has rather concerned himself in accounting for the beauty of the forest by an appreciative examination of its component parts.

Granting the necessity of compressing so large a subject as the history of architecture into so small a compass as to be carried in a waistcoat pocket, Mr. P. Leslie Waterhouse's 'The Story of the Art of Building' (D. Appleton & Co.) is an admirable performance. It is evidently the outcome of much careful study, and shows a good grip of the subject. The relative importance of its several parts is well considered. Its very brevity forces it to pass so quickly from the work of one age to that of the next that the reader is not likely to weary for lack of change of scene. Beginning with the work of the ancient Egyptians, it moves rapidly through that of the Assyrians and Persians to the firm ground of Greek architecture, a safe point of departure for a journey through the many styles that have intervened between the time of Pericles and the twentieth century. The book will be of use to persons who desire some knowledge of the subject, yet lack opportunity to study the longer histories. To such it may be commended as a clear and reliable statement of well-ascertained facts. It would have been greatly helped by a more liberal supply of illustrations, and it has been distinctly injured by a chapter on Architecture in America added by the American publishers—a chapter bearing no proper relation to the other parts of the book, and greatly inferior to them in both its matter and its manner.

The fatherhood of God is usually regarded as the first tenet of modern theology; yet the Rev. W. J. Miller, in his preface to 'The American Church Dictionary and Cyclopædia' (Whittaker), would limit it by St. Cyprian's antique apothegm, "He cannot have God for his Father who has not the Church for his Mother." From this specimen brick one might construct, or anticipate, the entire edifice; but this is an undogmatic age, and the "dictionary" appropriately begins with Ablutions and ends with Zuchetto—which, the uninstructed may learn, is a skull-cap, black for priests, purple for bishops. "Doctrines" are indeed promised, as well as "facts, customs, and usages," but Atonement and Inspiration are not among the titles, and Apostolic Succession is judiciously stated to be "more of a fact than a doctrine." On the other hand, here is no lack of Vestments, Orders, Saints' Days, and the like; and here be such strange terms, for our enlightenment, as Antependium and

Proanaphora, which latter, we are told, should by rights be substituted for Antecommunion. The work is very much smaller and slighter than Mr. A. A. Benton's 'Church Cyclopædia' (1884), and others that have preceded it. One would not like to say that it is "laid level to the meanest apprehension," but it is apparently intended for a certain class of those who take their ideas from the sermon and the Sunday school (not graded). Deep thinkers and earnest inquirers would scarcely select Mr. Miller as a guide; yet there are many of him, and their audiences and following are large.

Mr. Lummis's very individual monthly magazine, the *Land of Sunshine*, published at Los Angeles, takes on a new name, *Out West*, with the first (January) number of its sixteenth volume. The change sounds like a topographical expansion eastward, in accordance with the proverbial eastward longing of the "Slopers," but the Pacific Coast will, we judge, be still the peculiar province of this periodical. An obvious expansion is in the bulk, which is a sign of prospering, and the ever abundant illustrations seem even more numerous than usual. For tourists ignorant or needing to be reminded of the building of a branch of the Santa Fé Road from Williams to the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, the editor supplies some fresh views from the Bright Angel trail, where the railroad company is about to erect a commodious hotel. They will pitch it, not on the very brink, which would be like a desecration and would soon make the marvellous prospect commonplace, but in a spot where there is no hint of the Cañon, any more than from the railroad. One cannot, therefore, says this racy writer, "sit on the veranda and expectorate into the gorge." The tourist will get the surprise which is so large a part of the emotion on looking down into this mountain-peopled chasm.

The *Library Journal* for January sums up Mr. Andrew Carnegie's gifts to American libraries in the year just closed, and makes the total $13,813,000. No section has been neglected. Richmond and Nashville, at the South, got $100,000 each; and the same sum went to Leadville, Col., Ottawa, and Winnipeg, Manitoba. The Braddock, Duquesne, and Homestead Carnegie libraries received a million, as did St. Louis; New York city, five millions; Detroit and San Francisco, $750,000.

Commissioner Swan's fourteenth report on the custody and condition of the public records of Massachusetts shows the good effect of a law recommended by him enabling towns to choose a clerk for three years instead of annually; but he now desires that this be made compulsory, for obvious reasons. He exhibits photographs of the seemingly hopeless roll of Stockbridge records before and after being bound in silk—a marvellous transformation. He has also a sadly amusing chapter on the vagaries of ill-equipped official copyists of the elder records.

The International Congress of Historical Sciences, which met at The Hague in 1898 and at Paris in 1900, will hold its third meeting at Rome during April, 1902. The Congress will consist of sixteen sections, including all the departments of historical science; and as the section on Mediæval and Modern Literatures is as yet unrepresented by American scholars, an American Committee, including Prof. C. M. Gayley of the University of California, Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale, Dr. F. I. Carpenter of Chicago, Dr. J. E. Spingarn of Columbia, and Prof. H. A. Rennert of the University of Pennsylvania, has been formed (1) to interest the American public in the literary section of the Congress, and to increase its membership; (2) to obtain an adequate representation of American scholars in the section, so that European scholars may become more familiar with American work in literary scholarship; and (3) to consider the possibility of inducing the Congress to hold its next meeting, in 1904, in some American city. The membership fee of twelve francs should be sent to the President of the section, Prof. Francesco Novati, 25 Via Borgonuovo, Milan, Italy. This nominal fee procures the Publications of the Congress, and a number of important special privileges, including reduced rates on all the Italian railroads. All papers presented to the Congress will be printed in its Publications, and it is hoped that scholars who cannot be present in person will be able to send some original contribution to be read at the meeting of the literary section. Further information may be obtained from Prof. Novati, or from the Secretary of the American committee, Dr. J. E. Spingarn, Columbia University, New York.

The Association for Promotion of Scientific Research by Women announces that applications should be received before March first for the American Women's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples. For the summer of 1902 the Association offers the free use of an Investigator's Table at the Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Holl, Massachusetts, to any applicant who is eligible for the Naples Table, and who may desire the benefit of preliminary work at Wood's Holl. Application blanks and further information may be obtained from the Secretary, Miss Cornelia M. Clapp, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.

—In line with the interest in art and artistic improvement noticed in other of the February magazines, *Harper's* gives place to a sketch of the movement initiated nearly a decade ago by Eugene Broerman for the artistic embellishment of the cities of Belgium. This took the form of an organized society, "L'Oeuvre Nationale Belge," in Brussels, in 1894, whose object was "to clothe in artistic form all that progress has made useful in the public life," such as street signs, flag-poles, street lights, poles for electric railways, bridges, etc. Treated with contempt at first by the municipal government of Brussels, the "work" soon gained such general popularity as to command the respect and aid of both national and local authorities. Dr. Süring of the Royal Meteorological Institute, Berlin, gives an interesting account of the upper atmosphere, based on ascents made last July. He was accompanied in the first of these ascents by Dr. von Schröter of Vienna, and Mr. Berson, who had previously made very high ascents in Germany and England; on the second occasion he ascended with Mr. Berson alone. On the first voyage the physiological effects of height on the body were carefully noted, with the conclusion that the rarity of the high atmosphere in itself produces no material modification in the functions of the heart and lungs, as usually supposed, the difficulty with these organs being due solely to lack of oxygen. The height reached in this ascent was only 24,000 feet, but on the second voyage, with a good supply of compressed oxygen along, an elevation of 35,000 feet was registered, with a temperature of —40 degrees Fahrenheit. Dr. Süring discredits the height of 37,000 feet said to have been attained by Glaisher and Coxwell in 1862. The conclusion of Mark Twain's "Double-Barrelled Detective Story" seems to admit of its classification as an intentional burlesque on the overwrought detective tale.

—The fifth volume of the "Writings of James Monroe" (Putnams) begins with the termination of Monroe's futile negotiation with Canning on the affair of the *Chesapeake*. Curtly rebuffed by that minister, Monroe returned to America with a double grievance against the Administration, for he resented the appointment of Pinckney as a colleague, and he keenly felt the rejection of his English treaty. He at once took up the task of vindicating his course, and, after an explanation and reconciliation with Jefferson, fastened upon Madison as a proper object of his revenge. The labored defence outlined for political use is entirely characteristic of the writer, for he sought to defend Jefferson at the expense of the Secretary of State. From the "Republican minority," now hostile to Jefferson's Administration, he held aloof, yet conducted a campaign for the Presidency on his own behalf by personal solicitation and criticism of Madison. When Madison had won, Monroe asked Jefferson to send him on a mission to France or to England, the scenes of his diplomatic defeats. A refusal brings out a long account of the foreign relations of the United States, proving his ineptitude as to the broader aspects of the questions involved. He felt hurt that Madison did not call him to the Department of State, or place him at the head of the army, and rather resented a suggestion from Jefferson that he accept one of the governments of Louisiana. This period, from his return from England to the end of the war of 1812, places him in an unlovely light, that of a needy and undignified office-seeker.

—That Monroe had good cause to complain of the treatment accorded to him by Jefferson and Madison is true; but his portentously long expressions of his feelings make wearisome and unprofitable reading. Tazewell and Taylor were made the depositaries of his confidences, and a letter of thirty pages in print suffices for no more than a beginning of his grievances. Yet in these letters the Monroe of later years begins to appear. He is the conciliator, the politician who is to silence party strife. He believes the President should cease to be the head of a party, and blames Jefferson for abusing the power of removal in such a way as to perpetuate the Federalists' influence. He refuses to attack Madison's administration, and, exhibiting himself as a man who has suffered much, pleads with other malcontents for moderation and forbearance, such as he has himself shown. He reaps his reward. A short term as Governor of Virginia was followed by his appointment to the Department of State by the very man he had so bitterly been criticising for months. The war made his place

almost a sinecure, and he was eager to take a military command. As temporary Secretary of War he wrote some memorials on proposed campaigns, but disaster after disaster to the American army rendered it hopeless to experiment on the offensive. Eustis and Armstrong, Hull, Dearborn, and others went into retirement, and Monroe emerges with credit! We regret that Mr. Hamilton gives so few of Monroe's public papers, consigning the few printed to an appendix. They are essential to a proper understanding of his character.

—'Cavalier and Puritan in the Days of the Stuarts,' by Lady Newdigate-Newdegate (Longmans), has been "compiled from the private papers and diary of Sir Richard Newdigate, second Baronet, with extracts from manuscript news-letters addressed to him between 1675 and 1789." Compared with 'The Cheverels of Cheverel Manor,' published by the author some three years ago, this volume is less attractive in form and less striking in contents. The Cheverels of 'Mr. Gilfil's Love-Story' were Sir Roger and Lady Newdigate of Arbury in Warwickshire. Sir Richard Newdigate was also the master of Arbury, but in character and originality he falls far short of the later Sir Roger. His chief merit was that he had the taste "to employ Wren, Lely, and Grinling Gibbons in beautifying his home for posterity." His besetting sins were carelessness and extravagance, carried to the point of burlesque. One meets with such characters in 'Castle Rackrent,' and fiction does well to make the most of them, but it is not often in real life that one encounters a man who, after alienating a large number of inherited acres, can write in his journal: "And whereas I rose this morning £55,000 in debt, I shall go to bed without owing more than £4,000, and towards that I have £3,000 of the assignment, which will carry a perpetual interest three years hence. Blessed be God's holy Name." Many other entries in the same journal are naïve enough to be amusing, *e. g.*, the following under August 6, 1682: "This day I fasted as a revenge upon myself for sin, and pray'd fervently tho' little. . . . Troubled with toothache, cured with sack." Perhaps the largest ingredient of this compilation is furnished by the news-letters which Sir Richard Newdigate took and preserved. Every one is familiar with the character of such compositions and the degree of their reliability as material for history. Sometimes they are entertaining, often they are padded out with all kinds of gossip derived from the coffee-house or the writer's own imagination. Lady Newdigate-Newdegate's own part in the piece is well done, and if her present work falls below the level of 'The Cheverels,' that is the fault of her records. On the whole, this sketch of social life at the close of the seventeenth century is fairly interesting, though not important. It suggests in some ways the class of book which is prepared by Mr. John Ashton, but possesses greater unity and deals with persons of a more aristocratic type.

—Mr. F. B. Sanborn's 'Personality of Thoreau' (Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed) is his third attempt to describe Thoreau, and, although the briefest of them all, is the most satisfactory, mainly for the reason that it confines itself more closely to direct personal impression than the 'Life' of 1882 or the 'Familiar Letters' of 1894. We have at the outset a rejection of the too common notion that Thoreau was a deliberate copy, which only succeeded in being a caricature, of Emerson. Their minds were of one family, but of external resemblance there was little beyond that of the handwriting. Still, can Lowell and others have been so much mistaken here as Mr. Sanborn thinks? It is true, as he says, that it is difficult to copy Emerson, but it is less difficult to take on something of his form through vital sympathy; and what Brownlee Brown did, and John Albee has done more recently, Thoreau may sometimes have done without impeaching his originality and without justifying the least possible reproach. Mr. Sanborn's account of the Thoreau family is vivid, and has the accent of complete sincerity with its items of Mrs. Thoreau's social tartness and her husband's genial assumption of a worse defect of hearing than he had, in order to escape responsibility for the harsher sallies of her wit. Mr. Sanborn's earliest note on Thoreau's appearance remarked "a huge Emersonian nose," for which the wags held Thoreau responsible, and "his collar turned over like Emerson's." The character of his walks, which Mr. Sanborn shared, is distinguished from that of Emerson's and Channing's in a delightful manner. He did not trust his memory of natural appearances, but made his notes "with his eye on the object." Thoreau's singing of "Tom Bowline" is, perhaps, the most surprising of Mr. Sanborn's reminiscences. The most pathetic passage is that touching Thoreau's partial alienation from Emerson; the most instructive that on Thoreau's classical scholarship, "better than Emerson's, Channing's, or Hawthorne's," and not inferior to Lowell's, each judged in middle life. A book about Thoreau limited to five hundred copies seems a queer paradox, when one thinks of the unsold copies of 'The Week' dumped on the author's hands. This book is beautifully got up in every respect, but it is a pity that its cost will make it the collector's trophy, when it should be widely read. Why should not Mr. Sanborn treat Emerson, Ellery Channing, and Alcott in this concise and personal manner, and put the four studies into one democratic book? We do not advise the inclusion of Hawthorne, who, for all his Concord residence, was a spirit of another color.

—Those familiar with the Rapenburg and Stationsweg in Leyden will recall the familiar figure and handsome face of Prof. Dr. Cornelis Petrus Tiele, which, during the last five years, showed increasing signs of age and infirmity. Born on the 16th of December, 1830, at Leyden, most of his life (almost eventless from the point of view of the man of action) has been spent in his native land. After passing through the elementary schools, gymnasium, and university of his native city, he entered the Remonstrant Seminary at Amsterdam, and received his doctorate of theology after a paper of Annotations upon the Gospel of John. He served in the pastorate from 1853 to 1873, first at Moordrecht and then at Rotterdam. Called to be professor in the Remonstrant Seminary in Leyden, his inaugural address was on the Place of Ethnic Religions in the History of Religion, an address worthy to be called epoch-making. Four years later he was made professor of the science of religion in the University of Leyden, and his opening lecture was upon the Results of Assyriology for the Comparative History of Religion. Thenceforward he continued steadily his researches in theological science, producing those solid works on the comparative history of the Egyptian and Semitic religion and on Babylonian and Assyrian history which have been reproduced in several languages. He wrote many articles for the great encyclopædias in Dutch, French, and German, corresponded with many learned societies, and delivered in 1886 the Gifford lectures at the University of Edinburgh, which institution, like that of Dublin, bestowed upon him a doctor's degree. The American Oriental, Royal Asiatic, American Philosophical, and the London Biblical Archæology Societies, and the Society of Biblical Literature in America, honored themselves by bestowing honorary membership upon him. Dr. Tiele belonged to the Royal Academy of Sciences in Amsterdam, and had been decorated with the orders of Orange-Nassau, of the Netherlands Lion, and of the Belgian Eikenkroon of Leopold. His 'Outlines of the History of Religion,' published in 1888, has been translated into seven languages. Almost to the very day of his death at Leyden on Saturday, January 11, he was intellectually active and intensely interested in affairs, especially in South Africa. The Dutch newspapers are full of his praises.

NICHOLS'S LETTERS OF ERASMUS.

The Epistles of Erasmus, from his Earliest Letters to his Fifty-first Year, arranged in order of time: English Translations from the early correspondence, with a Commentary confirming the chronological arrangement and supplying further biographical matter. By Francis Morgan Nichols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

This is the first attempt to translate the Letters of Erasmus into English in any systematic fashion. The more familiar ones, especially those bearing more directly on the life of the writer or of his contemporaries—such, for example, as the so-called Epistle to Grunnius, the Epistle to Prior Servatius, and those containing descriptions of Colet, More, and Froben—have often been done into English more or less freely. The rest have been exploited over and over again by biographers of Erasmus, and by all who have attempted to describe the civilization of the Reformation period.

Mr. Nichols, an English scholar best known by his edition in 1865 of Britton's 'Commentary on English Law,' has performed a new service, not merely by translating the letters, but by attempting to arrange them in a satisfactory chronological order. The present volume contains the correspondence down to Erasmus's return from Italy to England in 1509, and the editor holds out the expectation that he may, at no very distant day, put forth a second volume containing the letters to the outbreak of the Lutheran Reformation in 1517. That he has made substantial progress upon this second instalment is witnessed by the chronological Register published here and containing all the letters to 1517. It is greatly to be hoped that he will be able to fulfil his promise.

Of the two objects held in view, a sound translation and a usable chronological scheme, the second will have the larger interest for scholars. Down to the beginning of the eighteenth century the editors of the Letters, including Erasmus himself, had but the slightest regard to their arrangement. The chief interest was the literary, even the rhetorical one; and the historical, scientific side of the matter was left to take care of itself. The great edition of LeClerc in 1703-06 had at least the merit of bringing together all then available material and of suggesting the importance of an accurate chronology; but it came painfully short of its own requirements. It made a feeble effort here and there to correct some of the more obvious errors, but left more of these than it amended, and did not even attempt to establish any principle by which letters undated or wrongly dated could be referred to their proper places. Yet for two centuries this edition has served as practically the only source from which biographers and historians have been compelled to draw. In 1891 Dr. A. Richter devoted a doctorate dissertation to an attempt to fix the chronology of the letters as far as 1509, and was followed in 1896 by Dr. Max Reich, who attempted the same service for those between 1509 and 1517.

These are the sole modern predecessors of Mr. Nichols. He has utilized them without slavishly following them. His conclusions differ from theirs at many points, and he has generally given with sufficient clearness his reasons for his own results. It would be too much to say that he has laid down any precise leading principles which could apply even in a majority of cases. Indeed, any such laying down of principles must have resulted in immediate disaster. The vast correspondence of Erasmus, especially the early portion of it here under discussion, is singularly detached from the general movement of human life. There are but few points at which he can be corrected by reference to events well fixed as to chronology. His early correspondents are men whom he has illustrated rather than men who can throw light on him. It seems like a gleam in the darkness surrounding Erasmus's birth-year when we learn from him that he was a few months older than Colet; we consult the biographies of Colet only to find that they all fix his birth by reference to this same passage of Erasmus. So we are always in danger of the vicious circle. Yet it is by internal evidence of this sort that most of the points of attachment for a sequence of the letters have to be gained.

An obvious clue in many instances would be the reference in letters to the several periods in Erasmus's own life; but here again the limits of these periods have to be determined chiefly by the letters themselves. If we decide, for example, that he must have been in Paris between certain dates, it is clear that a letter dated from England in that interval is misdated as to either place or time. All this would be plain sailing if we were only quite sure of our first premise; but unfortunately much of this fundamental fixing of bounds is sadly like guesswork.

Mr. Nichols has evidently given great care to this part of his work. He has been obliged to read the letters thoroughly, because he has had to translate them—an advantage his predecessors have not always enjoyed. He has weighed his evidence bit by bit, carefully, and has in general used it with discretion. He has been modest in his claims to final accuracy, and pretends to no more than he has really accomplished, namely, to furnish to the student of Erasmus and his time a plausibly consistent scheme of his early life and correspondence. It is altogether probable that the future biographer of Erasmus, if he be writing in English, will accept Mr. Nichols's system as a ready-made device likely to be as nearly accurate as any he could construct for himself; but how far we are still from a result upon which independent inquirers working each in his own way are likely to agree, may be seen from a comparison of the registers of Mr. Nichols and Dr. Richter. The number of cases in which they agree in placing the same two letters in immediate sequence is about one in every five. Yet Dr. Richter's system, taken as a whole, has as much to recommend it as has that of Mr. Nichols. Each is simply the result of accumulated intelligent guessing on a great number of separate points. We do not think that the cause of historical learning would suffer greatly if either of these schemes were to be followed by future scholars. We simply point out that neither of them, nor indeed any other likely to be worked out by comparing them, can claim to have solved once for all the many knotty problems involved.

In regard to the translations themselves, there is much to commend. They are intended to include at least a portion of almost every letter, no matter how unimportant it may appear, and in so far the plan is to be praised. It is a matter of regret, however, that Mr. Nichols has not been willing to go a step further and to give us each letter complete, even if it were at the cost of somewhat lessening the luxury of type and paper. No editor can assume just what part of a work is going to prove "interesting" to his readers. It is the fatal English subjectivity again. If such a collection as this is of any use, it must meet a great variety of demands, and the only way to do this would be to give the letters entire and leave the selection to each reader according to his need. Mr. Nichols goes so far as to indicate generally by asterisks where he makes an omission. "But when it is immaterial, the reader is not troubled with these signs." In other words, the reader can never be sure that parts of a letter are not left out without any notice to him. Cases of this offence are happily rare, but they are of a piece with the suggestion that "the judicious reader will pass with a rapid glance over the Epistles contained in the two first chapters." How can the editor tell what the judicious reader will do? Certainly, the more judicious he is, the more he will prefer to use his own judgment in picking out what he needs for a special purpose. To take an example or two at random: A letter (No. 135 in Mr. Nichols's register), written to the Abbot of St. Bertin, contains a long account of a religious performance near Orléans, which is full of interesting matter for the student of popular superstitions. It is here omitted entirely. The well-known letter to the Princess Anna of Veere is given only in fragments, so that its value as a specimen of Erasmus's literary style is quite lost. It is true that it is made up chiefly of rhetorical turns and phrases, but this is precisely characteristic. It is a pity that the reader should be deprived of Erasmus's defence of Laurentius Valla as an author worthy the attention of good Christians (ep. 182), merely because to give it would have added another page or two.

The quality of the translation is excellent. Mr. Nichols has generally succeeded in giving the spirit of the original without sacrificing the quality of his own English. He has been willing to recognize that Erasmus was not always bent on cultivating the "grand style." Erasmus's Latin was a very flexible instrument. He could preach, philosophize, scold, beg, brag, whine, joke, or protest in it with equal skill, and it is the obvious duty of the translator to follow him in all his moods without fear of consequences. It may be thought even a shade too free when Mr. Nichols (p. 178) translates "manus enim manum fricat" by "caw me, caw thee," since "one hand rub the other" is what Erasmus said, and good English, too. Why say: "A horse that might be bought for an old song," when the writer said: "for a farthing (*obolo*)" (p. 181)? In his rendering of proper names, Mr. Nichols falls into some oddities through an excess of desire to be as English as possible. "Batt" is really no improvement on "Battus," and why "Gillis," when "Giles" is the usual English for Aegidius? But these are trifles. In the main we have here a thoroughly sound translation, even and accurate.

The running commentary accompanying the translations gives us the detail of the process by which the results embodied in the Register were obtained. It shows a long, patient, and careful occupation with things Erasmian in all their great variety. It is not free from conjectures—with such material no work could be—but in general the conjecture has some reasonable basis. The principle of arrangement is usually that the comment precedes the letter, but it sometimes follows it, and it is not always easy to bring together all the evidence bearing upon a given epistle. For this the typographical scheme is partly at fault, the paragraph of comment always looking as if it belonged with the preceding instead of with the following epistle. We venture to suggest for the second volume the plan of placing first the Register number, then the commentary, including the dates as given in the several editions and as corrected by the editor, and then the text. This would make each letter and its comment appear under one distinct heading. Further, we should be glad to be spared the utterly useless page-headings, and to have in their place something that would further the purpose of the book—perhaps the number of the chapter and letter on the *recto* and the headings of the sections of the Register on the *verso*.

We are especially indebted to Mr. Nichols for his care on points of geography. He corrects Mr. Drummond and others by placing the castle of Tournehem, not on the island of Walcheren, where the chief property of the Marchioness of Veere lay, but near Calais. He gives us bits of archæological reference which show careful information, presumably from personal inspection, regarding the scenes of Erasmus's early life. His bibliographical allusions are numerous, and generally useful in fixing some point of chronology. On the very delicate point of determining personal mo-

tives, Mr. Nichols is no more to be trusted than others. He takes Erasmus's own statements too readily at their face value, though, like all other editors, he feels how slippery they are. It is certainly odd that no letters from Battus have been preserved, but it is quite gratuitous to suppose that Erasmus destroyed them because he was ashamed of their style.

But, after all is said, the fact remains that this is the most important contribution of recent times to the subject of Erasmus. We look forward with interest to the appearance of the second volume.

SAINTSBURY'S EARLIER RENAISSANCE.

The Earlier Renaissance. By George Saintsbury. [Periods of European Literature.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo, pp. xvi, 423.

In considering Professor Saintsbury's latest book, it is pertinent to inquire, after the manner of Gibbon's famous dictum, what the not unscholarly reader may expect to find in a volume dealing with European literature during the closing years of the fifteenth century and the first half of the sixteenth. These are the limits of his subject as defined by the author himself, and the *communis sensus* which he so often invokes may reasonably look forward to the solution of certain historical problems, and the exposition of certain important literary developments, which are most intimately connected with this particular period.

The fifteenth century in Italy is remarkable for the rise and development of a great movement connected with the revival of classical literature, which, while not immediately productive of great works of the imagination, bore fruit, in the next century, in the fields of creative literature, of speculative philosophy, and of natural science. The progress and influence of Humanism are among the most important facts in the history of the modern spirit, and an adequate account of them may be expected in a series which professes to be "a complete and continuous history" of European literature. The period of origin does not, indeed, lie within the province of the present volume, but, for the sake of unity and continuity, the author of the preceding volume on the 'Transition Period' has wisely left to Mr. Saintsbury the whole subject of humanistic culture, for exclusive and exhaustive treatment in his opening chapter, on "The Harvest-Time of Humanism."

Here the first disappointment awaits the reader. The chapter swarms with Latin poets and prose-men, from Politian, Folengo, and Johannes Secundus to Erasmus, Buchanan, and More; and, as a summary of the Renaissance accomplishment in Latin writing, it is interesting and satisfactory. But the history of Latin verse is not the history of Humanism, a movement which has formed and colored literary taste and fixed the scheme of higher training in schools and universities for centuries; a movement whose feeding-roots go deeper into the human spirit, and whose influence on modern literature and thought is of far vaster consequence, than the achievements of individual Latinists. Starting with the ideal conceived if not fully formulated by Petrarch, the philosophical historian of Humanism might have traced the initial spread of the ideal through Petrarch's disciples, such as Boccaccio, who initiated that fondness for patient and laborious scholarship which has permeated Germanic erudition; Luigi Marsigli, who founded the first learned society or academy; and Coluccio Salutati, through whose efforts Humanism was given rights, and an honorable position, in the state. Such an historian would have shown how the movement, gathering strength as it proceeded, devoted itself at first too exclusively to minute investigation and to servile imitation of classical antiquity; how it was then given critical direction and scientific method by such a man as Lorenzo Valla, the direct ancestor of modern German scholarship; how it was soon afterwards married to æsthetic taste in the work of a Politian; and how, finally, under the dictatorship of a Bembo, it was systematically grafted on the vernacular literature, and permeated popular taste. Perhaps Mr. Saintsbury's lack of the historic sense, and his well-known impressionistic methods of criticism, precluded the possibility of his giving an adequate survey of Humanism in this particular manner; but no justification can be found for a mode of treatment which gives three pages to Johannes Secundus, while indicating Filelfo by name only, ignoring the great influence of Bembo on creative and especially on critical literature, and relegating to a footnote Lorenzo Valla, "il più ardito novatore e il pensatore più originale del secolo," according to the latest historian of Italian literature.

In a volume dealing with the Earlier Renaissance, however, the reader may reasonably expect to find more than an account of Humanism in Italy. Through its influence the literatures of Europe first became infused with the modern spirit, and, through the influence of vernacular Italian, first assumed a definite literary form. In a history of this period it seems fair to demand through what channels these influences came, what were their immediate effects, and how finally they bore fruit. Here again the reader is doomed to disappointment; Italian influences are scarcely if ever considered, and some of the great names in the history of Transalpine Humanism, of English and French Hellenism, are conspicuous by their absence. What shall be said of a history of the early English Renaissance which does not even mention by name such men as Grocyn and Linacre, or William Lily and Dean Colet? What shall be said of a history of the French Renaissance which ignores such men as Budæus, the first of French Hellenists, Ramus, whose philosophical radicalism infuses his rhetorical treatises, Robert and Henri Estienne, the great publishers and scholars, Amyot, prince of translators, and a dozen others? It is no sufficient answer to say that some of these scholars left behind them no enduring works of literature for the historian to label and appraise. This is the basis of Mr. Saintsbury's impressionism, but the historian of literature is ever obliged to deal with men, like Dr. Johnson, like Sir Philip Sidney, whose personal influence far outweighs the value of their extant works. The movement inaugurated by Wyatt and Surrey is unintelligible without some account of its antecedent preparation by Grocyn, Linacre, and Colet; but as yet Early English Humanism has not received satisfactory treatment.

A third great factor in the history of this period is the revival of criticism. The recovery of Aristotle's 'Poetics,' joined with the critical spirit of Italian Humanism, produced in the sixteenth century a remarkable outburst of criticism, that first formulated those canons of neo-classical art which were to dominate European literature until the end of the eighteenth century. It is due to Mr. Saintsbury to say that his is the first history of the Renaissance to include a chapter on this important theme. But it must be added that his treatment, with some slight differences of judgment rather than of fact, is almost wholly, and confessedly, borrowed from a recent monograph devoted to the same subject. Aretino, perhaps the most influential critic of the Cinquecento, and Erasmus, as great in this field as in so many others, are discussed elsewhere in the book, but not in the chapter on criticism. Dr. Karl Vossler's interesting study in the *Neue Heidelberger Jahrbücher* (1900, X. 38 *seq.*) supplies the deficiency in the case of Aretino, but no satisfactory account of Erasmus as a literary critic has yet appeared. We trust that Mr. Saintsbury will see fit to supply it in the forthcoming volume of his monumental 'History of Criticism.'

The early Renaissance witnessed not only the birth of Humanism and Criticism, but also, as is pointed out in the preface, the beginnings of the modern drama. Here Mr. Saintsbury's accomplishment coincides more satisfactorily with the expectation of the reader. His account of the origins of the vernacular drama in Italy, France, Germany, and England is not without merit; but his survey of the artificial Latin plays of the sixteenth century is especially worthy of praise, as being without a prototype, at least in English, and as a most accessible and interesting introduction to an obscure subject.

Finally, the historian of the Renaissance must be tested by his judgment of the great authors and his interpretation of the great literary monuments of the period—the 'Orlando Furioso,' the 'Courtier' of Castiglione, the Sonnets of Michelangelo, the 'Gargantua' and 'Pantagruel' of Rabelais, the 'Colloquies' of Erasmus, the political and historical writings of Machiavelli. These are the tests of his critical judgment, as the former were of his historic sense; and, in either case, Mr. Saintsbury's virtues and shortcomings are sufficiently manifest. His deficiency in the latter regard and his contempt for all standards of taste make his criticism, in the end, merely and wholly a matter of individual impression. He cannot understand Machiavelli; he does not fully recognize the chief glory of Michelangelo's genius; he is blind to the high qualities of the 'Cortegiano'; but his fondness for Erasmus, and, above all, for Rabelais, is justified by some excellent, if not always very discriminating, passages of criticism. His is, after all, the method popularized by Swinburne's prose—the method of lyric rhapsody and Elizabethan vituperation. This we feel especially when (p. 80) he compares the "coarse and earthy partisanship of Luther, the sour fanaticism of Calvin, and the reactionary Machiavelism of the Jesuits," with the genial and urbane tone of Erasmus, which we miss only too often in his own pages. Considering his slipshod style, his barbarous coinage of words and phrases, his cocksure and arbitrary spirit, his bitter and narrow

partisanship, we are often tempted to echo his own words regarding the Revised Version (p. 249, note), and to think that in this volume, too, "the laity might surely be spared its frequently controversial alterations of sense and its generally hideous cacophonies of sound."

It were unjust, however, to part with Mr. Saintsbury on such bad terms. This, like all his other books, gives many evidences of a wider reading than is usually associated to-day with English scholarship; and the reader will find in it much valuable information difficult to find elsewhere. We have noticed several slight errors, or perhaps slips of the pen; *e. g.*, "Burckhart's *Deutsche Dichter der 16ten Jahrhunderts*" (p. 348) should be "Brockhaus's *Deutsche Dichter des 16ten Jahrhunderts*."

RECENT NOVELS.

The Imp and the Angel. By Josephine Dodge Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Lighthouse Village. By Louise Lyndon Sibley. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A House Party. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Margaret Warrener. By Alice Brown. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Marietta: A Maid of Venice. By F. Marion Crawford. The Macmillan Co.

There be children's books for children, and children's books for adults; children's books, too, there be which over the children's shoulders exchange mocking winks with the grown-ups, like Roman augurs. Miss Daskam's book does not belong to the first class, though, in saying so, we do not forget the historic shower of contradiction poured upon the unlucky reviewer who predicted that 'Alice in Wonderland' would appeal mainly to grown-up readers. A children's crusade was the sequel. We venture to call Miss Daskam's book a very engaging member of our second class. He who writes such an one, let him take great heed lest he fall into the third. Miss Daskam has escaped this peril nearly throughout. Her tales are full of simplicity, naturalness, fun, and charm, and no one of any age will be sadder for reading them. The illustrations are unusually pretty and suitable; the little hero Imp, in particular, winning his way straight to the affections.

'A Lighthouse Village' is an absolutely unpretending little book, its sketches made so slightly as often to seem mere note-taking. But, for all that, or because of that, there is excellent entertainment between its covers. The salt of a lighthouse is like no other salt in the world. Its savor penetrates these modest pages. When the lighthouse is on the New England coast, its local color has found a name. Mrs. Sibley has intimately felt both phases of her subject, and gives us brine and dialect, pathos and absurdity, with understanding, and for the most part in that pleasantest of all ways, the unannotated words of the actors. Her own appreciation of it all is kept in the background, leaving it naïve to a degree which, if it sometimes reaches thinness, yet always tinkles true. It is, furthermore, mainly cheerful, and that is much in a day when finding a book to lend an invalid is a baffling problem. Even an invalid will be willing to endure the few touching pages for the sake of elsewhere reading of the man who was "double peculiar," or of her who "often said to him as feelin' as I could, 'Was your wife's health mostly pretty good 'fore she died'?"

To know that a book of stories is published as a puzzle in authorship is to set the mind in a guessing attitude, and almost to "impossibilitate" (as Dr. Donne says) cool judgment of them as literary matter. Nevertheless it is the reviewer's office to forget the question "Who's who?" and to ignore the almighty-dollar issues of the answers. Renouncing the inclination to point out real or fancied indications of origin, he must leave it to a happier public to conjecture whether here lies the mark of the Churchill or there the trail of the Twain. The plan of the symposium is novel. Stories have been dramatized before this (and worms have eaten them), but it is a new venture to dramatize the story-tellers themselves and cast them for parts in a rain-bound house-party. Mr. Ford, who alone is unmasked, plays his part of introducer with as much lightness and ease as such a rôle can command. "Aunt Nancy's Annuity" we think the gem of the collection, while "Dawson's Dilemma," "Mother," and "A Surrender" excel, each in its way. Indeed, there is not one out-and-out dull story in the series, though some more than others must have served to reconcile the company to the return of fair weather.

Alice Brown's latest book has the merits and demerits of earlier work of hers noticed in these columns. But the former gain. The hold is firmer, the "Meredithyrambics" are fewer. 'Margaret Warrener' stands noticeable among recent minor novels. It convinces at sight of the writer's divining power as to human motives, her understanding of the blended weakness and strength that spoil lives, "quietly, without noise," as De Grignon says in the play, and of the tragedies that make noise and do not seem to spoil anything. The story is sufficiently interesting to float the human-nature study which constitutes the real strength of the book. It wavers from time to time, and taxes credulity, perhaps, in places, but not in a way to irritate. The scene lies in a metropolitan Bohemia (Boston, disguised by a gauze veil), where artists and writers work and play together. To enumerate the characters—poet, actress, painter, journalist—seems to be naming a hackneyed *dramatis personæ*, but these are no hackneyed types, nor are they often impossible. The greatly aspiring and self-renouncing Margaret may do incredible things, but she is not incredible. The essentially noble Brandon, with his "nine or ten masquerading selves," is the novelistic guardian angel in a form that is new from its very truth to his more complex side. Perhaps his shoulder-wings are something over-prominent for so human a creature, but he is delightful. The old doctor and his sister are guardian angels, too, whose big wings sit naturally, but they are kept within healthy mortal limits. The world must grow older and colder before it consents to part with the omniscient doctor in fiction. The millionaire, prospering on soap, but shipwrecked in stock speculations, though so familiar to the ear, moves here without exaggeration in fresh paths. Even the *ingénue*, the singer who has lost her voice, displays an unexpected originality of character when her crisis time occurs. The central figure of darkness, the woman journalist, "promoter," and converter of blood into copy, plays the vampire with such plausible gleams of altruism that it was no wonder she attracted and warmed the breadwinners whom she intermittently helped. The feeble, faithless Llandaff, like many other heroes of novels, seems hardly justification for such good red devotion as Margaret lavished on him. We find ourselves forced to take for granted his powers of "luring sirens out of the wave." Remembering Titania and Bottom, however, we say no more. The few pages of hospital experience are done with remarkable effectiveness. In fact, this writer shows a great power of getting quietly behind the truths of life, be they mental or physical, and pushing them forward through her pages into the prick of instant recognition. Even he who exclaims, "How unlikely!" is sure to add, "How true!"

The tale of a Murano glassmaker in 1470 affords Mr. Crawford one of his most characteristic opportunities. Venice of the past, Venetian color on land and sea, a touch of history, a hint of politics, a panorama of manners and fashions, the great glass-making art with its secrets and rivalries, a glow of costuming, a glitter of jewels, little shivers of fraud and conspiracy, a love-tale running rough just long enough to acquire an impetus for smooth sliding at last—these are the features of a pleasant tale pleasantly told. Mr. Crawford's intimacy with his period as ever conveys itself to the reader, who feels admitted to the inner circle of Venetian interests in the fifteenth century. His characters stand well apart in their several personalities spite of a tongue common to them all; for all, whether fair lady or gondolier, Doge, Dalmatian, Georgian slave, patrician of Venice, or Greek pirate, speak Crawford. He, as is his wont, writes as if he had taken to heart Lord Chesterfield's dictum that "everything should be done in minuet time." There is no "sick hurry" in these well-conducted pages. Here one may enjoy history, millinery, and blood-curdling in good form and with gentlemanly leisure.

Richard Wagner, his Life and his Dramas. By W. J. Henderson. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Great as is the number of books on Richard Wagner, Mr. Henderson has succeeded in adding one to the list which occupies a place of its own. He has studied the wants of opera-goers, and has endeavored to meet them all in a single volume of 504 pages. He has "told the story of Wagner's life, explained his artistic aims, given the history of each of his great works, examined its literary sources, shown how Wagner utilized them, and set forth the meaning and purpose of its principal ideas." Though much condensation was necessary in telling the story of Wagner's multitudinous adventures in 153 pages, the author has succeeded in making these chapters entertaining, by careful selection of the more important episodes. He has made good use of the materials supplied by various predecessors, but in some cases missed the chance of improving on them by utilizing interesting disclosures made in letters of Hans von

Bülow and Liszt, in Wagner's letters to Heckel and Wesendonck, and in Weissheimer's volume on Wagner, all published in recent years.

Mr. Henderson's estimate of Wagner as a man and a composer has undergone considerable change since he first began to write about him. Familiarity with biographic facts and with the operas has bred more and more admiration. At one time inclined to side with the peculiarly shallow estimate of Wagner's personality made by Jullien, he now assumes a much more sympathetic and yet judicial attitude. While setting forth on one page his foibles more clearly than any other biographer has done, he shows in the chapter on "The Character of the Man" a deep insight into Wagner's mind and the causes that shaped his attitude toward the world. If Wagner "possessed the gentle art of making enemies as few other men could, yet he was highly successful in gaining friends, and those whom he got he kept." By way of accounting for Wagner's irritability, Mr. Henderson might have dwelt more on the hostile criticisms which constantly ruffled his temper. But, after all, his disappointment was caused less by these direct attacks than by "the failure of the world to grasp his ideals." The author believes that this disappointment would have continued had he lived longer. "Even now only a few ardent lovers of the loftiest things in art have entered fully into the spirit of his conceptions."

A unique feature of Mr. Henderson's book is a full record of first casts in the case of every Wagner opera, in both Europe and America. In the latter case the records could not be made quite complete because the journalists of twenty-five years ago "did not realize their obligations to posterity." However, this is no great calamity: the missing names were probably of fifth-rate singers. A clear account is given (pp. 77-79) of the Praeger-Ellis controversy. Exception may be made to the statement (p. 118) that "Tristan und Isolde" "never was really *sung* until within the last half-dozen years." Vogl sang the rôle admirably; and how about Wagner's idol, Schnorr? Mr. Henderson himself supplies evidence in a footnote, ten pages further on, that Schnorr had a beautiful, sweet voice, and that "he approached in his singing the manner of Jean de Reszke."

In commenting on the music of Wagner's operas, the author follows the sensible plan of printing some of the leading motives in musical type, but not all of them; and he properly emphasizes the fact that while it is an advantage to know these motives and their significance, one can enjoy Wagner's music without having them all by heart. But the most important feature of Mr. Henderson's book is that he everywhere champions Wagner's idea that "the play's the thing," and the music merely its illustration and intensification. He has a thorough appreciation of Wagner's originality and power as a poet. Many opera-goers, perhaps, do not care much about the sources of the poems which underlie their favorite works; but they cannot fail to be interested in Mr. Henderson's comparisons showing how, in every case, Wagner, the dramatist, improved on his poetic predecessors. Concerning the "Flying Dutchman," he says justly: "He ceased to be a mere libretto-writer, and became a dramatic poet. His version of the famous old legend is a lovely one, and much of its increased beauty is the product of his own genius." Concerning "Tannhäuser" Mr. Henderson goes so far as to maintain that the music commands less admiration than the book. He "wrote no mightier tragedy than this." Tannhäuser's narrative "is the climax of power in the opera, one of the most intensely tragic pieces of writing in all dramatic literature." In the case of "Lohengrin" the reader is shown act by act how skilfully Wagner used his borrowed poetic themes, and made them dramatic by ingenious improvements. The author sees the true humor of "Die Meistersinger," and says regarding the great Tetralogy: "His reconstruction of the story of the end of the gods, of their release from the burden of sin by a voluntary, vicarious sacrifice, raises the poetic issue of his drama to a plane far above the conceptions of the old Norse and Teutonic skalds. With 'Der Ring des Nibelungen,' in spite of its defects, Wagner set himself beside the Greek dramatists." But it is for "Tristan" that Mr. Henderson reserves his most glowing enthusiasm:

> "As is invariably the case, his treatment of the story draws together all the beauties of the original material, and moulds them into a compact, consistent whole, instinct with dramatic force and poetic beauty. In attempting to set forth the Wagnerian arrangement of materials, I find it difficult to proceed coolly and systematically. There is a witchery in this marvellous drama of fatal love that masters my mind. . . . 'Tristan and Isolde' is a drama of human emotions, uttered in tones. As such it must be conceded a place among the mightiest conceptions of the poetic brain."

A History of Architecture in Italy, from the Time of Constantine to the Dawn of the Renaissance. By Charles A. Cummings, Member of the Boston Society of Architects, Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. With nearly five hundred illustrations. In two volumes, pp. xix, 314; ix, 325. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Mr. Cummings's book is one of descriptions, full, careful, minute, of a great number of Italian buildings. It is composed as if intended to be published without illustrations, or with few illustrations; and, as there are 462 pictures, most of them half-tones, it happens rather often that the reader is told in words, at some length, what the photograph shows sufficiently well. A certain farther elaboration of the text might have caused the verbal and the pictured account of the building to work together for enlightenment with a more perfect harmony of purpose. Apart from this there is no fault to be found with the descriptions, as such. They are long enough, but not too long, and their relative length is well proportioned. As the description flows on, the doubtful points are well stated, with a shrewd discrimination between the probable and the wholly unsettled. The Tomb of Theodoric at Ravenna has greatly interested the author, and he devotes to it two pages of text with three cuts, and here the serious uncertainty that exists with regard to the original form and character of that unique building is perfectly well stated. In all this there is only one more point to make as to less satisfactory quality, and it is as follows: When, as on pages 254-5 of volume i., the exterior of Saint Mark's is in the way of being described, it is an obvious omission that "the lion of St. Mark on a blue ground of mosaic" and "the ogee gables [in itself a faulty phrase] decorated with wildly extravagant crockets" and the general effect "of indescribable strangeness," are not mentioned as accessories of much later date than the mass of its chief details, and as all apart from the original design. It is, of course, well that the description of the church *as it is* should be given fully; one could even wish that the church as Ruskin and other enthusiasts saw it in 1850, or even in 1870, were contrasted with the less fascinating building of the days since the late restoration; but what is especially needed here is something more than any one description, and the successive additions of the eleventh, fourteenth, and succeeding centuries need to be discriminated.

The book is thoroughly in sympathy with the nobler works of the art it deals with, as with the humble efforts of the beginners. This sympathy would not be perfect were it not for the author's readiness to see and recognize what is strong, what is original, what must have been very novel in building. Even in the case of perfectly well-known monuments, this readiness to look into the essence of the thing and to note the brilliancy of one and another design of long ago is most remarkable, and on this account, very largely, the book seems to be almost all that the general reader on subjects of fine art could possibly require. Indeed, the only change which, from this point of view, it is seen to require, is a little more attention to references from one passage to another, in description or in criticism.

The Soverane Herb: A History of Tobacco. By W. A. Penn. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

How men first came to smoke tobacco is not known; but two things are clear: that the practice was originally a religious rite, and that it was brought in the sixteenth century from America to Europe, whence it spread to Asia. All three modes of using the weed—cigars, pipes, and snuff—were found in vogue among the natives by the earliest discoverers. In the narrative of the first voyage of Columbus, we are told of the astonishment of the Spaniards at seeing the natives of San Salvador puffing cigars, or rather enormous cigarettes. On his second voyage, the islanders were observed snuffing the powdered leaf through a hollow cane. On the mainland, pipe-smoking was the universal custom, but still retaining much of a ritualistic character. So tobacco went to Spain as cigars, to France (through Jean Nicot) as snuff, and was carried to England with the pipe by Ralph Lane, Governor of Virginia, on his return in 1586. Raleigh, though he adopted the practice, was not (as is often stated) its introducer. England gave it to the Dutch, and the Dutch carried it to the Spice Islands and farthest Cathay, so that, almost before the century closed, tobacco had girdled the world. Not, however, without opposition. King James's futile crusade against the weed had no effect except to stimulate poets like Jonson, Ford, Sylvester, and smaller fry to curry court favor by satirical abuse of smoking

and smokers. Shakspere never alludes to the practice; and his silence may be interpreted either way. Sultans, shahs, khalifs, and czars put forth their might against it, and Pope Urban launched a bull against its use, but all in vain; the frail, withered leaf was stronger than popes and kings.

As Mr. Penn has omitted the famous anecdote associated with this bull of Urban's, we venture to retell it, old as it is. On the publication of the bull, a paper was found affixed to the statue of Pasquil, containing the text: "Contra folium ostendis potentiam tuam, et stipulam siccam persequeris?" (Job, xiii, 25). Urban made proclamation that, if the author would declare himself, he should receive reward. On the next morning the pasquil was found signed "Job."

Despite both spiritual and secular fulminations, tobacco held its own, and even —what few monarchs have done—conquered the Church. The present Pope takes snuff, the finest in the world, which is specially made for him in Baltimore. But fashions in tobacco-taking, as in other things, have varied. In the eighteenth century the pipe sank in reputation in England, and the snuff-box arose. On the Continent, snuff had always been aristocratic, and leaders of fashion had rivalled each other in the costliness and beauty of their boxes, the exquisite flavor of their contents, and the grace with which the pinch was inhaled. England never quite attained these high levels of elegance, and in the nineteenth century went back to the cigar. The Crimean war brought in the cigarette, the use of which the English had learned from their allies, and in late years the pipe has come once more into favor.

The forms of pipes are bewildering in their variety, but, for simplicity (and we might almost say sublimity of conception), that of the Bechuanas surely bears the palm. The native, wanting a smoke, selects a patch of damp clay soil, on which he lays a slender switch and packs clay over it, after which he draws out the switch, and the pipe is made. All he has to do is to burn some tobacco over one end of the tunnel, and apply his mouth to the other. The favorite pipe at the present day seems to be the brier, made from the root of a species of heath growing on the shores of the Mediterranean. The wood has a beautiful grain and color, imparts no taste to the smoke, and is practically incombustible. Smokers who have fine briers will do well to cherish them, as our author tells us that the supply will be exhausted in ten years. The meerschaum is the aristocrat of pipes. The material is a fine magnesian clay found in Asia Minor, and the pipe must be carved from the natural block, after which it is treated with various fatty substances which produce the mellow brown tints dear to the smoker. Vienna is the headquarters of the manufacture, though its birthplace is at Pesth, where the coloring effect of wax was accidentally discovered more than a hundred and fifty years ago.

The finest and costliest tobacco in the world is grown in a very limited district in Cuba. According to Mr. Penn, not more than 30,000 cigars of the very highest grade are turned out every year, to be the luxury of kings and millionaires. A dazzling prospect, however, is offered us by a German chemist who has discovered that the flavors of tobaccos are produced by microbes associated with the process of fermentation, and that, by proper inoculation, he can give the vilest *mundungus* the aroma of the choicest product of the Vuelta Abajo.

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ASSETS.

First mortgages on real estate	$7,722,586 01
Home office property	265,000 00
Other real estate owned by the Company	647,412 83
Stocks and bonds	4,066,243 60
Premium notes and loans on policies	900,624 41
Cash in Company's office	512 08
Cash in banks	410,755 03
Interest accrued and due	154,151 63
Net deferred and outstanding premiums	241,969 62
Total	$14,409,255 21

LIABILITIES.

Reserve on policies in force, (issue of 1901, at 3 per cent)	$13,547,257 00
Claims by death, papers complete	None.
Claims by death, papers incomplete, and notified claims	37,760 00
Instalment claim liability	33,882 00
Premiums paid in advance	10,733 00
Special policy reserve	154,895 00
Surplus or additional guarantee over and above all computed and contingent liabilities	624,728 21
Total	$14,409,255 21

	1899.	1900.	1901.
Premium Receipts	$ 2,180,795	$ 2,545,547	$ 2,651,583
Insurance in Force	57,988,162	63,802,139	65,872,834

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1902.

The Week.

Senator Platt of Connecticut has removed any remaining doubt as to the securing of reciprocity with Cuba through the early action of Congress by this brief statement of his position:

"I am a protectionist, and have been so much so that I have been called a partisan. I am as strong a protectionist now as ever, but I believe that proper and reasonable tariff concessions can be made on Cuban products in return for Cuban tariff concessions on American products, which would greatly benefit the trade of both countries and not appreciably injure any American industry. I think the cause of protection is being wounded now in the house of its professed friends, and that the free-trader cannot injure the cause of protection as much as protectionists who insist upon unreasonable and unnecessary customs dues."

The significance of this declaration does not consist alone in the fact that Mr. Platt has always been a strong protectionist, and that he comes from a State whose tobacco-growers are making an earnest protest against any tariff concessions to Cuba. Mr. Platt is not only a Republican of the high-tariff school, representing what has been a high-tariff commonwealth, but he is also one of the half-dozen most influential leaders in the Senate, and in this capacity his support of Cuban reciprocity is of the first importance. Moreover, it may safely be taken for granted that Mr. Platt does not speak for himself alone as a leader in his body, but that Allison, Aldrich, Spooner, and the other men who usually control the action of the upper branch, have reached the same conclusion as to this burning issue.

The significance of Mr. Platt's statement, however, is not confined to the question of Cuban reciprocity. What he says on the broader issue of tariff revision is equally important as a sign of the times. This veteran New England protectionist sees and admits that the pending question is not simply one of doing justice to Cuba, or of promoting better trade relations between the two countries. He perceives and confesses that the whole cause of a protective tariff is involved, and that the high-tariff people who oppose concessions to Cuba are endangering the very duties upon which they depend for protection against imports from the rest of the world. The shrewd Connecticut Senator realizes, more clearly than some of the other protectionist Senators and Representatives from the East, that there is a sentiment in favor of tariff reform among the Republicans of the Middle West which cannot safely be defied. He understands that Congressman Babcock's insistence upon some reductions in the present rates is no personal eccentricity of the Wisconsin member, and that the support given to his scheme in the Ways and Means Committee by Congressman Tawney of Minnesota was not a bid for notoriety; but that these Representatives really represent their constituents in this matter, and that the people are in no mood to be trifled with.

While the Cuban medicine is working in the Committee of Ways and Means, another and larger dose of tariff reform is working in the House. The Babcock proposal to repeal or reduce the duties on steel and iron has taken a fresh start since it was offered in the Committee and failed by only one vote. Mr. Babcock now says that, if he could bring it to a vote in the House, it would pass by three to one. If this be true, or if it be true that it would pass by any majority, large or small, then the difficulty of getting it before the House is only a question of time. Chairman Payne is said to have warned Mr. Babcock that, if he did not stop his agitation, the Committee would "go up into Wisconsin and take the duty off lumber." Mr. Babcock is reported to have made a very hot reply in the committee-room. The answer he makes in an interview with the New York *Times* correspondent is as follows:

"I don't care whether he takes the duty off lumber or not. That is a threat that has no terrors for me. That won't hurt Wisconsin. The people who are going to make trouble, if the duty is taken off lumber, live in Pennsylvania and Maine, especially the hemlock people in Pennsylvania. If Mr. Payne makes that threat good, he will be hurting the East, not the West."

It will be a very cold day when Mr. Payne and the people he represents adopt the policy of retaliation on Mr. Babcock and his friends. The cause of tariff reform would be pushed forward many miles by such a falling out, and the gain that it would make would be permanent, and not fitful, as it was in 1890-94. It has often been said that the tariff ought to be reformed by its friends. There are now some signs that this saying may come true.

"Let us consider everybody damned," said the bishop to profane Lord Melbourne, "and pass on to the business in hand." So one might say to the Senate, after the promiscuous hanging which—by tongue only—was indulged in by that body on Thursday. "Let us consider everybody a traitor for whom hanging is too good, and get on to the real pith of the Philippine question." That continues to cry out for attention, no matter how skilfully Senators Hoar, Tillman, and Foraker may leave each other dangling from a metaphorical or logical gallows. It is highly indicative, however, of the changed temper of press and public that such outcries in the Senate, such frank admissions of technical treason by Senators, and such fustian as that of Foraker's about our troops never returning except "victorious," arouse no excitement. The people are, in general, languid about the whole affair. They have unmistakably grown weary of the old ranting on the subject, and have reached the "psychological moment" when a fresh and vigorous leadership in a new direction will appeal to them powerfully. This is the opportunity which President Schurman and Senator Hoar and the other advocates of justice to Filipino aspirations are seizing, and of which they are making such excellent use that the tardy *ipse dixits* of Gov. Taft are quite thrown in the shade.

Secretary Shaw's letter to Congressman Sulzer on the subject of deposits of public money in banks is an encouraging step forward in the pathway of rational finance. In reply to an inquiry from Mr. Sulzer, he says that a computation made in the Treasury Department by direction of Secretary Gage shows that, if the Government had deposited its surplus funds over and above a working balance of $30,000,000 in national-bank depositories without bond security, but requiring the payment of interest at 2 per cent. on quarterly balances, there would have been no loss; but that, on the other hand, there would have been a gain to the Government of $32,000,000, and that the banks of the country would have been enabled to extend $200,000,000 of additional accommodation to borrowers. This is on the presumption that the Government had a prior lien on all the assets of the banks. No change is required in the existing law in this particular. The Government's prior lien on the assets of failed banks has always been a feature of the national bank system. Now Secretary Shaw endorses the principle of depositing surplus money in the banks at interest without bond security. His predecessor, Mr. Gage, had never gone so far in his public deliverances, but it was known that privately he favored this policy, and it is quite clear that he paved the way for the step which Secretary Shaw has taken.

It is safe to say that public opinion will sustain the proposed measure, and that the only disputes likely to arise will be in reference to details. A bill introduced by Congressman Pugsley of New York provides that the Secretary may in

his discretion deposit with national banks having a capital of not less than $100,000, and a surplus of a like amount, such portion of the surplus funds in excess of $30,000,000 as may from time to time be in the Treasury. These deposits may be made without requiring United States bonds as security, but shall not exceed to any one bank 50 per cent. of the combined capital and surplus of the bank in which the funds are so deposited. It is contended by some authorities of high rank that no money should be deposited on these conditions in banks having a less capital than $500,000 and a surplus of like amount. This contention rests upon the belief that the small banks are more liable to become insolvent than the large ones. If this were a fact, it would not be a conclusive argument in favor of drawing the line at the figures named. It would still be necessary to show that the Government, with its prior lien on assets, would incur loss by such failure—which is a quite different proposition. It is not true, however, that small banks are proportionately more liable to failure than large ones. The statistics of the national bank system show that the proportion is about the same above and below the $100,000 line.

The report of the Industrial Commission has not yet reached the public, but a synopsis of its recommendations has been put on the wires from Washington. Among other things which the Commission proposes is an annual franchise tax to be imposed by the Federal Government upon all State corporations engaged in interstate commerce, calculated upon the gross earnings of each corporation from its interstate business. The minimum rate of such tax is to be low, but the rate is to increase gradually with the earnings. Accompanying this is a recommendation for a bureau of publicity in the Treasury Department, the duties of which shall be to register all State corporations engaged in interstate or foreign commerce; to secure from such corporations all reports needed to enable the Government to levy a franchise tax with certainty and justice, and to collect the same; to inspect the business and accounts of such corporations, and to ascertain whether the corporations are following the law; to enforce penalties against delinquents, and to collate and publish information for Congress. These recommendations, if carried into effect, will put the Trusts and combines under the same kind of inspection as the railroads are now subjected to by the Interstate Commerce Commission. An additional suggestion is made that another commission be appointed to inquire into the practice of some protected manufacturers of selling their goods at lower prices abroad than at home, and to report what concessions and duties may be made without endangering wages and employment at home. Considering the amount of testimony taken on this very subject by the Industrial Commission itself, and the amount of time consumed by it, great surprise will be felt that it has not made up its own mind, instead of referring the matter to another body which, if appointed and clothed with the necessary authority, may take two or three years more to reach a conclusion. The public mind is ripe for considering this subject now.

In default of any recommendation concerning tariff-protected Trusts, Mr. Phillips of Pennsylvania, an ex-member of Congress, and a member of the Commission, makes a minority report that has some spirit in it. He scouts the idea of turning this question over to another commission, and recommends that the tariff on metals be at once removed or greatly reduced, as provided in the Babcock bill, and that the same principle be applied to ores, wood pulp, spruce logs, and other raw materials which are in limited supply, and therefore subject to monopoly. The duty on iron ore, for example, is 40 cents per ton, and more than 80 per cent. of the ore beds of Lake Superior are already monopolized by the Steel Trust. It is impossible to suppose that Congress needs any more information than it already possesses in order to legislate on this subject. The recommendation to adjourn the question till another commission can be organized and can take testimony and make a report, can have no other effect than to prolong the present conditions. Mr. Phillips gives us some new and important information respecting railroad discrimination in favor of large shippers, showing how the small producer is crushed, not by the superior facilities of the large one, but by unjust and unlawful rebates on transportation given to the latter. These rebates are still given to the Standard Oil Company, as of old. Specific instances are cited which show that individual refiners are entirely excluded from large sections of the country by preferences given to the Standard Company by railroads, and that the officers of the roads, when questioned on the subject, lied about it in the most brazen way.

That was an extremely illuminating picture of the inside condition of the noble Republican party of Brooklyn which was drawn by the witnesses in the Guden hearing before the Governor at Albany on January 28. A Sheriff who bargained away all his receipts above $12,000 and all the offices at his disposal, and then repented of his bargain and tried to sneak out of it; a boss who demanded and secured the right to name the candidate for Sheriff after only one or two feeble protests, and then dictated terms to his creatures; an under-sheriff who tried to bribe a confidential secretary to betray her employer—these were some of the most interesting figures of the day. One witness testified that he had demanded at least three offices for himself, although only a member of the County Committee, and had indignantly spurned the offer of the chief clerkship. The virtuous under-sheriff, it seems, tried to plunder Mr. Dady's safe, and told his superior that he would like to wring the shrieval neck. The worthy and right honorable Sheriff would seem to have played fast and loose with everybody. If any one ever had any doubts about the standing and character of the Brooklyn Republican organization under the leadership of Woodruff, Worth, and Dady, he must be relieved of them now. Its own members have stamped it as being on a par with Tammany Hall in the character of its leaders, in its aims, and in its conduct in office.

An admirable feature of our revised charter is the provision which allows the head of any administrative department to occupy a seat in the Board of Aldermen, and authorizes him to participate in its discussions; and which also requires him to answer all questions put to him by any member relating to the affairs of his department, provided he has received forty-eight hours' notice of the questions to be put. The new system received its first illustration on January 28, when the Street-Cleaning Commissioner appeared at the regular meeting, and explained to the Aldermen the condition of that department and the urgency of its needs. The whole situation was thus at once made plain in a way which would have been impossible if the Commissioner had not been able to plead his own cause. So far as we can recall, this is the first time that the principle of giving department heads the right to speak in a legislative body has been applied in this country, and the workings of the new system will be watched with great interest.

First it was the Coroner's jury which found the New York Central guilty in the matter of the tunnel disaster. Now the State Board of Railroad Commissioners, after careful investigation, declares the Company to have been guilty of gross negligence. The next step will be the action of the grand jury, which may be expected to go a step further and fix the responsibility upon some of the officials. Should these again escape with mere censure, the offence of criminal negligence should be removed from the State's statute-book. Although some experts do not think the tunnel signals up-to-date, the Commissioners pronounce them of the best. There will be no dissent from the various common-

sense recommendations of the Commission, that the blocks should be increased in size, the signals raised to the level of the engine-cab windows, the use of anthracite coal enforced, and the station-yard immediately improved and enlarged. The Commission recognizes the impossibility of making the tunnel an open cut, which would best solve the trouble, but sees no difficulty in operating the tunnel with electricity, and recommends that the railroad be authorized by the Legislature to change its motive power. In every respect the report is judicial in tone, well within the facts, and a credit to the Commission.

The recent request of the Fine Arts Federation to the Mayor for the appointment of a commission to regulate the laying out of the city under a comprehensive plan, needs only to be understood to be favorably received. At present the borough system makes such a plan difficult, but the centralization of this power, through an amendment to the charter, should be easily obtained. The Fine Arts Federation appeals for a better and more intelligent planning of the newer parts of the city. The older part, says Mr. F. S. Lamb, the well-known architect, in an interview, can never be thoroughly done over, but the city can and should do something in providing new squares, and in supervising carefully the designs for the many bridges which must eventually span the Hudson and the East River. Private enterprise, too, can do much to relieve the situation. Property-owners far-sighted enough to combine to make a new Gramercy Park would probably realize upon their investment. The long blocks might be broken by north and south streets, like Astor Court. The suggestion that private initiative may in part remedy the early mistakes of the city government, and do so at a profit, is both novel and interesting.

Professionalism in the larger Eastern colleges is at an end with the action of Columbia in replacing a paid football coach with the captain of last year's team. This change confirms a movement of several years' growth. The more thoughtful graduates and the advisory athletic committees have long contended that college teams should be coached only by amateurs, and preferably by graduates of the college. It is no reflection upon the whole class of college players who have taken up paid coaching to say that these professionals have often made a mystery of their trade where mystery was none; have countenanced questionable methods of making up a team and of play, being naturally more desirous of proving their own competence by a victory than of maintaining the traditions of gentlemanly sport. Some or all of these evils must necessarily follow professional coaching. One need not argue that nobody is so likely as an alumnus and an old player to cherish scrupulously the honorable traditions of a college. It is this sense of representing the college in sport, and of being bound by all the obligations of gentlemen and sportsmen, that is more than winning championships. Columbia is to be congratulated on ranging herself with this sentiment, and it is to be hoped that the smaller colleges, where professional coaching is still common, will generally follow this lead.

Declined with thanks, was precisely the answer which Lord Lansdowne should have given to the Dutch peace proposals, and he made this response with every expression of good will to the Dutch Government and of humane intentions, both to the Boers in the field and to their delegates in Holland. The incident could have had no other ending. Premier Kuyper had absolutely no authority to speak, either for the Boer guerrillas or even for the representatives of the Boer republics in Europe. The British Foreign Office could not possibly have dealt with him on those terms. Lord Lansdowne was right, too, in maintaining that no binding negotiations are possible now except in South Africa. Botha and De Wet are to be reckoned with, and the rest count for next to nothing. Lord Lansdowne, however, expressed his willingness to hear the Boer delegates, and generally his note might have pleased Lord Rosebery for a certain "passive" peaceableness of tone. Technically, the Dutch are left in the awkward situation of an intermediary who is discovered to have no principal; but practically one must feel that matters look somewhat better for peace in the near future. All will concur in the hope of certain English journals, that subsequent peace negotiations may be conducted through the Foreign Office rather than through the Colonial Secretary.

Kitchener's block-house system had its crucial test last week, and partially failed. After manœuvring for many months, he had De Wet's command fairly caught between three lines of block-houses and an armed cordon holding a line forty miles long. It was precisely the advantage, in view of which the block-house system was established, and theoretically Kitchener, who directed the operations in person, had only to advance the mobile side of his square until he had the Boer leader caught between his fire and that of the block-house line. It was a well-matured plan, which appears to have been executed faultlessly except in the main article of bagging De Wet. The fault here was apparently not Kitchener's; the meshes of his net were too large, and the Boers slipped through with considerable loss, to be sure, into the new and larger block-house quadrangle between Winburg and Lindley. The failure of the campaign shows that, while the block-house lines are an embarrassment to the enemy, they are not strong or closely built enough to prevent the passage of small bodies of Boers. Nor is there any likelihood that England will give Kitchener men enough to make these lines impassable. Short of that, it will take many months or some piece of extraordinary good luck to catch any of the Boer leaders, and the dispersion of the enemy into smaller commandoes will probably only exacerbate the guerrilla phase of the war.

It is impossible from the dispatches to measure the extent of the English army scandals. One would suppose that the devoted British officer had been effectively "brayed in a mortar." The remounts revelations show that that drastic process is, as King Solomon observed, in certain cases unavailing. The food-contracts scandal is of far uglier aspect. In a word, the contracts for provisioning the army were sublet many times, and always at a profit, until they reached the sphere of commercial influence of Mr. Cecil Rhodes. Even the ultra-Tory *Saturday Review* admits that the Government has been swindled atrociously, and the British taxpayer, who is fairly used to attacks upon his pride, will resent with double bitterness this attack upon his pocket. It is edifying to imagine the tirade upon the corruption of vulgar republics which would have enlivened the *Saturday Review* if the food-contract scandals had been not British, but American.

That colonial expansion and trade expansion are by no means convertible terms was strikingly shown on Friday in the Reichstag by Herr Richter, the Radical leader. He proved from official statistics that there are but 3,762 Germans, including officials and missionaries, in the colonies; that each colonist costs the Empire 6,000 marks a year; that if colonial trade has more than doubled (from 11,000,000 to 25,000,000 marks) in the past five years, during the same period colonial expenditure has nearly trebled (from 7,000,000 to 19,000,000 marks); finally, that the apparent increase in exports to the colonies was chiefly due to Government and military supplies—quite as the case was found to be in the Philippines—and so was actually a charge upon the home country. When it is remembered that in these same five years Germany has confirmed her standing as one of the greatest exporting Powers, the "trade follows the flag" axiom, which had already begun to bear a damaged look, will need no further refutation.

CUTTING THE PHILIPPINE KNOT.

We have now entered on the fourth year since, by ratifying the treaty with Spain, the United States acquired a bloody war in the Philippines, and apparently embarked on a permanent career of conquest and empire. But at no time within the three years have the signs been so clear as to-day that the country is about to pause in that mad course, to listen again to the older voices which have given us our national watchwords and marching orders, and to turn back, all in good time, to the path from which, in an evil day, it unwittingly wandered. That promise is now bright in the sky for those who have watched steadfastly for its rising, without bating jot of heart or hope. They may now be more confident than ever that the nation of their love and pride will not be compelled, by stupid persistence in a mistaken policy in the Philippines, to

> ——"drain the bitter dregs of woe
> Which ever from the oppressed to the oppressors flow."

"The Americans," said an English newspaper recently, in disgust at what it thought the unmanly whining of certain Englishmen about the war in South Africa—"the Americans have been fighting a guerrilla war in the Philippines for three years, but they are not saying anything about it." Oh, but they are! They are, in fact, saying more about it just now than for a long time past. That is the most hopeful element in the present situation. Free discussion has reasserted itself; and all that liberty and justice ever asked is an open debate before open minds. The former terrorism which would impose silence on freemen in America, lest their speech should make freedom seem to men in the Philippines a thing better worth struggling and dying for—that folly is overpast. Representatives speak their minds without rebuke. Senator Money snubs Senator Beveridge to the delight of the galleries. The Opposition Senators have formulated a deliberate policy looking to ultimate withdrawal from the Philippines—and no one wants them hung for treason. We have recovered the right of free speech on that subject, and it is being freely exercised. That is one of our enormous gains, after three years of a war about which, it was said, no patriotic American would lisp.

Another great gain is the final discrediting of the leaders who induced Congress to take the mad Philippine plunge. Their prophecies are so ludicrously falsified that it would be cruel even to recall them. Their expectations have fallen to the ground. Their golden phrases have turned to ashes in their mouths. "Gems and glories of the tropic seas," was President McKinley's grandiloquent description of the islands. From that to President Roosevelt's blunt characterization of them as "a great burden," is a long distance. It is the distance between the cocksure elation of 1899 and the universal disappointment of 1902. Not even Beveridge, not even—to go to a lower depth of silliness—not even Secretary Wilson, would dare to repeat to-day their first glowing predictions of the wealth which was to flow to us from the Philippines. No one now denies that we have already flung away millions there which will never yield us a return. The only question to-day is, not how to get our money back, but how to get our honor back.

We cannot do it, clearly, by further accepting the leadership of the men who have to acknowledge that their policy has been one long series of calamitous mistakes and forecasts brought to naught. "Yes, it is true," say in effect Lodge and Beveridge and Foraker and the others, "the thing has not worked as we thought it would. The ratification of the treaty, the sending of more troops, the dispatch of the first Philippine Commission, the recall of Gen. Otis, the supersession of Gen. MacArthur, the giving the chief command to Gen. Chaffee, the appointment of Gov. Taft, the capture of Aguinaldo—none of these things, we admit, has resulted as we confidently hoped and positively predicted. But"—and this is the amazing, the illogical inference they draw—"our policy is the right one, and if you only keep on trusting us, after all our blunders, we shall surely, take our word for it, bring you out right in the end." This is new and strange doctrine. The American way has been to change a policy which has proved itself a failure, not to stick to it doggedly and count upon "floundering through somehow." Our people are not in the habit of letting themselves be twice led into the ditch by blind leaders of the blind; and we do not think they mean to begin it now.

There is an old English saying, "They have tied a knot with their tongue which they cannot unloose with their teeth." It aptly describes the plight of the framers of our Philippine policy. The knot has got to be cut, and there is just one way to do it. An official proclamation by the President of the United States, authorized by Congress, assuring the Filipinos that we intend to acknowledge their independence, and leave them to work out their own destinies, would at once insure peace with honor throughout the archipelago. About this we discern a strange hesitancy in many minds. Gov. Taft, for example, speaks of independence as a thing to be contemplated possibly, but not to be mentioned now. Others whisper independence, but say it must not be spoken in audible tones. But why not? Apparently because if we openly say "independence," it will make the Filipinos, whom we wish to see independent, desire to be independent! We cannot understand this. If our goal is independence, why not say so, and boldly walk towards it? It is said that we must first stamp out the insurrection and establish a stable native government. But how if a solemn official promise were the surest way to cause all arms to be grounded and the experiment of self-government most speedily undertaken? There we have the new policy which may be hopefully tried in place of the decrepit and discredited old one. In the one phrase, ultimate independence and ultimate withdrawal, we have the true sword wherewith to cut the Philippine knot. Where one man thought so and said so a year ago, a hundred are saying so to-day. It is only a question of time when the President of the United States will join the President of Cornell University in announcing his conversion to this view, and all the people will say, "Amen!"

THE PHILIPPINE INQUIRY.

Gov. Taft's testimony before the Senate Committee on the Philippines is alone enough to justify Senator Hoar's persistence in demanding a special inquiry into the conduct of the war in the Philippines. He is only the civilian Governor, obviously not in direct touch with the military situation in all parts of the archipelago, yet he has to admit that some of the ugliest stories about barbarities practised by American troops are true. There have been, he stated, cases of "unnecessary killing" (polite official phrase for murder), some cases of whipping and of the use of the "water cure" (that is, torture). Of course, he added, such things had been done against orders. They always are. The Spanish generals never put these things into orders—that was neither necessary nor convenient. And if the horrified army officers who have privately told Senator Hoar and others of the cruelties and atrocities committed in the Philippines in the American name—if they could go before the Senate Committee and state what they know, we do not doubt that we should get tales more grewsome in their particulars than anything known to Gov. Taft.

By his evidence alone, however, is now established what has been indignantly branded as a baseless calumny. An interesting correspondence between Senator Lodge and a Boston clergyman, the Rev. Charles F. Dole, was made public the other day. His clerical constituent wanted to know why the Massachusetts Senator opposed an inquiry into the Philippine matter, if for no other purpose than to set at rest the minds of those who feared that "cruel things are being done in those islands under the shadow of our flag." In reply, Mr. Lodge protested that he was not antagonizing an investigation, but declared that he was "slow to be-

lieve the rumors and tales" which, he said, he was "told" were circulated about men wearing the uniform of the United States. "I certainly shall not believe such charges without proof," he said. Well, we suppose he must consider the admissions of the highest civil officer in the Philippines to be proof. This being so, can he wonder that the Rev. Mr. Dole should say that "the conscience of our people is uneasy" about matters in the Philippines?

What will not let our conscience sleep is not merely the fact that we are at war, nor that the war is a lustreless and ignoble one; but that we are caught doing the very things which led us to go to war in solemn protest and in the name of an outraged humanity. When it was the Spaniards who were guilty of "unnecessary killing" (in Gov. Taft's elegant words) and of torture and of reconcentration, in Cuba and in the Philippines, we did not fall back on the cold philosophic comfort that "war is inherently a cruel thing"; that it is necessary to be "severe," and that, the more truculently we make war, the sooner will the enemy ask for peace. No, those salves we prudently reserved for our own conscience. The Spaniards we denounced to high heaven as monsters without excuse. Our war against them was to be a "holy" war; and it was as champions of religion and the tenderest humanity that we unfurled our banners, only to find that we were soon to allow, or at least to apologize for, in ourselves the things we had fiercely condemned in others. This is the moral tragedy of our Philippine war.

For the rest, Gov. Taft's testimony is a fine example of that official optimism on the husks of which we have been fed for three long years. When asked how his statements about the temper of the Filipino people could be reconciled with Gen. Chaffee's and Gen. Bell's, he could only shrug his shoulders and say that he looked at matters "from a different point of view." But which point of view is more apt to be correct—that of a civil governor, immersed in business and drawing his information mainly from natives in his pay, or that of a military governor, getting almost daily reports from his subordinates in all parts of the archipelago? However that may be, Gov. Taft's urging of a policy of the utmost "severity" against the Filipinos still in arms is likely to have a very bad effect, both in the Philippines and at home. It will be strange indeed if it does not lead in the islands to more of those cruelties which the hot-blooded soldier, not under the eye of an officer, will think are just the thing to employ against people who, Gov. Taft says, have "worn out their right" to lenient treatment and are committing a "crime against civilization." This, by the way, is a strange definition of crime to come from an American judge. A struggle for independence against enormous and apparently hopeless odds has been differently described by earlier American authorities. But we have changed all that, as we have also, in going over with Gov. Taft to the notion that a passion for liberty can be strangled by "severity," forgotten our other historic maxims. It is a problem of statesmanship, not of bloody war, which confronts us in the Philippines, and to the statesman, as John Bright said, "force is no remedy."

WHAT IS OUR "COMMERCIAL STRATEGY"?

The rambling report of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, urging the ratification of the treaty for the purchase of the Danish West Indies, speaks of the islands as "of great importance in a strategic way, whether the strategy be military or commercial." As for the military strategy involved in the proposed acquisition, everybody knows that it is the creation of our high naval theorists at Washington, who spend their time over a kind of transcendental *Kriegsspiel*, planning all sorts of likely and unlikely, possible and impossible attacks and defences. They are the chief advocates of the addition of St. Thomas to the other undigested lumps of empire now lying heavy on the national stomach, and but for them the appetite of the Senate, grown a little queasy as respects islands, would not be eager to swallow the Danish morsels. All this metaphysical strategy of the navy we must, of course, leave to the adepts in that recondite art; but what is meant by the "commercial strategy" of the Senate report? What do our Jominis of commerce refer to when they speak of our having a commercial plan of campaign at all?

If we have such a thing, it must be illustrated in our present attitude towards trade. No change is intended. We are to display our "strategy" in the Danish Islands just as we have done in the Philippines, just as we are doing in Cuba. That is, if St. Thomas and St. Croix have anything to sell, we shall do our best to prevent them from disposing of it, and shall set ourselves skilfully to the task of so impoverishing their inhabitants that they will be unable to buy anything of us. That, according to Gov. Taft, is the net result of our commercial tactics in the Philippines; that, as Col. Bliss testified, and as every wind that blows from Cuba tells us, is the able strategy which we have employed in that island. Thus we begin to see what the nature and aim of our commercial strategy really are. As those battles are considered the most subtly planned which result in the greatest possible victory with the least possible loss of life, so we plume ourselves on the exceeding slyness of our commercial methods, which enable us to keep imports and exports at the lowest possible figure. In other words, our commercial strategy consists, so far as our present laws and policies are able to determine it, in discouraging commerce.

Turning from the islands which we control to the great markets of Europe, we perceive that our strategy is directed to the closing of the doors which are now partly open to us there. Strategy in commerce must be like that of war in at least this respect, that it aims to divine the intentions of the enemy and to frustrate them. But ours we brag about most when it plays right into the enemy's hand. Our greatest existing commercial enemies in Europe are the Agrarians of Germany and the high protectionists of Austria and France. What they are hoping we will do is to reject all reciprocal trade arrangements, and keep our tariff rates on their goods at prohibitory figures. That will aid them in their plans for retaliation and for a complete shutting out of our exports. Mr. Vanderlip's article in *Scribner's* forcibly points out this peril, particularly in the case of Austria. Yet our profound trade policy, of which the Senate report speaks, is nicely calculated to do precisely what our opponents desire—to provoke hostile legislation and reduce our sales. This may be strategy, but it looks uncommonly like folly. We are falling into the same old stupid blunders which ruined the Dutch-English trade at the time when Canning wrote his celebrated poetical dispatch:

> "In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
> Is giving too little and asking too much;
> With equal advantage the French are content,
> So we'll clap on Dutch bottoms at twenty-per cent.
> Twenty per cent.
> Twenty per cent.
> *Nous frapperons* Falk with twenty per cent."

Our strategic cleverness in international commerce is strikingly illustrated by current events. Demand has outrun production in some lines of steel manufacture. Several of our railways are in urgent need of steel rails, but cannot get them made at home, and are seriously thinking of placing orders abroad. But our strategy has placed in the way a tariff of seven-twentieths of one cent a pound. That shows how smart we are. Yet at the same time, as the latest instalment of the report of the Industrial Commission shows again, "some of our exporters [notably steel-rail manufacturers, *teste* Mr. Schwab] make lower prices abroad than at home." This seems to us a new proof of our astuteness in trade, yet the Commission speaks of it as an abuse which Congress should investigate and correct. It also recommends that "tariff modifications" be made, along with "reciprocal legislation or arrangements," to take advantage of our "commercial opportunities." But commercial strategy, we should think the Commission would know by this time, looks to making the least possible of our commercial oppor-

tunities. It cannot nullify them altogether. In spite of our laws, some trade will leap over the barriers we erect. But so far as we have any strategy written in statutes, so far as we have any commercial policy dictated to and accepted by a protection-frightened Congress, they are a strategy and a policy against international trade.

It is time that the tariff Rip Van Winkles at Washington waked up. With every skilled observer like Mr. Vanderlip warning us of the imminent danger of persistence in a policy of trade exclusion, with Western Republicans growing more and more outspoken in their demands for tariff revision, the sleepwalkers in the Capitol go on towards the precipice over which they and their party and the country are in peril of falling, unless they open their eyes and retrace their steps. "Strategy" may be against their doing anything, but common sense and the obvious needs of our commerce cry out for laws and treaties to make trade instead of killing it.

IRREPRESSIBLE IRELAND.

"An Irish stew," said disgusted Admiral Field, in the great Home Rule debate of 1893, "was the first thing they offered me when I landed in San Francisco. As if I had not enough of that at home!" But the signs are thickening that the English palate must resign itself to another taste of the delectable compound. The everlasting Irish question has lately been pushing itself to the front again in British politics, and bids fair to resume something like its old place in Parliamentary debates. Lord Salisbury, in his casual manner, dropped a remark the other day about Ireland being more unanimously and bitterly hostile to English rule than ever. This was a really pathetic confession, coming from an aged statesman who had devoted so many years of his life to successive "settlements" of the Irish difficulty. Yet it was as if his prophetic spirit were brooding on things to come, for in a couple of days there followed the election in East Down, where a traditionally safe and even uncontested seat was wrested from the Government, as the first fruits of the new "land-purchase" plan of campaign.

This, as everybody knows, is the movement to which the principal impetus has been given by T. W. Russell, M. P. for South Tyrone. The surprising thing about his attitude is, as our readers know, that he was formerly a stanch Unionist, even at one time a member of the Conservative Government, and a determined opponent of the Irish Nationalists. But he became convinced that Ireland had substantial grievances. He saw that behind the political question stood the land question. Even with the abolition of the grosser forms of rack-renting, even with the new system of judicial rents, even under the Irish Local Government Act wrung from the reluctant Conservatives, Mr. Russell found that the lot of the Irish farmer was intolerable. Indeed, the Government itself almost admits as much. It is now proposing a bill to enable tenants to buy out landlords. But Mr. Russell contends that this remedy is only skin-deep; that it will prove but one more of the half-way and now discredited acts for land purchase in Ireland; and he strikes boldly for a comprehensive measure which will everywhere in Ireland replace landlordism by "occupying ownership." Details of the scheme are set forth in his book, 'Ireland and the Empire.' The thing to note with present interest is the fact that he has won his first electoral battle with the Government, even on ground most favorable to the latter, and is defiantly challenging it to a fight all along the line.

The persistent vitality of the Irish agitation was well shown in the two nights of the debate on the Address from the Throne, when the spokesmen of Ireland held the floor. It was not simply that their speeches were witty, and lit up what had been a dull scene by flashes of invective and gleams of sarcasm. It was not alone that Messrs. Redmond and Healy were more than a match, both in eloquence and logic and law, for the Attorney-General for Ireland, who intervened, with lofty official condescension, in the debate. The great fact was that these Irish orators spoke, and knew that they spoke, for a united people, a people filled with a sense of burning wrongs and animated by a determination to protest and agitate and organize until redress was won. This was really the only vivifying part of the debate. On the South African question there was no sharp division of parties, no cleavage piercing below the surface. But Irish griefs and Irish demands were pressed home upon the attention of the Commons with a force and earnestness which may be temporarily rebuffed, but cannot be permanently quenched.

It should not be supposed that no measure of justice for Ireland can be passed until the Tory Government is turned out. Lord Salisbury has, as a matter of fact, accepted legislation for Ireland more radical, in some respects, than anything Mr. Gladstone advocated. Reference has already been made to the Irish Local Government Act—a Tory law, put upon the statute-books by the very Prime Minister who, in 1885, had declared that local government would never be applied to Ireland. It was the same Salisbury who, in 1887, called Heaven to witness that neither he nor his Government would ever interfere with judicial rents, but who afterwards found that what he called "existing circumstances" compelled him to do so, despite the outcries of Irish landlords. Mr. Morley, indeed, brought out of his scrap-book an awful extract from a speech of Lord Salisbury's in 1885—nothing less than an apology for Irish boycotting; the Conservative leader being, in that year, not at all sure that he should not have to rely upon Irish votes to become Prime Minister. "Let us, after all," said he in his beautifully detached and dispassionate way, "look at boycotting. It is more like the excommunication of the Middle Ages than anything we know now. The truth about boycotting is that it depends upon the passions of the population." It is this extreme adaptability, to speak of it handsomely, of English Conservatism which lends some plausibility to the belief of Sir Charles Russell that Irish Home Rule would yet be granted by the Tory party.

"On my word," Barry O'Brien reports him as saying, "I often think that we shall get Home Rule from the Tories. Remember that the Tories gave us Catholic Emancipation. Never mind [at a gesture from me] how or why they gave it to us. They did give it. They have now given us Irish Local Government, which is the complement of Catholic Emancipation; why should they not give us Home Rule, which would only be the complement of Local Government?"

Ireland's hope is in peaceful agitation. Fenianism and the Clan-na-Gael are her enemies, and are, we believe, more and more felt to be so by the Irish leaders, in spite of the wild and whirling words which they sometimes use, by way of keeping up their spirits. And there can be little doubt that Parliament will, in the end, listen to the measured and reiterated representations of the Irish people. But they must work in the spirit of the Irish poet Ingram, quoted by Mr. Russell:

"Each nation master at its own fireside—
The claim is just, and so one day 'twill be;
But a wise race the time of fruit will bide,
Nor pluck the unripened apple from the tree."

THE INVESTIGATOR AS TEACHER.

President Eliot, in his annual report, raises the question whether the position of a professor doing full work in a university is favorable or unfavorable to original research. He recalls that recent founders of professorships have specified that the holders should be allowed "leisure enough to contribute to the advancement of learning in their several departments." Behind such a provision there clearly lies the conviction that college professors generally do not have "leisure enough" for productive scholarship. That the present conditions of academic service in America are not favorable to investigation is, in fact, the chief, if not the sole, reason for great endowments for research like the Carnegie Institute. Of such endowments President Eliot sagaciously observes that "the world has little experience of wise schemes for this purpose," and he appears to believe that college and university professors, with all their

disadvantages, are still quite as likely to be productive in research as the investigators who are free from academic trammels.

Certain drawbacks of the professorial life are, indeed, mainly imaginary. The majority of young investigators who carry their doctoral laurels to a minor instructorship consider their teaching simply a necessary evil. Classes and the innumerable details of college work seem so many obstacles to research. But it is inevitable, and most desirable, that these young men should drop from the sublimated atmosphere of the graduate school to the solid ground of ordinary serviceableness. That jolt does no harm, and often does much good. Even as specialists, most students gain distinctly by serving as teachers. It is a clarifying work. To present the main features of a subject to a class of young men or women is in some way to fix not only the methods of a specialty, but its wider relations to other specialties and to culture. This is a discipline without which the specialist remains more or less of a cave-dweller. Anything that brings him into ordinary useful human relations, short of undue encroachment upon his time, is distinctly to his benefit.

But it remains true that most of our college professors are needlessly hampered in their capacity as investigators by the quantity and conditions of their class work and by the miscellaneous administrative duties which fall to their lot. A university professor in America teaches more hours a week than his French or German colleague, and his work is of a more exacting sort. Where a Continental scholar gives from six to eight lectures a week, the American gives from ten to sixteen. In the one case the greater number of hours is filled by lectures delivered in rotation; in the other a considerable amount of drudgery is involved, such as the assigning and correction of exercises, the conducting of frequent examinations and informal tests, the keeping of elaborate records of scholarship, and even of attendance. From these things the professor at a European university is relatively free. That is, the American not only works more, but works harder than the French and German professor. The very measures taken to remedy this state of things bring almost as much work as they abolish. Promotion to be head of a department means, to be sure, a reduction of hours of teaching; but it also means the correlation of a score of courses, the appointment and supervision of associates and assistants, a new set of committees to direct and of records to keep.

Beyond the range of a professor's immediate duties, there are equally pressing claims upon those precious moments which should be consecrated to settling "*hoti's* business" and the "doctrine of the enclitic *de*." If he displays administrative capacity, the university will welcome him to a dozen working committees. Learned societies will make a bookkeeper of him, and teachers' conventions will require addresses. All of these demands, be it observed, are strictly professional, and may not be disregarded lightly. It would be easy to name more than one great investigator whose time, between departmental and general administrative duties, is fairly torn to tatters, and whose production in research is seriously diminished, both in quantity and in character.

The remedy is, obviously, to reduce the hours of instruction of the productive scholar, and to relieve him, so far as possible, of all part in general university administration. But this is easier to say than to do. First of all, it is not wholly easy to recognize the investigator who is worthy of this special exemption. The greater part even of university professors are not notable investigators, but find their largest usefulness precisely in their teaching and in their administrative activities. Next, it is frequently difficult on financial grounds to lessen the number of courses assigned to a professor; for some one else must be paid to do this work, and university budgets are notoriously in straitened circumstances. It should be, however, the duty and the pride of presidents and trustees to make just this discrimination, and to see that the great scholars, whose fame will be the prestige of the university, are not forced unduly into the mere work of administration. The governing bodies of universities, unluckily, have not much more soul than the average corporation. It is very likely that one of the most valuable functions of the Carnegie Institution will be not only to provide leisure for many an overtaxed investigator, but incidentally to stimulate both presidents and trustees to a keener appreciation of the high value of productive scholarship. Investigators generally should teach. Here we agree perfectly with President Eliot. But they should not teach as much as those who bring nothing to the university but approved civic and pedagogic capacity.

CUBA AND JAMAICA.

December, 1901.

It is only ninety miles from Cuba to Jamaica, and the smaller island resembles the larger in so many natural features that the visitor expects to find their population and their social character (allowing for the differences between English and Spanish rule) generally similar. The eastern end of Cuba is mountainous, and the mountains of Jamaica, which may be seen from Cuba in exceptionally clear weather, are of nearly the same height and covered by equally rich and beautiful forests. The climates are much the same, though that of Jamaica may be a trifle hotter. The staple products are the same. Both have relied upon the sugar-cane, and in a less degree upon tobacco and coffee, though the Cuban cigars have secured a higher place in the world's favor than those of Jamaica. Both produce excellent oranges and bananas. Both are naturally healthy countries, and may expect, now that science has shown itself certainly able to reduce, and probably able to extirpate, yellow fever, to become favorite health resorts in winter, to which visitors will flow in increasing numbers from North America and perhaps even from Europe.

Nevertheless, there are differences enough to make each seem new and strange after the other, and to give an interest to an examination of the causes of the differences. To begin with, Jamaica is by far the more densely peopled. Cuba, with an area of 36,000 square miles, has only 1,575,000 people. Jamaica, with 4,000 square miles, has nearly 700,000—that is to say, it is only about one-ninth of Cuba in size, with not much less than one-half of the population of the larger isle. Of these 700,000 only 15,000 are whites, whereas in Cuba nearly two-thirds are reckoned as whites, and little more than one-third as colored. It is true that in Cuba those who are not black are apt to be classed as whites, so that probably there is a good deal more than one-third of negro blood in the population taken as a whole. Still, even allowing for this, the African element is incomparably larger in Jamaica; and whereas thousands of Europeans are coming every year to settle in Cuba, scarcely any come to Jamaica, whose population is evidently destined to remain quite as largely a predominantly colored population as it is at this moment. Being so much more densely peopled, Jamaica is also far more fully cultivated. In the forest tracts of Cuba one finds only a stray clearing here and there, with a negro family or two dwelling in seclusion among its bananas, living on what the patch of land produces, and caring but little to carry vegetables or fruits or poultry to a town which may be many miles distant. Even in the fertile and open lowlands which cover so large a part of Cuba, great tracts lie untouched by the plough and unstocked with cattle. But in Jamaica it is only the rough and stony ground and the swamps (not very extensive) that remain unused. Among the steep ridges of the Blue Mountains, as high and as rugged as are the hills of Cuba, nearly all the available ground has been turned to account for bananas, or for coffee, or for the cultivation of vegetables by the negroes for their own use, so that there are tracks all over the slopes, and one seldom goes far without finding houses. This gives quite a different character to the landscape, and has much to do with that variety and richness which is one of the conspicuous charms of Jamaican scenery. There is perhaps less breadth of effect than in Cuba; and one feels everywhere, with the sea closing all the views from high ground, that one is in a small country. But there is great richness and finish of detail, the sense of human presence and human labor supplying an element which is frequently absent in the more ample landscapes of Cuba.

When one comes to the towns, the contrast is still more marked. Though Jamaica is less distinctively English than

Cuba is Spanish, its streets and houses witness to the presence of a very different people. Here the advantage is with Cuba. Small cities like Cienfuegos and Trinidad, Manzanillo and Santiago, are cities, neatly laid out in Spanish colonial fashion, each with several large churches, two or possibly three centuries old, each solidly built, either of stone or of bricks, covered with plaster painted in bright colors. There is always a central plaza, and probably it is planted with handsome trees and flowering shrubs, with walks, and it may be a fountain. Usually there is also an Alameda on the outskirts. The whole place has a certain air of dignity. It seems to feel itself a city, with a respectable past, even if it has no ancient buildings and if it entirely lacks the tall piles and picturesque irregularity of the towns in old Spain. There is scarce anything of this in Jamaica, for even in the ancient capital, which the Spaniards called Santiago de la Vega, and which now goes by the name of Spanish Town, not many traces remain of the once dominant race. The towns of Jamaica have much less of a city air. Kingston, which is far the largest, with a population of 46,000 (the others are little more than villages), is entirely built of brick and wood. The brick, often dilapidated, is of an ugly color, and the wooden houses have a tumble-down look. There is a general air of squalor in the meaner streets and in the poorer suburbs, while even in the business parts of the town and in the villas of the richer people little has been done for beauty. One does not see the pretty *patio* which is characteristic of the Spanish house—an internal court, with its tiny garden and, perhaps, its fountain. The English, being a severely practical people, have built their warehouses, and offices, and even their villas with a view solely to business and to comfort. They keep the streets in better order than the Cubans do, or did before the reforming energy of the United States began to work upon places like Havana and Matanzas and Santiago. They provide a better surface for the cab driver and the wheelman. But Kingston, though the style in which the houses are built, with a sort of brick veranda or piazza raised above the street, gives it a kind of picturesqueness, is rather a mean-looking town, far less attractive than such places as Santiago or Cienfuegos.

The one merit of the Jamaican town is the extreme beauty of the trees, many of them showing brilliant flowers, which line the roads that lead out of it; and this merit belongs rather to nature than to the English. Yet, it is fair to add, when one speaks of the neglected and semi-squalid air of the poorer parts of the Jamaican towns, that something is due to difference of population. These towns are, except the warehouses and stores and the few villas of the Europeans, in reality negro towns. The negro, even when tolerably well off, has no care for neatness, and lives anyhow. In Cuba the negroes are the country-folk. In Jamaica they are the townsfolk also. Whether they are, as some say, more lazy and less intelligent than their Cuban brethren may be doubted. They are somewhat better educated, for the English have taken more trouble to provide instruction for them, and the Protestant missionaries have been more active among them than the Catholic priests have been in Cuba. But they don't seem, taken all in all, to be superior to the colored people of Cuba, though they have enjoyed freedom much longer.

There is another point in which the two islands may be compared. Both are, or think themselves to be, commercially unfortunate; and in both the planters ascribe their ill-fortune to the action of other countries. Both have depended chiefly upon sugar cultivation. In Cuba and in Jamaica one hears nothing but complaints of the depressed state of cane-sugar and the impossibility of making a profit out of it. The Cubans lament the protective tariff of the United States. The Jamaicans bewail the hard-heartedness of England, which has hitherto refused to impose upon the bounty-aided beet-root sugar of Continental Europe that countervailing import duty which would—so the Jamaican planters declare—save them from ruin. In both islands foreign optimists suggest similar remedies, telling the sugar men that if they would only introduce newer machinery, they could hold their own easily against beet-root sugar, and advising the extension of orange planting, in which both islands ought to be able to compete successfully with Florida, which has frosts to fear, and with southern Europe, whose fruit is generally inferior to that of the West Indies.

Here, however, the resemblance ends. Cuba needs labor and hopes to get it in greater quantity and in far greater efficiency by the immigration of Spaniards, especially the industrious peasantry of northern Spain. Jamaica has labor enough, and must be content with the kind of labor which she has, for no Europeans will come in to work in a country already tolerably well filled by a colored population. Black she is, and black she must remain. She may no doubt improve the quality of her black workers, but that will be a slow process. Cuba, moreover, sets great hopes on the development of her internal communications by the construction of a trunk line of railway, with branches north and south, in the eastern part of the island. Jamaica has already, if not as many railways as she needs, yet more than she can afford, for the Government to which they belong makes no profit out of them, and does not think of extending them at present. Unfortunately, they have been built with too wide a gauge. Thus, Cuba can at least feed herself upon bright prospects, which have no place on the more limited horizon of Jamaica.

Neither has Jamaica any political questions before her comparable to those grave and exciting ones which Cuba is called to solve. She has had no serious internal troubles since 1865. The disturbances of that unhappy year, due to unfair treatment of the negroes by the planters, led to the withdrawal of the form of representative government which then existed. Under the present Constitution, the Assembly is rather an advisory than a truly legislative body, for the Governor can when he pleases appoint a sufficient number of nominated members to enable him to pass the measures which he, or which the Colonial Office in England, wishes to see carried. There is always some grumbling in the British Crown colonies when acts are passed by a majority of nominated members against the votes of a majority of the elected members of any legislative body, and at present the elected members of the Jamaica Legislature complain of their practical impotence. But everybody admits that a country in which some 25 per cent. of the population are of African race, and in which from 80 to 90 per cent. have neither knowledge of nor interest in political questions, is not fit for self-government under representative institutions. She must depend upon the wisdom of those who rule her despotically in a more or less paternal spirit, either direct from England or through officials sent from England. The great bulk of the people appear, so far as a visitor can judge, to be content with her present position. The negroes and the people of mixed color, who in Jamaica hold themselves rather aloof from the pure blacks, are quiet and peaceable, and, for the most part, indifferent to politics. The whites are occupied with their economic depression, and want to get more help from home for the development of their industries. The finances of the island are in a depressed state, and even the aid which the mother country has given does not enable things to be done which ought to be done.

A concluding word may be said on the attractions of the two islands to visitors. Jamaica is perhaps the more beautiful of the two, for it not only has a more luxuriant vegetation, with a profusion of flowering trees, but has shores more generally picturesque. Nothing can be imagined more charming than the line of the north coast, with romantic bays, backed by richly wooded mountains and bright, foaming streams, descending to the sea in waterfalls or from the recesses of the limestone rocks. The climate is, however, a little warmer and perhaps a little moister. As respects hotel accommodation, Jamaica has less than she ought to have or might easily have, if her people were more enterprising, yet far more than Cuba can at present offer. Outside the neighborhood of Havana, there is scarcely a hotel in Cuba to be recommended. Jamaica has, however, besides two good establishments, one in and the other quite near Kingston, a creditable hotel at Port Antonio, to which most of the steamers from the United States ply, and several places in the interior offering tolerable quarters. If these were further improved, Jamaica might become a most attractive winter resort, for the interior is in many places high, and with a climate which is, especially in the western half of the island, fresh and even bracing, while never chilly. For the beauty of skies and landscape, no praise can be too high.

OMPTEDA'S NOVELS.

BERLIN, January 22, 1902.

The list of books for the Christmas season of 1901 was enlarged by the addition of 'Cäcilie von Sarryn,' by Georg Freiherr von Ompteda. The appearance of a new novel by Ompteda has grown to be a literary event of some importance in Germany. According to the reports gathered from all parts of the country by *Das Litterarische Echo*, he was the novelist second in request in 1901, while he stood first in 1900. Of single books his 'Eysen' was the one most called for in 1900, and held the second place among all German novels in 1901. His newest book appeared presumably too late in the year to affect the final result. Two

of his principal novels are already approaching their tenth edition. In this land of many books and small sales, such figures show a comparatively large demand. The verdict of the lending-library and the book-shop is, of course, not necessarily conclusive as to literary values; but, in the case of Ompteda, popular favor has certainly not been won by sensational methods.

In the December number of *Das Litterarische Echo*, he writes briefly about the events of his life before the force of circumstances made him choose literature as his vocation. The family is of Friesian origin, and fled to Hanover to escape the persecutions of the Duke of Alva. In the new home, it rose to prominence, and played an honorable part in the history of the adopted land. Ompteda was born at Hanover on March 29, 1863. His father was the Lord Chamberlain of King George V., and voluntarily followed his master into exile after the events of 1866. The family settled in Dresden in 1872. Here young Ompteda entered upon a gymnasial course, but was afterwards transferred to a military school and became eventually an officer in the German army. He was an inattentive pupil, and his school days were by no means happy. In 1892 partial deafness, resulting from an accident, compelled his retirement from the army. Scribbling had long been the occupation of his leisure hours, and he had, indeed, issued a volume of verse, under an assumed name, as early as 1890. It was, therefore, natural that the changed circumstances of his life should transform the officer into the novelist.

Between his first book, 'Von der Lebensstrasse,' of the year 1890, and his last, 'Cäcilie von Sarryn,' of the year 1901, there is a longish list of others, almost entirely novels and short stories. It cannot be said with fairness that all are really worth reading. The list is rather long for the few years in which it has been in the making, and the author has perhaps had his difficulties in learning to use the tools of his new vocation. But he is at least never trivial. His statement that almost all that he has written was years in assuming shape in his mind before he went at the easier task of putting it on paper, may be the simple explanation of both his successes and his failures, for his weaker novels do not suffer so much from imperfections in plot and character-drawing as from bungling and inadequate expression. On the other hand, he has had his successes,which, though they may not rank among the great masterpieces, are enough to make him justly a prominent figure among German novelists of to-day.

Ompteda is at home in two places, the barracks and the city. He makes only brief excursions into village or country. What he knows best and treats best is, of course, the German officer, although not half of his heroes wear the uniform of the Kaiser. In his best military vein is 'Unser Regiment,' which appeared in 1895, and is a series of capital sketches of garrison life in a small city. The city might, indeed, as well be large as small, for it has next to nothing to do with these sketches, which depict the life of the young officer at work and at play, in the casino and on the drill-ground, on the march and by the bivouac fires during the autumn manœuvres. They are undoubtedly, in part chapters from the author's own life. Until the year 1889 he served as lieutenant with his regiment in the little Saxon city of Grossenhain.

In his 'Sylvester von Geyer' (1897) Ompteda tells the story of a representative of that large class of officers who turn to the army from a sort of instinct. For generations the men of their family have followed no other career. On innumerable battle-fields they have fought for their sovereign, and in times of peace have drilled his troops, until the habit of being an officer has passed over into the very blood of their descendants. The Geyers are such a family. The father, to be sure, was not very successful in his profession, and resigned before the birth of Sylvester, to live, as best he might, on his scanty income in Dresden. The boy was not to enter the army, but the instinct in him was too strong for all parental plans. He exchanged the gymnasium for the military school, and afterwards served as lieutenant with his regiment in Meissen. In spite of periods of discontent and of inner protest against the sometimes irksome duties in the barracks and on the drill-ground, he felt himself in his proper element, and grew steadily in all the virtues of the officer until the author saw fit to cut him off at the early age of twenty-four. Ompteda, too, passed from the gymnasium to the military school in Dresden, and knew Meissen, where the family owned a vineyard, from his childhood. Perhaps 'Sylvester von Geyer' contains more than one page of autobiography. Be that as it may, it is certainly a charming boy's book for grown-up people. It and 'Unser Regiment' are the most interesting of all of Ompteda's works for the foreigner, if not for the German.

His 'Eysen' (1900) and 'Cäcilie von Sarryn' may also be counted among his best, the latter being perhaps more satisfactory than the former in both plot and execution. 'Eysen' may be briefly described as a problem novel of to-day, seeking to answer the question, How shall the German nobility adjust itself to the conditions brought about by the upgrowth of the aristocracy of wealth? The different persons in the book who bear the name Eysen face the problem each in his own way. Some make a failure and others a success of life, but the problem remains unsolved after all.

These two novels and 'Sylvester von Geyer' are loosely united in a series under the general title of "Deutscher Adel um 1900." This title has its obvious fitness for 'Eysen,' and does well enough for 'Sylvester von Geyer,' but can have only the most superficial connection with 'Cäcilie von Sarryn.' Nothing in the novel has to do with the privileges or prejudices of the nobility as such. It is a story of pathetic self-sacrifice, which could as easily have found its heroine in any burgher family which has too much money to starve and not enough to live on. Cäcilie is the Cinderella of the family, gifted only with a strong sense of duty and an immense capacity for loving. She scarcely dares to dream of wedded happiness for herself. When it at last approaches her in the guise of a middle-aged widower, and she is for once in her life almost ready to be selfish enough to desire something for herself, a railway accident results in the death of a sister, and leaves her in charge of a family of small children. Her pathetic struggles and her triumphant success in making useful men and women of the family thus thrust upon her, are told simply and well, although with so much of detail as to become tiresome at times.

Ompteda is a keen observer of every-day life. This fact explains both his limitations and his strength. The unusual seems not to exist for him; but what he sees on the streets and in the houses of Dresden or Berlin, he describes as few others can. The reader's pulse beats no faster as he occupies himself with one of his novels. They tell of no deeds of daring nor of tender hearts broken beyond the mending. German matrons will not lose sleep over them, as Barrie's mother did when she declined to go to bed till she saw how Stevenson got the laddie out of the barrel. On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that Germany is passing through a tremendous transformation. Commerce and manufacture are coming to the front, agriculture grows yearly less important relatively. Already it is true that the army and the city *are* modern Germany, and Ompteda is at home in both.

CHARLES HARRIS.

CHURCH LEGISLATION IN ENGLAND DURING THE XIXTH CENTURY.

OXFORD, January, 1902.

In 1832 "the Church of England as by law established" appeared to be destined to all but certain destruction. It was a time of reform nearly turning into revolution, when a man as cool-headed as Macaulay believed that the House of Lords would not last for ten years longer; and of all English institutions the Church Establishment stood to all appearance on the most shaky foundations. It was undermined by two patent defects. The obvious abuses of the Church were at least as bad as the obvious abuses of the State; the Church, again, which was termed national, had for more than a century ceased to be the church of anything like the whole nation. Even an optimist who was not terrified by the revolutionary aspect of the day might, with some assurance, have predicted that the Episcopal Church would, long before the century was over, either cease to be the church of the nation, or else be so remodelled as to comprehend within its limits the whole body of English Protestants. There seemed to be no alternative to either Disestablishment or Comprehension. This reasonable forecast has been falsified by the event. The English people have, during the nineteenth century, rejected the policy alike of Disestablishment and of Comprehension. The connection between State and Church has been preserved by the singular and unforeseen system of Concession combined with Conservatism. My aim is to explain, as far as is possible within the limits of a single letter, the nature and the causes of a course of proceeding which is recorded in a series of Acts of Parliament.

The first note of English ecclesiastical legislation has been Concession. Within the twenty years that followed the Reform Act, satisfaction was given to the demand for the removal of abuses which scandalized Churchmen no less than Dissenters. The Ecclesiastical Commissioners Act, 1836, the Church Discipline Acts, and other enactments soon made pluralism and the non-residence of the clergy matters of the past. Proper management of ecclesiastical

property at once increased the resources of the Church, equalized the revenues of the bishops, and all but removed, among other abuses, the scandals connected with translation from an ill-paid to an overpaid bishopric. Practical reforms of this kind, owing to the respect paid by English law to vested interests, could not produce their whole effect at once. Still, they worked with rapidity. The Establishment of 1850 was the Establishment of to-day and not the Establishment of 1800. Abuses which, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, had not excited the attention even of religious men, had, by the middle of the century, become intolerable even to men of the world. When we remember that reform began practically only about 1836, the legal and moral effect produced by legislation of fourteen years may amaze the historian of law and opinion.

Concession, again, was made to the demand for the removal of any practical grievance whatever which was not absolutely involved in the maintenance of the Established Church. Dissenters and (to anticipate the phraseology of to-day) Agnostics detested the law which required that every marriage should be celebrated in accordance with the rites of the Church of England. The Marriage Act, 1836, permitted marriage in a Dissenting chapel in accordance with the forms used by a congregation of Dissenters, and created a form of civil marriage for the benefit of any one who deprecated the use of any religious ceremony. The Universities, which had been, in effect, institutions for the education of members of the Church of England and particularly of clergymen, were, step by step, opened to Dissenters, and at last (1878) made something like places of national education. The demand, to take another example, for divorce, which was theoretically denied to every one, but in practice was granted by Act of Parliament to the rich, was in 1857 satisfied by the creation of the Divorce Court.

These, of course, are merely examples of the general trend of legislation. Let a student go back beyond the date of the great Reform Act, and consider the effect of the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, 1828, and of the Catholic Relief Act, 1829. He will then see that, from the very commencement of the era of reform, Parliament has, for seventy years at least, in matters affecting the Church, made a continuous series of concessions to the demands of any class strong enough to force some practical grievance on the attention of the Legislature.

Concession, however, has been constantly combined with Conservatism, which has often assumed the form of illogical compromise of principle. Not a step has been taken in the direction of Comprehension. The national Church is not, in 1901, any more than it was in 1801, the church of the whole nation. Concessions to the demands of justice or of obvious expediency have been constantly, not to say systematically, compromised or marred by deference to the principles or the sentiments of Churchmen or of the clergy. The line of Marriage Acts which were intended to remove the grievances of Nonconformists or Agnostics did not entirely achieve either object. They did not, till recently, place a marriage celebrated in a dissenting chapel in the same position as a marriage celebrated in a parish church; and when, two years before the close of the nineteenth century, this more or less sentimental grievance was removed, the result was achieved in a way opposed to public interest, namely, by allowing the absence of a Registrar from any marriage celebrated either in a church or in a chapel. And the law which instituted an optional form of civil marriage has not as yet made the civil ceremony, with which alone the State is concerned, compulsory. Parliament, again, has, as it would generally be asserted, abolished church rates; it has, in fact, simply abolished the compulsory payment of church rates, but has saved the dignity and consulted the interest of the clergy by allowing a church rate to be imposed while abolishing the power of exacting the payment thereof. Parliament, to give a last example, has, in the face of clerical opposition, legalized divorce, but, with a want of logical consistency which may lead to very bad practical results, has allowed a clergyman of the Church of England, and therefore an official of the national Church, to refuse to celebrate the marriage of parties either of whom has been divorced from a husband or wife still living—with the result that the clergyman is allowed to treat the morality of the State of which he is an official as opposed to the morality of the Church of which he is a minister.

This system of Compromise, combined with Conservatism, has achieved a singular success, of which every critic must estimate the worth or the worthlessness in accordance with his own religious convictions. The Anglican Establishment is in 1901 more popular and more influential than in 1801. Disestablishment has been avoided, not a single doctrinal concession has been made to Dissenters; the position of the Church has rather been shifted than essentially changed.

What have been the circumstances which have made possible this strange though more or less successful policy? The answer lies in the study of public opinion, and may be summed, though I fear scarcely explained, in a few sentences. At the era of reform the Church was not really unpopular. It still possessed great influence, as was amply proved by the political annals of the years immediately following the Reform Act of 1832. The reformers of the day, whether Whigs or Benthamites, were assuredly not ardent Churchmen. The Whigs looked very coolly on the clergy, who as a body were Tories, and regarded religious enthusiasm of any kind as a dangerous sentiment, closely allied with intolerance. The Benthamites, some of whom were really Agnostics and might have been called without gross unfairness Atheists, looked with no sympathy on any kind of religious Establishment. But neither Whigs nor Benthamites had, by the time when they began to direct Parliamentary legislation, elaborated any scheme of church reform. One celebrated disciple of Bentham's did, it is true, put forward proposals which he thought might give some utility to the Establishment: James Mill propounded a scheme which, considering his character, one cannot suppose to have been advanced as a joke, for converting the Church of England into an institution for the propagation of utilitarianism, and the practical cultivation of the virtues which, according to the philosophy of Bentham, were best calculated to promote the happiness of mankind. To a modern reader this plan of reform—drawn up, by the way, very nearly at the date (1834) from which Church historians date the rise of the High Church movement—proves only that a philosopher of great mental power and, from some points of view, of strong common sense may totally misunderstand the condition of the society which he proposes to reform. Neither Whigs, therefore, nor Radicals were in 1832, or, indeed, at any time, prepared to reform the Church. All they could really do was to pursue the course which they in fact took: they removed patent abuses and abolished any privilege of the Establishment that was felt to be a pressing grievance by the classes which stood outside the boundaries of the Church. This conduct, as far as it went, was wise, but it had the unexpected though perfectly natural effect of increasing the influence because it removed the unpopularity of the Established Church.

Meanwhile, at the very moment when reformers who had conceived no scheme of Comprehension, and dared not, even if they wished, carry out any plan of Disestablishment, were in fact restoring the moral prestige of the national Church, the High Church movement, which itself was due to causes far wider than the special circumstances of the English political world, began to reinvigorate the energy of the clergy, and to create slowly but certainly a condition of sentiment utterly foreign to the Individualistic Liberalism which governed English legislation in every field of law from 1832 to say 1865. Nor has the change of political sentiment which has marked the last quarter of the nineteenth century, been otherwise than favorable to the moral influence of the Church. Here, however, it may be well for me to hold my hand, for it is not to be expected that the columns of the *Nation* should be open to long disquisitions on the connection between the changes in English law and the changes in English public opinion. My aim will have been attained if I can impress upon your readers the peculiarity of the course of modern ecclesiastical legislation in England, and suggest the conclusion that it is due to the general current of English opinion during the nineteenth century, taken in combination with the cross-current of opinion or of feeling of which the High Church movement has been the visible sign.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

THE COMMON LAW FOR THE PHILIPPINES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of Philippine legislation, I had always supposed that, in attempting to govern the islands, we should administer justice according to the forms which have obtained there ever since the people were introduced to European civilization. The civil law and the common law are systems so entirely different and distinct that I did not for a moment suppose that any of us, even the most enthusiastic, would seriously entertain the idea of compelling the Filipinos to conform to our methods of pro-

cedure. You may imagine my surprise and consternation, therefore, when I glanced over the pages of the Philippine Code of Procedure (Pub. Laws & Res. U. S. Phil. Com., 1901, No. 190), and find but little less than an attempt to foist a common-law practice upon a civil-law community—and this before we have fairly taken possession of their country, and before the people of those unfortunate islands have become familiar with our tongue; much less, therefore, with our jurisprudence. I wish you thought it worth your while to devote a few remarks to this phase of the Commission's legislation.

Very truly yours, LOUIS L. HAMMON.

MINNEAPOLIS, February 2, 1902.

AN ART-FOR-SCHOOLS ALLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the altruistic movements of the day there are two of much prominence which, growing up side by side, have done so irrespectively of each other, though they ought to be allied. These are the Municipal-Art—the effort to bring more beauty into cities and towns—and the Art-for-Schools. As yet the latter depends on private initiative and energy. Pictures are contributed by individuals and by organizations within and without the school—by teachers, classes, parents, by men and women acting through public spirit, by clubs which raise popular funds for the purpose, or, finding the object sufficiently in line with their own desires, contribute to it out of the club fund. To the latter group of donors the Municipal Art Societies and Village Improvement Associations should belong. For is not the purpose of the Art-for-Schools movement the education of the child in the knowledge of true beauty and the cultivation of his love for it? Is it not to train a generation which shall know and love beauty, to develop a public taste that shall make beauty law in home and street and city? What permanence for its results can city improvement expect or hope, if it have not such a public to appreciate and defend from spoliation its hard-earned victories? In so far, then, as the movement for civic æsthetics looks into the future, its cause and that of the effort to bring art into the schools are the same. Each would educate the child in culture—the one acting for the child's sake primarily, the other for the anticipated result upon the community.

The Improvement Society, in loyalty to itself, may even seek specifically its own ends while aiding the Art-for-Schools endeavor. Suppose, in the case of the high school, it confine its contributions to Municipal Art subjects, either scattering these pictures through the different rooms and halls of the school, or taking charge of a corridor and devoting it to a suggestive, logical, scientifically arranged, and locally pertinent exhibit. Pictures that properly belong to this subject—including, as they must, examples of monumental sculpture and architecture—are found in all the lists of "pictures appropriate for school decoration." The plan, therefore, would not mean the introduction of a new subject, but the more certain provision of the very pictures which are wanted, and then the increase of their efficiency and value by grouping, if desired, and inevitably by the child's perception of their local application merely through connecting their presence in the school with the donors' obvious ulterior object.

So long is the list of appropriate pictures, with plazas, *piazzas*, and bridges, with civic sculpture, with water-front and street scenes, with religious and Government buildings and mural paintings, that one is tempted to take up the fascinating task of going through the catalogues to prepare a special city-improvement list. It would deserve to find a ready demand if attention were given not merely to the titles but to their order of sequence. But at best such a list, if general, could be only suggestive. The collection, to attain the greatest value, would require local appropriateness. Suppose a river, bisecting the town, gives to it a conspicuous water-front which in the past has been neglected. Clearly, the Town Improvement Society in selecting a list of pictures for presentation—we will say to the high school, where a main corridor has been set apart for it—will do well to choose several views showing successful water-front treatment. These can vary from the elaborate Thames Embankment or the formal and costly quays and bridges of Paris to waterside parks, as the Lakefront at Chicago; to playgrounds, as Charlesbank, Boston; to drives, as the Speedway in New York or the Shore Drive in Chicago; or to the quiet walks at the edge of Amsterdam's placid canals. These pictures would not form the whole of the exhibit, but a conspicuous and suggestive portion of it; and if the subtle influence of pictures upon the mind of a child be as potent as is claimed, there would grow up a generation that would not be satisfied with the continued neglect of the town's river-front.

What is done to point out this opportunity might be done as well for the other local problems—for a dominating hill, for the intersection of important diagonal thoroughfares, for the grouping of public buildings, for the treatment of parks, squares, or playgrounds. And if the town itself have something good in the way of civic art, this should be emphasized and given a place among the other examples gathered from all the world, its comparison and classification made unmistakable. Thus, with the cultivation of municipal ideals, with education, there will grow up in the child an intelligent civic pride. If the town does not have something good in the way of civic art, its shameful lack should be as plainly pointed out.

There is one other thought in this connection. The Art-for-Schools movement is now dependent almost wholly upon voluntary contributions for support and extension. Some of its friends, indeed, look forward to a day when the decoration of the schoolrooms with photographs of artistic objects will be held to be as strictly the duty of the municipality as the tinting of the walls is now coming to be and as the provision of desks has been. May not that result, or at least its attainment in part, be hastened if the Municipal Art value of the movement be pointed out? For then city or town may frankly ask itself whether, maintaining its own the municipal standpoint, it may not properly include this among its other efforts for the advancement of the community—whether it be not, in fact, its duty to itself thus to teach its future citizens to love and wish for civic beauty, inspiring in their hearts a wish to make their own environment as beautiful or splendid as other cities are or have been, and to have done in its behalf what has been elsewhere done. An appropriation to be used for this phase of the Art-for-Schools movement would be an expenditure of public moneys for public art in a double sense. It would have popular approval far more quickly than would the municipality's purchase of photographs or casts of Grecian deities, its provision of animal pictures, of views of scenes in English history, of landscapes, and so on.

In the alliance of the two movements there appears to lie such certainty of benefit to each that the marvel is that they have been for so long indifferent to each other. CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON.

ROCHESTER, N. Y., February 5, 1902.

Notes.

Prof. Willard Fiske of Florence, whose American address is in care of Cornell's Librarian, has raised a modest hue-and-cry after a missing manuscript on the game of chess from the pen of the Rev. Louis Rou. In the middle of the eighteenth century Mr. Rou was pastor of the French Protestant church in this city, and his controversial treatise was, in 1859, at least temporarily in possession of the late George Henry Moore, librarian of the New York Historical Society, who lent it to Mr. Fiske. It has now been lost to view. It is a thin small quarto of twenty-four pages, and may be lurking in some private library of a descendant of Mr. Rou. Portions of the treatise were printed in 'The Book of the First American Chess Congress' in 1859.

Dodd, Mead & Co. make the important announcement of their intention to reprint from the original manuscript, verbatim, the Journals of Lewis and Clark, to be edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites, who thus "rests" from his arduous labors upon the Jesuit Relations. The late Dr. Coues had the benefit of this long-hidden manuscript for his monumental commentary on Biddle's recension of the narrative, but not till the work was well under way. Probably he would have discarded Biddle altogether had he been informed in time.

During the present month D. Appleton & Co. will bring out a new edition of 'Personal Memoirs of Philip Henry Sheridan,' by his brother, Brig.-Gen. M. V. Sheridan, extended from 1871 to the elder Sheridan's death in 1888; a new edition of the fateful third volume of Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy,' modified in accordance with the findings of the Schley inquiry; 'The Pageant and the Ceremony of the Coronation,' by Charles Eyre Pascoe; 'The Earth's Beginning,' by Sir Robert Stawell Ball; 'Practical Forestry,' by Prof. John Gifford; and a 'History of Ancient Greek Literature,' by Harold N. Fowler.

Messrs. Putnam's speedily forthcoming publications embrace a "King Edward Edition" of Traill's 'Social England,' in six volumes, with 2,500 illustrations and numerous colored plates; 'The Administration of Dependencies,' by Alpheus H. Snow; 'The Famous Families of New York,' by Margherita Arlina Hamm; 'The Banquet Book,' a classified collection of quotations, by Cuyler Reynolds; 'The Story of the Vine,'

by Edward R. Emerson; and 'Field-Book of American Wild Flowers,' by F. Schuyler Mathews.

R. H. Russell's spring announcements include 'The True Napoleon: A Cyclopædia of Events in his Life,' by Charles Josselyn, and 'The Speckled Brook Trout,' by various experts, illustrated by Louis Rhead.

The Abbey Press has in preparation 'A Tour in Mexico,' by Mrs. James Edwin Morris, and 'A Soldier's Honor, with Reminiscences of Maj.-Gen. Earl Van Dorn,' by his comrades.

Frederick Warne & Co., who have removed to No. 36 East Twenty-second Street, will shortly issue a romantic story, 'Gripped,' by Silas K. Hocking.

Stephen Phillips's poem, "Ulysses," is to be published as a separate volume by Macmillan Co. It has just been put on the stage in London.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'Reconstruction and the Constitution,' by Prof. John W. Burgess.

The Pennsylvania Society of New York's Yearbook, now in press, summarizes "the more important historical and patriotic events of the year as they relate to Pennsylvania." It will be illustrated. The editor is the Society's Secretary, Mr. Barr Ferree.

We have received from Messrs. Lippincott further volumes in the Dent series styled the "Temple Bible," to which we have already favorably directed attention. Leviticus has been edited by J. A. Paterson, D.D., who points out that "the progress of Biblical criticism, especially in recent years, has really been due to the application of the Evolution theory to the problems of Israel's development. . . . It may safely be averred that Darwin's theory has contributed as much to the progress of intelligent study in the departments both of History and of Religion, as it has to the advancement of any branch of Natural Science." The editor of Exodus is A. R. S. Kennedy, D.D., who has a section on the literary problem of the Pentateuch. The gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark have been cared for by the Dean of Ely. All these volumes are prefaced by mottoes for edification, and critical introductions, and conclude with "Biblical References in English Literature."

The defects in the natural history of the Scriptures (King James version) are touched upon incidentally in the interesting little volume on 'The Animals of the Bible,' by Gambier Bolton (London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners). Thus, the hyena is nowhere named, though it is generally agreed that Isaiah (xiii. 21) mentions this very common beast in Syria and Mesopotamia. "We must remember that many of the animals to which we shall refer were quite unknown to our English translators of the Bible in 1604." They were not, however, perhaps responsible for the coney's chewing its cud (Lev. xi., 6). The text is illustrated.

Lord Durham's Report on Canada in 1839 has long held its fame as a model of wise statesmanship, and its reprint now (Methuen & Co.) undoubtedly breathes the hope that its principles of leniency and conciliation may be applied in distracted South Africa as they were with such happy effect in Canada sixty years ago, when the High Commissioner found "two nations warring in the bosom of a single state." Indeed, no name has been oftener, in the Commons, thrown in the teeth of Chamberlain than Durham's, unless it be Burke's; and the Report is, in truth, a very arsenal of weapons against the Chamberlain policy.

In their 'Short History of England for School Use' (Macmillan) Miss Coman and Miss Kendall undertake a task beside which the preparation of a learned monograph is mere child's play. Every one will admit that it requires special talent to write a first sketch of any kind; but only those who have read one manual after another, each dryer than the last, until they think they know every modern work of this sort, can fully realize the difficulty of writing an English history for beginners. The usual fault is that the author is determined to pack too much information into his narrative. Miss Coman and Miss Kendall have succeeded better than most of their predecessors, but, if any shortcoming need be looked for, we would suggest that they have gone too far in the other direction. They are so strictly on their guard against overloading with detail that the element of fact, as opposed to dissertation, sometimes tends to appear rather light. The volume with which this may most fitly be compared is S. R. Gardiner's 'Outline of English History.' Miss Coman and Miss Kendall may claim an undoubted superiority in respect to their illustrations, their maps, and the mechanical features of their volume; but when it comes to the text, we cannot express the belief that they will drive Gardiner out of the field. As a practical textbook, however, their addition to the literature of this baffling subject is distinctly meritorious.

What are called "laboratory" methods of anthropology are illustrated in 'Experimental Sociology, Descriptive and Analytical,' by Frances A. Kellor (Macmillan). Delinquents in general are here dealt with, questioned, measured, and tested in the various ways known to physiologists and psychologists. Incidentally, some facts concerning the penal systems of the Southern States, which are of interest, are communicated. The scientific value of such investigations was clearly determined by Mill, in his 'Logic,' and this work illustrates his reasoning. It would, in any case, be difficult to believe that researches deserving the name scientific could be described in English so obscure, so slovenly, so ungrammatical, even, as is here sometimes employed.

There is a refreshing directness of speech, proceeding from clear ideas and well-digested plans, in the latest report of the Librarian of Congress. Much the larger part of the handsome volume (well worth its binding) is occupied with a select list of accessions and with a detailed account of the organization and present collections of the Library, with numerous departmental photographic views. Mr. Putnam has to tell, in his report proper, of his epoch-making scheme for the sale of printed cards to all the libraries of the country; of his regular exchange of cards with some of the more important, so that knowledge of the contents of the National Library may be readily accessible at many centres. He relaxes nothing of his request for a sufficient number of cataloguers, nor of sufficient compensation for expert service. The position of head of the Division of Manuscripts became vacant a year ago and more. "I have not filled it," says Mr. Putnam; "I cannot fill it properly until the salary shall be placed upon a reasonable basis. It should be $3,000"—against $1,500 assigned to it. The Library, he remarks, depends wholly upon its annual appropriation. No money gift has ever been made to it. It is outbid at auction sales by other libraries. The memory of Caleb Cushing and Edward Everett is revived in connection with the account of the Oriental collection and of the acquisition of a Columbus codex. Perhaps the most curious function of the library is the provision of a room for reading aloud and for musicales on behalf of the blind.

Simultaneously with the report are issued 'A List of Books, etc., on Samoa and Guam,' and the scheme of classification adopted for Class Z—bibliography and library science. The Library also distributes among its exchanges the Handbook of the Library building compiled by Herbert Small, and published by Curtis & Cameron, Boston, with copious illustrations.

Another fine library building is illustrated in the memorial volume, 'The State Historical Society of Wisconsin' (Madison), compiled by Reuben Gold Thwaites, and embodying the exercises at the dedication on October 19, 1900. The cost of this building was 20 cents per cubic foot, or 29 cents inclusive of equipment. The leading address, by Charles Francis Adams, is here reproduced at length. An appendix to it should not be overlooked, for it contains a full transcript of John Quincy Adams's several utterances in Congress maintaining the war power over slavery, with pertinent extracts from his diary. This and much other interesting matter is revealed in the index. A few years ago, who would have thought of indexing a work of this character?

There comes to us the first number of *Records of the Past*, published monthly at Washington by Records of the Past Exploration Society, and edited by the Rev. Henry Mason Baum and Frederick Bennett Wright. It declares itself "a strictly scientific publication." The initial contents relate to American antiquities, archæological interests in Asiatic Russia (contributed by Prof. G. Frederick Wright, fresh from the scene), and Pompeii. There are plentiful illustrations—those from Siberia most interesting.

The Quarterly Statement for January of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains an interesting description of the celebration of the Samaritan Passover on Mount Gerizim, by the Rev. Dr. J. E. H. Thomson. The partakers of the seven paschal lambs were 160 in number, all above the average height and with noble faces. There were apparently no Jews present, but a great crowd of Moslems, who were with difficulty prevented by the Turkish police "from bursting through the ring of celebrants and, by touching the lambs, desecrating the sacrifice." The high priest, in answer to a question in regard to a Samaritan Greek version made as an offset to the Septuagint, asserted "that when Ptolemy sent to Palestine for 70 translators, they in Jerusalem sent 65 and they in Samaria sent 5, . . . and that they had still the 5 versions made by their representatives." Among the other contents are articles on the Hospital of St. John by the late Dr. Schick, with an elaborate ground plan; on Golgotha by Gen. Sir C. W. Wilson; and

archæological notes by Prof. Clermont-Ganneau.

In the *Annales de Géographie* for January two large charts show graphically the results of observations of the Aurora Borealis at numerous stations in both hemispheres. We mention an article on the intimate relationship between geography and sociology, and a powerful appeal for the reforesting of the Pyrenees. A large number of facts and statistics, fortified by striking photographs showing the effects of erosion, lead up to the statement that "the Pyrenean water courses are more and more insufficient for the economic needs which they create; their average discharge is diminishing. There is only one remedy, that which the Russians, Americans, Spaniards, etc., employ to-day—to plant trees." There is further an illustrated description of the principal topographical forms of Burgundy, and an examination of the Elbe system, as a contribution to the special science known as potamology.

Longfellow is evidently held in high esteem by the French educational authorities. They have selected nine of his poems, including "The Village Blacksmith" and "A Psalm of Life," in which the candidates for the diploma essential for an appointment as professor of English in normal and high-class schools will be examined during the next three years. The other works chosen are selections from Aikin and Barbauld's 'Evenings at Home,' and Miss Corner's 'Every Child's History of England,' and Wordsworth's "Michael." The diploma for second-class schools requires examination in Mrs. Browning's 'Aurora Leigh,' Thackeray's 'Four Georges,' Macaulay's Essays on Milton and Warren Hastings, and Pinero's 'The Princess and the Butterfly.' This is the outcome of a movement for the exclusive teaching of foreign languages in French schools by Frenchmen or persons willing to be naturalized.

—The February *Atlantic* has two articles of special literary interest, "Reminiscences of Walt Whitman," by J. T. Trowbridge, and a study of the "Fame of Victor Hugo," by George McLean Harper. Mr. Trowbridge knew Whitman intimately from an early period of his career, and writes with a warm appreciation of his virtues, both as a man and as a poet, though with no disposition to make virtues out of mere eccentricities of character or deficiencies of training. In the first edition of 'Leaves of Grass,' he found much that seemed to him formless and needlessly offensive, and these faults were emphasized in the second and third editions. Yet he felt the spell of "the tremendous original powers of this new bard, and the freshness, as of nature itself, which breathed through the best of his songs or sayings." Mr. Trowbridge throws light particularly on Whitman's life in Washington during the civil war, and his relation to Emerson. Professor Harper's conclusion as to the fame of Victor Hugo is that the unfavorable attitude of the great critics, such as Nisard, Faguet, Lemaître, and Brunetière, is a safer indication for the future than Hugo's popularity with the masses. Even more than the public of his own day, posterity will appreciate his wonderful mastery of the French language, his energy and versatility, his exuberant imagination; but his intelligence will be regarded as of a secondary order. William Garrott Brown of Harvard contributes a good paper on "Lincoln's Rival," Stephen A. Douglas, or rather on Lincoln and Douglas together. The value of the paper lies in its recognition of the fact that the right side of the great struggle for negro enfranchisement can best be presented by a thoroughly fair treatment of those who, for one reason or another, ranged themselves partly or wholly on the side of the wrong. An editorial review of the Scudder biography of Lowell repeats what is perhaps the only serious blunder of the types in the two volumes, by which the poet is made to say, in the closing lines of "The Oracle of the Goldfishes":

> "And I am happy in my sight
> To love God's darkness as his light."

—The Caxton Club of Chicago has printed a handsome quarto volume by Mr. Cyril Davenport of the British Museum, upon the work of Thomas Berthelet, "Royal Printer and Bookbinder to Henry VIII., King of England." The name does not occur in the great Dictionary of National Biography, but this is not surprising in view of the fact that never, in Great Britain, has the artist in what are called "subsidiary" or "minor" arts been taken very seriously. Even in France the dictionaries of reference, previous to the as yet unfinished Grande Encyclopédie, are inadequate in their treatment of such followers of the byways of intellectual life. A very bad painter, a Fuseli or a Haydon, goes, but the best of decorative artists is assumed to be of little interest, he or his works, to the reading public. As to Berthelet, however, and to the book about him, the documentary evidence concerning him and his work is arranged in chapter ii. of thirty pages, and his book-bindings are criticised and the more remarkable of them closely described in chapter iii. of forty pages more. The pages previous to chapter ii. are devoted to an account of English bookbinding before the time of Henry VIII. All this is the work of an admitted expert, one who is also the author of three separate books on bookbinding in addition to other treatises on kindred subjects. It is, however, the illustrations which will most charm the student. Nothing better in the way of printing in color and gold has yet been offered. A trustworthy observer of such matters said to the writer not long ago that these were the finest reproductions in color of the flat covers of books that had yet been made—that is to say, those in which the illusion of reality was the most perfect; and only the recollection of the magnificent work done for the Burlington Fine Arts Club, and of a certain volume, a bookseller's venture, by Quaritch of Piccadilly, prevents our complete adherence to that view. As regards the two books especially named, the leathers in the Burlington Club book are represented as dim and soft in tone, as the morocco of two hundred years ago usually is, and as we love to see it, while those in the Caxton Club book are shown gleaming, as if newly oiled. We admit the possibility of a difference of opinion with regard to this. Perhaps the examples copied by the workmen (unnamed) who made the plates for the American book were in the possession of some amateur who loved to keep his treasures in high apparent condition, fresh and shining; and this again is a matter of taste. Besides the bindings, the Caxton Club book gives the facsimile of a title-page of 1532: 'Jo Gower de Confessione Amantis. Imprinted at London in Fletestrete by Thomas Berthelette, Printer to the kingis grace An MDXXXII, cum privilegio'; and opposite page 16 a reproduction of the *impresa* which the printer used—a more elaborate and more pictorial scheme than is generally used for such a device. There are, moreover, several other illustrations in the text, copies, printed in red on a tint, of heraldic bearings, mottoes, and the like, which are not given in the plates; and plate iv. has especial interest as showing the edges of a volume bound up for the first Defender of the Faith, since these edges bear a royal motto in gilded capitals.

—We thought we had said our last word on the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.), when the publication of documents ceased, but the appearance of the general index brings us back to the subject once more. This last part of the work—so essential a feature of its usefulness—has been wonderfully well done. By glancing through vols. lxxii. and lxxiii., one can now see what a wide range of subjects the series embraces, and how fully it illustrates the history of New France. That proper names and subjects are both represented is a most inadequate statement. The index forms a complete analysis of contents. Take, for example, the word "bark (of trees)," and follow out the entries under it. "*As material:* for cabins [96 references]; canoes [57 references]; casks, boxes, etc.; cords; snares; cradles; household utensils; kettles; shields; sledges; tombs. *Other uses:* beds and bedding; litter for sick; (birch) in place of writing paper; dead shrouded in; eaten in time of famine; embroidery on; in Indian medicine; packages wrapped in; torches." We have given the number of references only in the case of bark cabins and bark canoes. Altogether, there are hundreds of references under the word "bark." "Mosquitoes" is treated with a like respect. "Beaver" receives greater prominence still, with heads, sub-headings, and hundreds of special references. These may be taken as minor examples. In the case of a large subject like "Indians" the classification becomes much more elaborate, and recalls the arrangement of a public library. Forty-seven pages of the index are given to Indians in general, apart from the numerous references to separate tribes. It is unnecessary to multiply details. This long set of the 'Jesuit Relations' closes with a complete and exhaustive index which is based upon logical methods and worked out with scrupulous care.

—'The Tale of the Great Mutiny' (Scribners) swells the number of those warlike and patriotic volumes which Dr. W. H. Fitchett seems bent upon producing. No one is a more convinced defender of his cause, or shows himself more anxious to defend the reputation of Englishmen for vigor and ruggedness. As J. K. Stephen, in merry mood, once observed of England:

> "The Saxon and the Celt
> She equitably rules;
> Her iron rod is felt
> By countless knaves and fools."

Dr. Fitchett, when he can discover his "masterful" Englishman (and it is no difficult matter), makes the most of him, especially if he is charging an armed Sepoy

half-drunk with bhang. "The level pistol, no doubt, had its own logic; but more effective than even the steady and tiny tube was the face that looked from behind it, with command and iron courage in every line. That masterful British will instantly asserted itself." We need not expect to find in this book a complete or dispassionate account of the Mutiny. Dr. Fitchett neglects to describe the general state of feeling in India when the rebellion broke out, and he closes promptly with the storming of Lucknow. His main theme is the promptness and daring which were so abundantly displayed when once the disturbance had arisen. We need not recall the Lawrences, Havelock, Edwardes, Nicholson, Outram, and the other heroes with whose names these pages chiefly abound. As a work of edification Dr. Fitchett's "tale" is well done. He does not make the tragedy of Cawnpore too lurid or the defence of the ridge at Delhi too superhuman. His praise of British valor is unceasing, but under the circumstances it cannot appear extravagant. By drawing largely from the memoirs of the period, which are abundant, he has added the proper touch of local color, while his love of incident does not seriously interfere with his delineation of the drama as a whole. In style this is a book which will be best appreciated by boys, but its graphic pictures of catastrophe and courage need not be for the young alone.

—'The French People,' by Mr. Arthur Hassall (Appletons), is a new volume in the "Great Peoples Series," edited by Prof. York Powell of Oxford. Although there is much of interest and value in the book, we feel that Mr. Hassall has neglected to make the most of a fine opportunity. In other words, he writes of the land and its annals, where he should be writing of the nation. No European state equals France in symmetry of development; nowhere else is the growth of the national organism so easily to be followed. Moreover, it is the design of this series to accentuate the idea of national evolution by dwelling upon the life of the people rather than upon politics alone. Of one shortcoming Mr. Hassall may be altogether acquitted: he has not made his sketch a bare political outline. But, when we consider the beauty of the process whereby the West Francia of Charles the Bald became the France of Louis le Gros, and the France of Louis le Gros became the France of Louis XI., we can only regret that Mr. Hassall has not succeeded better in describing the welding of the nation during the Middle Ages. We do not mean to imply that this motive is altogether disregarded. We would say no more than that Mr. Hassall falls short of the opportunity which the subject offers. Instead of following the operations of the strongest force, or even of describing the duel between feudalism and the crown, he devotes his attention to a number of things which, while important, are not of the first importance. A sense of relative complexity is thus created, where the greatest stress should have been placed upon the attainment of unity. In a treatise like the present, considerations of space should always be kept in sight by the reviewer, as well as by the author; but our criticism is the less weakened at this point because Mr. Hassall might well have spared something from his account of the period since the Revolution. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are also disposed of too shortly, in order that the era from 1789 onward may receive a greater share of attention. Prof. York Powell, in outlining the conception of his series, says: "It will try and show how populations such as dwelt in the lands we now call France and Spain gradually came to be peoples with peculiar and characteristic nationalities of their own, and how, all through the progress of their development, they influenced other peoples materially, morally, and mentally, whereby certain elements of our own present-day lives and circumstances may be accounted for." Judged by the standard of his editor, Mr. Hassall has succeeded less perfectly with France than Major Hume did with Spain. Finally, this volume seems to show signs of hasty preparation and of a too negligent revision. Slips like Beaumanois for Beaumanoir, and Courbetin for Coubertin, are not infrequent; while on page 51 occurs the following piece of enumeration: "Six states were set up—Italy, Germany, Provence, Transjurane, Burgundy, and France." Moreover, the writer's attitude toward modern France is too deeply affected by the views of Mr. Bodley. Mr. Hassall has long since proved himself to be a good historian, but we cannot express the belief that this is one of his most successful works.

GENERAL ALGER'S APOLOGIA.

The Spanish-American War. By R. A. Alger, Secretary of War March 5, 1897, to August 1, 1899. With maps. Harper & Bros. 1901.

That President McKinley anticipated no armed conflict when he took office is clear from his choice of a Secretary of War, and the outcome of that selection shows afresh the kindly watchfulness of Providence over the American people. An Apology would be the better title for this exculpatory volume, whose preface disclaims presenting a full history of the war, and whose obvious motive is to put on record a plea in avoidance in the hope of obtaining partial relief from popular censure. Its declared object is to note some of the conspicuous conditions affecting the active army, with an account of the administration of the War Department, in the naïvely expressed hope that it "will serve a useful purpose as an example" in another crisis. Had "example" been frankly written "warning," it would have been better, for, whether recognized or not, 'The Spanish-American War' is the history of administrative blundering relieved only by the skill and courage of subordinate officers and their commands. The ex-Secretary lays just blame upon Congress for habitual neglect of the army in peace, gives numerous illustrations of Gen. Miles's professional unfitness for his responsible position, complains that the naval forces did not coöperate properly with the army in the field, and places upon the President the discredit of such appointments as were objectionable. He extols the chiefs of the administrative bureaus as models of intelligence and energy, defends General Egan in everything but his intemperate vileness of speech, minimizes the sanitary defects of the great camps, gives a rosy sketch (with no intelligent detail) of the situation in the Philippines, and appears to regard Gen. Shafter as the highest expression of military efficiency. The convincing section is the one in which he allows General Miles to condemn himself out of his own mouth as a commanding general. One illustration of this out of many was his proposal to transfer to Cuba, regardless of the difficulties of marine transportation and debarkation and of subsistence, 15,000 newly raised cavalry, and the assumption that there soon would be from 30,000 to 50,000 prisoners, of whom "we could employ at reasonable compensation such as desired occupation in road building." There is no concealment of Gen. Alger's contempt for the commanding general as a military counsellor.

When the war opened, there was nowhere a military body superior to the rank and file of the army in selected physique, individual character, and essential discipline. But it was very weak in numbers, and the temporary enthusiasm of the volunteer legions behind it poorly replaced instruction and experience. In its lower grades the permanent establishment was well officered, and it was by these officers and the superb soldiery immediately under them that victory was compelled. The generals were few, and in great part had been selected upon the principle which governs kissing. In the long years of peace, all of these were mere supervisors of geographical departments, administrative functionaries engaged in keeping at the lowest limit the expenses of their commands, and in receiving and preparing routine reports, usually of trifling concern. The system was at fault. It did not foster military efficiency. Those who remained soldiers were such by the grace of God and not by aid of the War Department, whose deadly centralization suppressed all initiative. The administrative bureaus of science and supply were similarly crippled. They had power of a kind, but they maintained a hand-to-mouth existence with no reserve and with no thought for the morrow. Back of it all was Congressional parsimony, due to a popular opinion which asked for nothing else. Unwillingness to appropriate beyond visible needs, incredulity as to the possibility of any war, faith that an essential virtue belonged to the baptismal rite of mustering-in, so that a volunteer received soldierly efficiency with his uniform, not only discouraged but made impossible in peace that preparation for war which immemorial experience has counselled. There thus grew up about the War Department a sentiment that the smallness of an estimate showed efficiency, and to turn into the Treasury an unexpended balance was brilliant administration. Congressional illiberality compelled administrative pinching, and complicated rules of financial responsibility led to timorous hesitation. The official conditions discouraged initiative and originality. The troops were fed and clothed, quartered and paid, better than those of any other army. There excellences ceased. The individual was well cared for, but the organization was stunted. The exception was a long-standing nominal provision for a coast armament, whose realization, indeed, had languished, but was now helped by hasty purchase with the defence fund of foreign guns before proclamations of neutrality closed the doors of sale.

The ex-Secretary has no shame for his predecessors or himself as at all account-

able for the chaos into which the first pressure precipitated this general unpreparedness. He seems to make a merit of it that anything was accomplished, and takes credit that there was not utter collapse. He will not admit that with authority goes responsibility, and that it was his urgent duty to have his Department equipped. Congressional failure to supply funds was the immediate fault; but Congress necessarily depends upon estimates for adequate appropriations, and upon convincing explanations of their necessity and how they are to be expended without waste. There is no sign that any such thing was done. Even now Gen. Alger fails to appreciate the essential weakness of his administration, both structurally and through his selected agents. He has no conception of the confusion which existed, of the disaster which impended, nor that, in the absence of disobedient inferiors, he was responsible for both. In our system, the Secretary is not merely a civil administrator, and theoretically a statesman who aids the President; he assumes actual military functions, and, either directly or through the untrammelled pen of his adjutant-general, issues orders of initiative and interference, so as, when sufficiently weak through rashness and vanity, to act as a sedentary field-marshal. Under such conditions, where he does not disavow them, he must accept as his own the operations of those subordinates who are under his immediate direction. Nor can he shield himself from accountability on the plea that it is the President, and not himself, who imposes conditions; for, while he retains the portfolio of a Constitutional adviser, he must share with the President responsibility in his own department.

Six weeks before war was declared, Congress placed fifty millions for national defence at the absolute disposal of the President. Of this, the great supply department, the quartermaster's, received a one-hundredth part; the medical department, through whose hospitals and along the hands of whose officers nearly every man must pass in a war of any duration, whether defensive or offensive, one-twenty-fifth of the quartermaster's allowance; the subsistence department, nothing. Mr. Alger asserts that the President interpreted "national defence" literally, and, while he gave freely to the ordnance, the engineers, and the signal corps, he would permit the other departments to take no step outside the usual routine, nor allow them either to procure or to order material or equipment, so that, because of this prohibition, "absolutely nothing had been added to the ordinary supply as it existed March 9, 1898." The text contradicts itself, but apparently small allowances were assigned, as noted above. If this is so, if any allotment at all was made to these non-aggressive branches, it should have been in some reasonable proportion to their natural requirements. If the heads of those departments thought that $500,000 and $20,000 respectively were adequate, and prepared such estimates, they were incompetent. But if the President, of his own motion, ruled that the defence fund could be applied only to restrain assailing fleets and invading armies, and did not merely act upon the Secretary's suggestion to that effect, then the latter's acquiescence, in the absence of formal remonstrance, renders him also responsible. Both were victims of a logic whose falsity was perceived later; for, when war began, the same appropriation was freely employed for all military purposes. Could not a war minister realize that there is an offensive-defensive as well as a defensive-defensive, and act accordingly? On the other hand, if there was, as stated, no allotment at all before the declaration, and these insignificant sums were those assigned to support actual war, then incompetence becomes fatuity. Alone, this question of money is a trifle; it is only as an illustration of army control that it is important. The navy, under the same President, but with another Secretary, appears to have been unfettered as to ways and means.

When we reach the war itself, one reads with still less patience. There was no military head and no digested plan of campaign. Detached operations were discussed in numerous conferences between the President and the Secretary, at which other members of the Cabinet and Gen. Miles frequently assisted. The civilians could claim no professional knowledge, and we know what was thought of Gen. Miles, so that, wise or unwise, his views carried no weight. There was no one competent to direct, except as the Executive was the final source of power. And what happened exactly agreed with what might have been anticipated. Much of the army, followed by unequipped volunteers, was crowded over two single-track roads into Tampa because at Port Tampa, nine miles away beyond swamp and sand, reached by one line of rails, was deep water. No one who could act perceived that Atlanta, with its salubrious climate and abundant railroad facilities, was the natural base. A depot at Atlanta, with, if necessary, Huntsville, Charlotte, Augusta, Sumter, Waycross, and other less-known railway centres as auxiliaries, and Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, New Orleans, and possibly Port Tampa and Jacksonville, as sailing points, would appeal to any soldier. In the next war, unless the beaches and inlets from Wilmington south are to be garrisoned by fixed divisions, the defence of the southern coast must be made from Atlanta as the focus of a military parabola whose railroad rays touch every important littoral point.

What is true of defence is equally true of the preliminaries of offence. Nevertheless, every agent of aggression was pressed into Tampa during May. Gen. Alger now admits that "Tampa was not adapted to the concentration and the effective handling of the vast body of supplies necessary for an army of 25,000 men," and he implies that he knew at the time that Port Tampa was fit only for the dispatch of a small force. There seems no excuse for this miscalculation of capability, this demanding from a dwarf the service of a man. It resulted in waste of time and property, in unnecessary discomfort, and sometimes in hardship; and, worse, engendered distrust of a head which, having once directed streams of troops and supplies to an inappropriate site, had not sufficient decision to divert or stop them, and persisted in a recognized blunder. There was well-founded complaint that most of the volunteers were immediately concentrated in masses so enormous as to be hurtful to them as new troops, instead of being collected in preparatory camps of organization and instruction for later consolidation. Mr. Alger's reply is the assumption that a camp would be required for each of the forty-five States, which on its face is absurd; followed by the allegation that there were too few staff officers to administer such numerous centres. State camps would have been mischievous, and the policy of establishing mixed brigades, which the experience of the civil war demonstrated to be the true one, was eminently proper. But there is a vital difference between forty-five camps and ten or fifteen, and the great encampments repeated and magnified much of the confusion and inefficiency that prevailed at Tampa. The deficiency in staff officers was not real, for the Secretary had at his disposal a proficiency record of every officer's special qualification which would permit appropriate assignments without delay.

The offensive policy was fragmentary and vacillating. There was first ordered an expedition of infantry, of cavalry (it is presumed dismounted), and an excess of light artillery, to Tunas on the south coast of Cuba, and thence by sea to an undesignated point on the north coast. These were to be raids to supply the insurgents with arms and ammunition, and the orders curiously illustrate the crudeness of the directing mind as well as its estimate of the general to whom they were addressed. He was, in all simplicity, instructed to injure the Spanish forces as much as possible, but to avoid serious injury to his own command; healthful locations were to be found, and yellow-fever or other epidemics to be shunned; "and you are not expected to have your command on the island of Cuba but a few days." This expedition was abandoned before sailing, as was one to seize Mariel as a base of operations against Havana; and the Santiago transports, crowded to repletion, were held upon the Gulf a week in June—all through fear of the Spanish fleet, whose ubiquity and offensive power suddenly filled the official mind with dread, as though the naval force of Spain had sprung into life without warning or anticipation. Gen. Shafter's final orders were to proceed with a large expedition to the vicinity of Santiago, and move so as to destroy or capture the garrison, in order to cover the navy's small boats as they removed torpedoes, "or, with the aid of the navy, capture or destroy the Spanish fleet" in the harbor. The Spanish fleet was the objective; the land forces were incidental obstacles to be brushed aside. Again the instructions were those becoming a military kindergarten. Thus, the commanding general is cautioned against putting too much confidence in persons outside of his own forces; he is to take precautions against surprises, ambuscades, or positions that may have been mined or are commanded by the enemy; and he is to accomplish the object with the least possible delay. Having performed the moderate task of capturing the enemy's fleet "with the aid of the navy," he was to reëmbark for Puerto de Baños and await further orders there, unless he received other directions or should "deem it advisable to remain in the harbor of Santiago"—"this with the understanding that your command has not sustained serious loss," etc., etc. Can there be clearer evidence that Washington looked upon such warfare as a minor operation, and need we be surprised that it was staggered when climate and arms together brought disaster in July?

One of the most serious and widely known embarrassments of that campaign, the lamentable deficiency of medical supplies ashore, was the fruit of ignorance and neglect. Rather than carry more than seven ambulances for 17,000 men, Gen. Miles's portable shields, each requiring the space on a transport that an ambulance would occupy, were taken. A machine of that bulk (weighing, it is said, a thousand pounds) for use with infantry in a tropical jungle does not commend itself to the imagination, but Gen. Alger writes: "Gen. Shafter has frankly assumed the entire responsibility." So did Burnside for Fredericksburg. But, regardless of ambulances, the ex-Secretary admits that when the transports sailed, "even hospital equipment" was insufficient, adding in palliation, that at Tampa it was thought it "could be made good . . . in a very few days." Gen. Shafter's contribution is: "I had no idea we were going to have 1,500 wounded." Perhaps he thought there would be no sickness, for those to whom the epidemic of July was "unexpected" knew no history. Without recounting the evils that followed incapacity of various kinds—for the tangle at Siboney seems to have been worse than that at Tampa, and certainly more imperatively in need of being unravelled—no one will dispute the Secretary's own verdict, applied especially to the medical property, but which some may take as a generalization, that "no excuse can be given for the carelessness in shipping these supplies, or for not putting them ashore with the army." As we understand it, this does not reflect upon the medical department itself, which appears to be entirely dependent upon others for the transportation of its property.

In a way, ambulances and shields, medical stores, a regiment more or less, a June week of crowded transports motionless on the Gulf, even the unnecessary loss of some lives, and the happening of much superfluous sickness and other hardship, are of small account in examining a great campaign. But this was not a great campaign, and these flaws are typical of its character. The real question is: Was it good military policy to operate against Santiago under the existing conditions? Should land operations, with all the available regulars, have been initiated on the verge of a season of known fatality, under a physically infirm general whose qualifications were conjectural, simply to "assist the navy" in overcoming a blockaded fleet that had no hope of succor? We think no competent strategist would commend the proposition, at least until he was assured that there was practically no opposing land force. The hostile admiral, carrying munitions for the Spanish army, had found his natural objective, Havana, inaccessible, and Cienfuegos, with its railway facilities for distribution, unavailable. He had rendered himself incapable as a military purveyor, and impotent as a breaker of blockades, by entering the harbor of Santiago, 300 miles in a right line, and many more by the country roads, from rail communication. He was bottled, and his supplies not distributable, and his destruction was probable, should he seek the sea. The navy might surely be thought competent to prevent the exit or to effect the capture of its special foe. The province of Santiago, the most distant in Cuba, would fall of necessity with the destruction of the central power, and the possession of the town should have had no appreciable influence upon the war. As it proved, Spain recognized the approach of the irresistible when San Juan Hill was occupied and the fate of Montojo's fleet overtook Cervera's. But it was the loss of the control of the sea, not the capitulation of Santiago and its outlying garrisons, that terminated the war.

Doubtless the army contributed to the flight of the fleet through the ultimate prospect of a plunging fire, but it is not a sufficient defence to assert that the result justified the method. No one may carry flame in a powder magazine in the hope that there will be no explosion. The army in possession was vanquished by the army of invasion, but the victors were absolutely defeated by the climate. Such a foreordained consequence was in plain view from the beginning. Even Gen. Alger, wise after the event, writes (p. 283): "Our army would not have been sent to one of the most unhealthful sections of Cuba at the worst season of the year, but for the fact that the Spanish admiral took refuge in Santiago Harbor." The reason is not competent, and the consequences to the invader, calamitous as they were, might easily have been fatal, or, at the least, fruitful of even greater and more persistent disaster. A very slightly prolonged resistance would have brought into fiercer action uncontrollable disease, the intelligent dread of which, already present, was depicted in the famous Round Robin. That remarkable communication, which violates nearly every principle of military propriety, does not show, as would seem at the first blush, insubordination by the soldiers (admirable as were most of them) who signed it, but their clear appreciation of the calibre and disposition of the persons in authority. It was at once a spur for action and a bridle for guidance. Imagine such a letter being addressed to Grant or Lee, to Sheridan or Jackson! Imagine their troops in a predicament from which they could only thus be extricated. The Secretary objects not to the letter, but to its publication.

To throw a little further light on the fragmentary and inconsequential nature of the War Department's actions, one may not call them plans, we note without comment the following facts: (1) The double mission of material relief to the insurgents at Tunas and on the north coast of Cuba was given up from fear of the Spanish fleet; (2) the expedition against Mariel, as a base from which to move upon Havana, was also abandoned from the same cause; (3) that fleet, blockaded by Sampson, was no longer a factor to be feared; (4) the army was diverted to Santiago to assist in the capture of the fleet; (5) after destroying the fleet, it was proposed, not to lay siege to Havana with the victorious army and the supplementary forces, but to transport it to distant Porto Rico, whose fate necessarily depended upon that of Cuba, not Cuba's upon Porto Rico's. The ravages of disease forced upon the War Department the repatriation of the Fifth Corps, which was not one of its own measures.

The farce of organizing, and proclaiming as "immune," regiments that possessed no immunity in fact or in theory, the crimination against the navy, the embalmed-beef controversy, the condition of the great camps and the reasons therefor, are among the serious subjects of which space forbids discussion. Space also debars consideration of affairs in the Philippines, regardless of any question of statesmanship as to their occupation under the treaty.

POLYPHONIC MUSIC.

The Oxford History of Music. Volume I. The Polyphonic Period. Part I. Method of Musical Art, 330-1330. By H. E. Wooldridge, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

The book of which this is the first volume is the first part of an extensive History of Music from A.D. 330 to the Romantic period, the period of Weber, Schumann, and Chopin. Professor Wooldridge has undertaken this part of the work, which the present volume carries to the period of Discant, inclusive.

In music, if we would find real continuity, we must overleap the Middle Ages, which are an intrusion and a parenthesis. They may be compared to a disease, or to a long aberration from the right path. This is so clearly illustrated in the present work, that, though it is often too technical to please readers not skilled in this particular art, it will appeal to the student of art in general, and even to the student of the philosophy of history. Professor Wooldridge divides the history of music into the three great periods of Homophony, Polyphony, and Harmony, marked respectively by the preëminence of the single melody, of combined but independent melodies, and of harmony. He traces polyphony to the octave-singing of mixed choruses of men and boys in the Greek period, and holds that it is positively proved that, while the Greeks knew other consonances besides the octave, they never used them for musical purposes. The author appears to hold the most correct views on the Greek modes and their relation to the universal scale of the ancients and to the Transposition scales of their theorists. Polyphony, then, sprang from the decadence of Greek music. At first the Church accepted the conditions transmitted from this decadent art. It took the materials of music as it found them, just as it appropriated the pagan temples and, to some extent, the pagan rites and superstitions.

After the complete triumph of the barbarian invaders, about the middle of the sixth century, there is an absolute hiatus in the history of music until about 850, when we find ecclesiastical music provided with a set of eight modes, retaining in their nomenclature clear traces of their Greek origin, but put together in a bungling manner, the source of which is found by the author in the Greek Church in Syria. This wrong view of the modes seems to have been corrected under the influence of Boethius; and it was after this reform that the development of the polyphonic principle first became possible, since now the materials of music first assumed a permanent shape. We have here one of those interferences on the part of ancient Greek music which, as Gevaert has justly observed, have occurred at every critical point in the history of this art. For Boethius was merely an interpreter, however inadequate, of Greek theories.

The author regards the advance of music from this point as due to a new emotional

principle, the congregational emotion appropriate to collective worship. It seems to us that he is thinking back from the standpoint of later modes of thought. The idea that congregational music ought, in its very structure, to typify the "e pluribus unum," so to speak, of the congregation, does not seem to us likely to have occurred *a priori* to the musicians of the ninth century; nor is there any proof alleged that this view was taken, even *a posteriori*, by any thinker of that age. The Christian congregation had existed for eight hundred years without, apparently, feeling any need of such a mode of expression; and during that period its religious fervor had certainly not grown stronger, but much weaker, than it had been in the Catacombs. We think that a truer explanation is to be found in the waning of genuine religious feeling. Real and profound religious emotion makes but slight demands on art of any sort, while conventional religion and genuine but shallow religious feeling need the aid of elaborate art, and of that self-delusion which mistakes sensuous impressions received from without for true spiritual and inward emotion. If we are not mistaken, we must, then, include the birth of polyphony in the chapter of those timely accidents of which genius, in every age, has so readily availed itself.

However this may be, the recognition of chords, or simultaneous consonances, first appears in the ninth century, and in a form which shows great advances in the interval between our extant records. New chords, and even discords, are admitted; and there is a greater independence of the vocal parts. The part-singing of this period is called Organum, or Diaphony. The parts might be four; but two were mere repetitions of the two others; of the principal voice one octave below, and of the lower voice one octave above. The author gives numerous examples of this Organum, in one of which (on page 55) there seems to be an error in transposition, E G (three semitones) being represented by F A (four semitones). The explanation of this, not given by Professor Wooldridge, may be that the mediæval theorist was transposing by scales and not, as we do, by notes. The Scholia Enchiriadis quoted on page 53 actually profess this view.

To the strict Organum succeeded, not much later, our author thinks, the free Organum, in which the accompanying voice did not always follow the principal voice note by note. The origin of this is found in the necessity of avoiding the tritone—an interval of three whole tones (as F B), which the musicians called "Diabolus in Musica," the Devil in Music. Here we see how faults in systems lead to new discoveries. This necessity of avoiding the "Diabolus" caused a long stride to be made toward the still unsuspected goal of polyphony; that which had been resorted to as a remedy being now adopted for its own sake.

Guido d'Arezzo is now the chief exponent of musical theories; for we have reached the eleventh century. The intervals used to avoid the tritone are now studied and freely used, an advance which our author inclines to attribute to the readoption of the Greek scale. We are more inclined to see in it an effort to shake off theoretical dogmatism, a common phenomenon in the progress of all art, where Nature and Truth are ever protesting against canons of human invention. Guido yielded to this superior guidance, and the hesitancy and inconsistency of his alleged reasons are only a tribute to the authority of prevailing methods and prejudices.

Professor Wooldridge seems to undervalue the part of Guido in the advance of the musical art of the age. It is true that, after his death (about 1050), there was a reaction. The "passing" discords allowed between consonances disappear; and, in the new Organum, first expounded about 1100, there is a return to strict consonances. Variety is obtained only by the use of different modes of progression. But this led to constant efforts to write many different vocal accompaniments to one and the same melody, and the result was the creation of real third and fourth parts, no longer, as before, mere repetitions of the principal part and its Organum. Here, as the author himself admits, real progress was made by the irregular Organum of certain pieces in which all prohibitions against dissonances were disregarded. So that Guido, after all, had not wrought in vain.

The subject of Discant, or measured music, in which the consideration of rhythm (*i. e., tempo* apart from its speed) held the first place, is too technical to be discussed here; and the same may be said of the chapters on notation, in which the author has put some of his best work. The strict rhythms of this period are sometimes agreeable; but they confined composition unnecessarily and were doomed to a speedy end, like all arbitrary restraints in art, the true progress of which always lies in judiciously breaking rules. Their monotony led to violations, or to clever evasions, of the rules; and these soon became the usual practice. The free use of consonances led to new views as to the movement of the voices; and, at a time roughly estimated as between 1290 and 1300, we see Discant coming very near to plain Counterpoint. The elements of composition were still Tenor and Discant, but the Discant was no longer metrically enslaved to the "subject." Consonances were required in the strong beat of the measure only. "Composition at this time [with which this volume closes] was weak and tentative, deficient in resource, hampered by its conditions—the effect harsh, empty, and harmonically pointless." The prevailing forms of composition were the two kinds of Organum, the Cantilena, the Rondel, the Motett, the Hoquet, and the Conductus; the last two being to us mere names.

The Rondel will interest every reader who knows or enjoys music. The most famous example, the English rondel "Sumer is icumen in" (date about 1240), given here in several versions, is a composition of which any age or any people might be proud. The nameless author may be classed with the many great men who are personally unknown to us *quia vate carent*. The volume ends with many examples of rondels and motetts, covering some seventy pages.

Of Professor Wooldridge's work we cannot speak too highly. It is difficult to overstate the enormous labor and difficulty involved in unravelling the tangled mass of facts with which he had to deal; and the result is more satisfactory than could have been expected even from such diligence and so much ability. The "make-up" of the book is what we have learned to expect from the Clarendon Press. We have noted very few misprints, and those of no great consequence, as "Sancta Spiritus" on p. 378. One curious mistake seems, however, to have been made in the account given of the manuscript in the Laurentian Library, at Florence, from which so much of the author's material is drawn that, without it, this book could not have been written. We are told that the MS. is marked "Plutarch 29. 1." Now, a dialogue on Music is indeed found among the works of Plutarch; but this MS. does not contain a line of it. On the other hand, the MSS. in the original Laurentiana are all marked "Plut.," with two numerals following; the letters "Plut." standing for some form of the word *pluteus*, which merely means a book-case.

Studies of Trees in Winter: A Description of Deciduous Trees of Northeastern America. By Annie Oakes Huntington. With an introduction by Charles Sprague Sargent, LL.D., Director of the Arnold Arboretum and Author of 'The Silva of North America.' Illustrated with colored plates and photographs. Boston: Knight & Millet. 1902.

A Handbook of the Trees of New England. By Lorin L. Dame and Henry Brooks. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1902.

Those of our readers to whom it was permitted to make use of the excellent 'Arboretum et Fruticetum Britannicum' of Loudon can never forget the pleasure given by the winter days when, through the windows, the leafless branches of the trees, still or swaying, served as fascinating objects of comparison with the sketches in the book. The eight volumes of Loudon were not convenient handbooks for field use, and therefore gave one an additional excuse for staying by the open fire, indoors. The 'Studies of Trees in Winter,' brought within convenient compass of a manual, must take away this excuse for fireside examination of our beautiful winter vegetation. One can now enjoy the study of our oaks and maples and ashes in the crisp bracing air of the lengthening days. It is possible for even the least observant person to familiarize himself with the more common of our trees in winter, and watch the coming of the miracle of spring.

It is well known to all thoughtful persons that the buds of our trees and shrubs represent the most admirable adaptation to surroundings. In the equatorial belt, where plants have the weather quite their own way, and where, year in and year out, they take no thought for hard times coming, buds, in our Northern sense of the word, have scarcely any existence. Our buds stand as examples of survival, through countless generations, of the hardy stocks which could meet sudden emergencies in the most variable climates. Alfred Russel Wallace and Grant Allen have found in buds illustrations of deep interest touching the great subjects of variation and survival which they have had most at heart. An attentive examination of the myriad forms of buds, identifiable by means of this admirable work, will add much to the interest of the winter walks until the coming of the spring. And then can be substituted for this study the use of the handy book on 'The Trees of New England' by Dr. Dame and Mr. Brooks. These authors have covered the ground in an attractive and successful manner. Their descriptions are truthful

and interesting, their plates are excellent, and, in short, they have produced a convenient and safe guide. We congratulate the lovers of trees in our Northern States upon the admirable textbooks which are now within very easy reach.

There are many encouraging signs of a deepening interest in our trees as trees, and in forests as a precious heritage. Every good handbook which serves to increase this interest must be heartily welcomed.

A Dictionary of Architecture and Building: Biographical, Historical, and Descriptive. By Russell Sturgis and Many Architects, Painters, Engineers, and Other Expert Writers, American and Foreign. In three volumes. Vol. III., O-Z. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The appearance of this third volume marks the completion of a work which will doubtless for many years remain the standard encyclopædic dictionary of the subject. Upon the appearance of the first volume, we described in these columns the form and scope of the undertaking. We will now confine ourselves to some account of the contents of the third volume. The Dictionary, as a whole, is marked by the fortunate selection of its writers, and the appropriateness of these selections is no less evident in the third than it was in the preceding volumes. To take a single case: the whole subject of the use of colored glass in windows has been committed to the care of Mr. John La Farge, who has approached the matter not merely as an historian (for as such he treats it with all necessary fulness), but as an artist familiar with the technique of the material and the limitations and possibilities of the art of the window-maker. The part of his article devoted to the colored window in America is particularly interesting, since Mr. La Farge was among the foremost in developing that art. He therefore speaks from an intimate knowledge of the aims of the early workers and the difficulties they had to overcome.

Among the articles in the present volume upon the history of Architecture, the most notable are those of Mr. R. Phené Spiers upon Roman Imperial Architecture and upon the architecture of certain Eastern countries; of Mr. C. H. Blackall on Spain and Portugal, of Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin on Scotland, and of Professor Frothingham on Sicily. The latter writer also contributes an article on Pelasgic architecture, which he defines as a style of building prevailing in the pre-Hellenic world, in addition to two styles of early date, found one in the valley of the Nile, the other in the valley of the Euphrates. Probably the longest single article in the present volume is that upon Architecture in the United States, being Mr. Montgomery Schuyler's exhaustive treatment of the subject from pre-Columbian times to the present day. Nor should we fail to mention Mr. W. P. P. Longfellow's article on Romanesque Architecture, or his still more interesting treatment of the subject of Round churches. Among articles dealing with parts of buildings are especially to be noted two by Professor Babcock, one on Pendentive, the other on Vault, both particularly to be commended by reason of the exhaustive series of diagrams with which they are illustrated. These diagrams, although they would have been equally useful had they been given at a much smaller scale (a statement true of nine-tenths of the illustrations in the Dictionary), form with their succinct text so valuable a presentation of their subjects that one regrets that the same method has not been employed more generally throughout the work.

Upon Æsthetics the chief article contained in the present volume is that of Mr. Henry Rutgers Marshall on "Truth in Architecture," a discussion of the expression, in design, of the essential facts of the plan and structure. The most important article on building materials is that by Prof. George P. Merrill on Stone, an inquiry into the nature, use, and source of the stones most frequently employed in construction, with special reference to those occurring in the United States.

It need only be added that the great mass of definitions and of brief articles contributed by the Editor is up to the standard of the earlier volumes, and that the biographies of architects are as complete as heretofore, to show that the work has been carried to a conclusion in precisely as satisfactory a manner as the first volume justified us in anticipating.

Letters on Life. By Claudius Clear (Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll). Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

Only a hardened critic could refrain from laying aside his scalpel when an author, in his first chapter, makes a clean breast of his own ideals by declaring that "the highest wisdom is to be found in commonplaces." Dr. Nicoll has here suggested the obvious comment on such statements as that there cannot be good conversation between two people unless they are united by a feeling of sympathy; that many persons have their heads turned by sudden success; that the first condition of learning is humility; that it is perhaps wise now and then to have a pause if one is engaged in work which strains one's faculties; that what is work to one man is play to another; that it often happens that one who writes brilliantly does not talk in the same way; that men who are charming in society may be boors at home, etc., etc. Yet, in spite of its likeness in this respect to the immortal masterpiece of Martin F. Tupper, this volume is not only readable but even stimulating. Its commonplaces are presented as "confirmed and illuminated by experience." Dr. Nicoll's illustrations are drawn from a wide range, from Rousseau to Mrs. Oliphant, and some of the best are incidents related as having happened to friends of his own. The author shows his belief in his proposition "that literature is autobiography" by adding that personal element which is essential to good essays. His confessions respecting his visit to a palmist, his weariness of the sunshine of the Riviera, and his inability to make notes of what he reads, were well worth putting on record for the encouragement of weaker brethren.

The leading characteristic of the book is a homely and kindly good sense, expressed in a clear and unpretentious style and relieved by a pawky Scotch humor. With all its platitudes, not a few shrewd hints are scattered here and there; as, for instance, that many people would be much better talkers if they could even slightly enlarge their vocabulary, and that the holiday that does us most good is not the one we enjoy most, but the dull holiday. Dr. Nicoll is to be congratulated also on his skill in the choice of topics. Such titles as "On the Art of Taking Things Coolly," "The Sin of Overwork," "How to Remember and How to Forget," and "Should Old Letters be Kept?" whet the reader's appetite immediately, and it is not disappointed by the manner in which these subjects are treated. The lessons of "the American invasion" are expounded in three papers, one of which is based on Elbert Hubbard's 'Message to Garcia,' though Mr. Hubbard will probably regret to learn that the name of the author of that famous pamphlet is not given. The points in our own business policy which Dr. Nicoll especially approves are that American employers fire out the fools, pay good men well, and take good men into their confidence. Elsewhere Dr. Nicoll expresses the opinion that "America is not nearly enthusiastic enough about her choicest spirits," and alleges in evidence the neglect at Litchfield of the Beecher traditions of the place. We learn with much pleasure that the author's domestic cat, which can endure listening to most of the minor poets, could not stand some of the Laureate's "laborious trash" about the union between England and America, but deliberately left the room after hearing two stanzas.

The Labyrinth of the World and the Paradise of the Heart. By John Amos Komensky (Comenius). Edited and translated by Count Lützow. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

Comenius is famous as an educational reformer; his memory has been piously cherished by the Moravians, and something of his travels and trials is generally known. But what his compatriots regard as his most important book—more valuable than the 'Janua Linguarum,' which was long used in schools, or the 'Orbispectus,' or his later "pansophic" works—has been little known except to Bohemians. 'The Labyrinth of the World' was written in 1623, and first printed in 1631, "probably either at Lissa or at Pirna in Saxony." An enlarged edition appeared at Amsterdam in 1663, and was reprinted at Berlin in 1757, and at Prague, 1782 and 1809; this last edition was suppressed in 1820. Within the last half century there have been many editions, always in Bohemian. German translations, abridged or adapted, appeared in 1781, 1787, and about 1872. Others exist in Hungarian and Russian. Count Lützow, of the Bohemian Academy, now publishes a careful English version. His apologies, as writing in a language not his own, are unnecessary, for his work is well done, and discloses to "the largest public of readers in the world" what is at the least a literary curiosity, and (as he assures us) a beloved national classic. Parts of it are now read in the Bohemian schools for the style; and the song of the Bohemian exiles celebrates it with their vernacular Scriptures: "Nothing have we taken with us, everything is lost; we have but our Bible of Kralice and our 'Labyrinth of the World.'"

The 'Labyrinth' is a satirical allegory, introducing a shorter devotional work. The author, in his dedication to his patron, the Baron of Zerotin, says, "The first part depicts the follies and insanity of the world, showing how, mainly and with great labor,

it busies itself with worthless things, and how all these things at last end wretchedly, either in laughter or in tears. The second part describes, partly as through a veil, partly openly, the true and firm felicity of the sons of God." The main part somewhat resembles 'Pilgrim's Progress,' and still more the 'Table of Cebes,' which the writer may have known. It is deeply pessimistic, the work of a scholar who had recently seen his religion crushed, his house and library burned, himself, his family and friends driven forth. The translator claims that it offers "an almost perfect picture of the life and thought of Bohemia and Germany . . . in the early years of the seventeenth century." It bears the marks of a strong and even fair mind; it is curiously free from bigotry and "doctrines"; it represents Christendom as a great church with "many little chapels, to which those went who had not been able to agree." The book is one of the few allegories which tend to more than mere edification. The introduction includes a sketch of Komensky's life by which the usual notices of him may be corrected.

The Laws of Scientific Hand-Reading: A Practical Treatise on the Art commonly called Palmistry. By William G. Benham. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901. Large 8vo, pp. 635, with 800 illustrations from life.

Either as a manual of instruction for the learner or as a book of reference for the more expert, palmists are indebted to Dr. Benham for one of the most desirable works on their subject. Illustrations and text are good, abundant, and handsomely published. The treatment appears to be original, and is largely the outcome of an unusually varied experience by a practising physician. The discussions are modern; the earlier literature is advantageously neglected. Continued study of the diseased and abnormal may have too much influence on conclusions, yet the knowledge thus gained is of great importance to one whose business it is to weigh small departures from normal conditions. The word scientific in the title is not to be taken as indicating that the art has become a branch of science; that is not possible while so much reliance is placed on mystification and the tricks of the trade. What science there is in palmistry would be better received if not discredited by deception and trickery. In the main the facts are not secured from the hand. The organ may tell whether its owner is a laborer or an idler; its neatness or want of it may decide whether he is an affluent or a lazy idler, and so on; nails, hairs, color, hardness, and the like may tell something, yet general carriage, manners, appearance, shapes, clothes, speech, attitudes, and other features all are made to contribute to a story that in pretence is read off the hand.

There is here good display of the sources of information and of methods of securing and of using it. The instructions for interpreting the lines, mounts, and other points of the palm are very complete, without increasing our respect. It needs little more than the injunctions to the learner to set the so-called art in its true light. One is told to adapt the line to the subject, not the subject to the line; the latter is said to be accurate only when the subject is first understood, and the line applied to him—the interpretation of the line must depend entirely on the kind of subject on which it is seen; laziness or bile may destroy any amount of genuine ability. In a way this may be scientific; it is different with such formulas as—faint lines just beginning to form show emotions just starting to develop; or, the presence of the line of Apollo makes success easier; or, where the hair has been made white by shock you will find a broken or islanded head line; or, in the head line it has been found that the inner workings of the mind are disclosed, etc., etc. A really scientific palmistry would be less attractive to gypsies and other fortune-tellers, and to their dupes, and would drop the gabble about Jupiter, Saturn, Apollo, Mars, Mercury, Venus, and the moon; but how much more honest it would be!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Benjamin, C. T. Selections from Irving's Sketch-Book. (Regents' Edition.) American Book Co. 50 cents.
Blackmar, F. W. The Life of Charles Robinson, the First State Governor of Kansas. Topeka: Crane & Co.
Bradley, A. G. The Fight with France for North America. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Brown, W. B. The Gospel of the Kingdom and the Gospel of the Church. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Brunton, Lauder. On Disorders of Assimilation, Digestion, etc. Macmillan. $4.
Cenni Storici sulle Imprese Scientifiche Marittime e Coloniali di Ferdinando I., Grandduca di Toscana. Firenze: G. Spinelli & Cl.
Cobb, W. F. Theology Old and New. (The Church's Outlook.) London: Elliot Stock; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Cockerell, Douglas. Bookbinding, and the Care of Books. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Colburn, Bertha L. Graded Physical Exercises. Edgar S. Werner Pub. and Supply Co. $1.
Connold, E. T. British Vegetable Galls. E. P. Dutton & Co. $4.
Cooper, E. H. A Fool's Year. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Coubertin, Pierre de. La Chronique de France. Paris: La Chronique de France.
De Forest, J. W. Poems: Medley and Palestina. New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Dewey, John. (1) Psychology and Social Practice; (2) The Educational Situation. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
Eggleston, G. C. The American Immortals. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $10.
Folks, Homer. The Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children. Macmillan. $1.
Frazer, Mrs. J. G. Asinette: A French Story for English Children. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
French, Allen. The Colonials. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gautier, Théophile. Works. Vols. XIII. and XIV.: Travels in Russia. George D. Sproul.
Gilbert, G. H. A Primer of the Christian Religion. Macmillan. $1.
Hall, H. F. Napoleon's Letters to Josephine: 1796-1812. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Hanna, C. A. The Scotch-Irish. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Hensman, Howard. Cecil Rhodes: A Study of a Career. Harpers. $5.
Hinchman, Lydia S. Early Settlers of Nantucket. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. $5.
Hobhouse, L. T. Mind in Evolution. Macmillan. $3.25.
Hope, A. R. Tales for Toby. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Hughes, Eilian. My Island. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Hutchison, Ida W. The Gospel Story of Jesus Christ. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Keller, A. G. Homeric Society. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.20.
Langlois, Ch.-V. L'Inquisition d'après des Travaux Récents. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Edition. 1 fr.
Lanier, J. J. Kinship of God and Man. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Lee, F. B. New Jersey as a Colony and as a State. 4 vols. The Pub. Society of New Jersey.
Le Galliene, Richard. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. New ed. John Lane. $1.50.
Levy, J. H. The Necessity for Criminal Appeal as Illustrated by the Maybrick Case and the Jurisprudence of Various Countries. London: P. S. King & Son; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.20.
Lewis, E. H. A Text-Book of Applied English Grammar. Macmillan. 35 cents.
Life and Works of the Redeemer. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Linnet, Brown. Widow Wiley, and Some Other Old Folk. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Lohse, J. Thoughts from the Letters of Petrarch. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
McCarthy, J. H. If I Were King. R. H. Russell. $1.50.
McLellan, J. A., and Ames, A. F. The Public School Arithmetic for Grammar Grades. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Mortimer, A. G. Lenten Preaching: Three Courses of Sermons for Lent. London: Skeffington & Son; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Oppenheim, Nathan. Mental Growth and Control. Macmillan. $1.
Schurman, J. G. Philippine Affairs. Scribners. 60 cents.
Sledd, Benjamin. The Watchers of the Hearth. Boston: The Gorham Press. $1.25.
Stebbins, Genevieve. Delsarte System of Expression. New ed. Edgar S. Werner Pub. and Supply Co. $2.
Stern, Menco. Geschichten von deutschen Städten. American Book Co. $1.25.
Stevenson, R. L. A Child's Garden of Verses. New ed. Scribners. 60 cents.
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Symons, Arthur. Poems. 2 vols. John Lane.
Ten Brink, Bernhard. The Language and Metre of Chaucer. New ed. Macmillan. $1.50.
Thackeray, W. M. Pendennis. 3 vols. (The Prose Works of William Makepeace Thackeray.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Wilgus, H. L. A Study of the United States Steel Corporation from its Industrial and Legal Aspects. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Willoughby, E. F. Hygiene for Students. Macmillan. $1.25.
Woodbury, Ellen C. D. Q. Dorothy Quincy, Wife of John Hancock. Washington: The Neale Pub. Co. $1.50.
Young, Ella F. Isolation in the School. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 20, 1902.

The Week.

A day was saved in securing some action for the relief of Cuba by the unexpected passage in the House on Monday of the bill repealing all the war taxes, without further debate. Representative Richardson, the leader of the Democratic minority, gave the majority a real surprise by his proposition not to waste time in a discussion which must have been purely academic and perfunctory, since the Republican managers would not allow even a chance for a vote on any amendment. The gross injustice of such methods could perhaps not be so clearly demonstrated by speeches of protest as by this somewhat spectacular method of showing the country how utterly the House has ceased to be a deliberative body. The real responsibility for defining the legislative policy of the Government regarding taxation is deliberately thrown by the lower branch of Congress upon the upper by this action. It is another of those steps by which the House is steadily abdicating influence and power. If the Republican managers in the lower branch propose to take the initiative in reducing the tariff on imports from Cuba, there is no longer any excuse for their delaying action. If, on the other hand, they propose to go on surrendering their prerogatives to the Senate, that branch can the more quickly put through some proposition and send it to the House for acceptance, according to what has become too much the custom. The essential thing is that, by one branch or other, something shall be done for the relief of Cuba at once. The nation is impatient with a Congress which has already sat for nearly three months without discharging the most pressing duty that was laid upon it.

Great has been the flutter caused by the German story that Lord Pauncefote, on April 14, 1898, drew up a note in terms that would have been offensive to the United States—an inconsiderate and dangerous action, which was only thwarted by wiser heads, more particularly those in charge of the German Foreign Office. We cannot greatly blame the Germans for saying that Lord Cranborne, in contradicting the story, came pretty near a verbal quibble in the first place, and then, to save himself, made a scapegoat of Lord Pauncefote. On February 11 Lord Cranborne said in the Commons that England had never, "through her Majesty's Ambassador or otherwise, proposed any declaration adverse to the action of the United States in Cuba." On February 14, apparently after hearing from Lord Pauncefote, the official statement was that he had acted "entirely on his own initiative." This is dangerously near Von Holleben's own phrase about the "initiative" of the British Ambassador. It leaves Lord Cranborne's first statement technically correct, but also leaves the British Foreign Office looking as if it did not quite know what its Ambassador had done "entirely on his own initiative." Such embarrassments are sure to follow when this undignified and irregular way of blurting out diplomatic secrets is fallen into. We quite agree with those English critics of the British Government who say that such half-revelations are wholly improper, and can lead only to international cross-purposes and ill feeling. In the nature of the case, a clean breast cannot be made, and the method of hint and innuendo and fragment ought not to be adopted by a diplomacy that thoroughly respects itself. Quite obviously, the Von Holleben dispatch was published less for the text than for the Kaiser's marginal comment, to the effect that the proposed note was "completely futile and purposeless." This falls pat with the imminence of Prince Henry's visit, and it shows that the German Ambassador and the Kaiser, in view of a desperate situation at Washington, took the wise and friendly course. It was natural that Germany should wish this to be known, and every American should be glad to know it.

But it behooves every American also to recall that every representative of a foreign Power at that memorable conference agreed that the intervention of this Government in Cuba was unjustifiable; that the dispatch of April 10 from the Spanish Foreign Minister had fully met all the demands of Congress, and completely "removed all legitimate cause for war." Right here is a strange anomaly. Every Ambassador at Washington knew of Señor Bernabé's frank and conciliatory note. Not a member of that Congress with which the issues of peace and war then rested had been informed of its *full* significance. Mr. McKinley in the White House knew from Gen. Woodford's dispatch of April 5, which he never communicated (nor was it published till three years had passed), that the basis for a fair adjustment existed; the State Department also knew it. Not another citizen of the United States knew what ought to have been proclaimed from the housetops—that Spain had yielded at nearly every point. It is a murky and disagreeable corner of our diplomatic history, upon which recent discussions of the ante-bellum negotiations have shed a more certain light. To say that England or Germany or any other Power was our friend at that time, means only that it recognized the hopelessness and the positive danger of interfering with a nation lashed to a fury by the sensational press.

Who shall depict the consequences of Secretary Long's speech at Boston on February 12, and especially its effect upon the Filipino mind? It was on the anniversary of Lincoln's birthday, and the Secretary was inspired by the occasion to say that our work of pacification and of instruction in self-government in the Philippines is the work not of a day but of a generation, and he continued in the following phrase:

> "When the time comes that the trust is executed and the ability of self-government is assured, then the question of their political status will be for the people of those islands themselves to decide. Whether they will walk alone and independent, or whether they will walk hand in hand with us as Canada walks with England, they—whoever they shall then be—will decide. And as England respects the wishes of Canada in this regard, so shall we then respect, and ought to respect, the wishes of the Philippines."

This is exactly the kind of talk that Gov. Taft and our chief military authorities, and eke Senator Platt of Connecticut, say is exciting the insurgents to fresh resistance, and undoing the work of our soldiers, and leading to more bloodshed. The Secretary has said in so many words that it will be for the Filipinos themselves to decide whether they shall be an independent nation or shall hold to us the relation that Canada holds to Great Britain. He takes the same position that President Schurman took in his recent address, except as to the time when the Filipinos shall decide the question. Between Secretary Long and Mr. Schurman there is no difference of principle, but only of the time when the Filipinos shall be really fit to govern themselves. Both say that, when they are fit for independence, they shall have it. Whenever such words are spoken by authority of the Government of the United States, the reign of real peace in the Philippines will begin.

Senator Hoar was in his best form in his debate last week with Senator Platt of Connecticut on Philippine affairs. The question under discussion—and the only one in which the American people take much interest—was whether the conditions in the so-called pacified provinces are due to the reconcilement of the inhabitants to American rule, or to the crushing force of our arms. Senator Platt pointed in a triumphant way to the fact that our forces had been reduced from 70,000 men to 40,000, and wanted to know whether that would have been possible if the people were still discontented. Mr. Hoar replied that the

Filipinos had been disarmed, and that a people without arms might be just as hostile as before and yet seem to be pacified. It is well known that the practice of torture known as the "water cure" was put in force in the Philippines expressly to compel the natives to tell where their arms were hidden, and that it was successful in cases where all other means failed. It is not unlikely that a people who have been led to expect the "water cure" as the punishment for having arms, would have intervals of quiescence sufficient to warrant the belief among credulous people on the other side of the globe that they were really reconciled to their conquerors. How the pacification has been brought about was told by Gen. MacArthur in a pregnant paragraph of his final report:

> "The American army has, up to date, secured some 23,000 guns, and in all probability will secure several thousand more."

This is not pacification, but repression.

It is obvious that the decision regarding the Southern question which was reached by the caucus of the Republican Congressmen on Monday night means the abandonment of any serious effort to reduce the representation, in the House and in the electoral college, of States that have adopted Constitutions under which negro suffrage is restricted. A committee of eleven is to be appointed by the Speaker to examine the election laws of the several States and their enforcement, find whether the right of citizens to vote is denied or abridged, and report the results of its investigations. This outcome was accepted by Representatives who have advocated more radical action, while it is entirely satisfactory to Congressman Cannon and other veteran Republican leaders who are earnestly opposed to any attempt at legislation. The inquiry can do no harm, and the investigators themselves are likely to have a more realizing sense of the hopelessness of doing anything after they have studied the question than before.

Secretary Root's latest bill for the improvement of the army, sent to Congress on Friday last, contains by far the most important reforms of the many which have been urged by him since he entered the Cabinet. The bill provides for a large number of changes, but the significant ones are those consolidating the supply departments and creating a general staff. The reforms that Secretary Root has thus far been able to bring about have made for the modernization of different parts of the military organization, such as bringing staff and line into closer touch, and introducing the three-battalion system for the infantry as well as the cavalry. But the greatest deficiency in the army since 1870 has been the absence of a set of officers to plan for the future—to be, as in European armies, the eyes, the ears, and the brains of the service. The necessity for such a staff was made patent to the world by Von Moltke; the need has been officially recognized in this country only since Secretary Root took office; the Spanish war having demonstrated, even to the most partisan mind, the antiquated character of the American military machine.

Under Secretary Root's plan the "General Staff Corps" will consider the military policy of the country, and prepare comprehensive plans for the national defence and for the mobilization of the military forces in times of war." It is also to have supervision of the coöperation of army and navy, of plans of campaign, of the securing and utilization of military information, of the system of army education, armament, equipment, etc. The consolidation of the existing staff departments is still further carried on by the gradual amalgamation of the Inspector-General's Department and the general staff, and the assumption of the duty of inspection by the new body. When the general staff has been created, the officers of the Adjutant-General's Department, now under Gen. Corbin's leadership—the most important part of the staff—will return to their proper positions as military clerks pure and simple. The head of the general staff is to be a lieutenant-general, and after Gen. Miles's retirement in 1903 this officer is to be selected from the generals of the army by the President for a period of four years. The rest of the general staff will comprise one major-general, one brigadier-general, four colonels, six lieutenant-colonels, twelve majors, and twelve captains, all likewise serving for four years, and then returning to their permanent positions in line or staff. It is characteristic of the simplicity of Secretary Root's reforms that the bill does not call for any additional expense, except such as is required for the construction of a home for the general staff at Washington Barracks.

Senator Hanna, in the guise of a "successful merchant," rises to protest against the removal of the war taxes. That surplus in the till has no terrors for him. On the contrary, he dreads lest there be a deficit after all the appropriations for an Isthmian canal and "other great projects" (*scilicet* ship subsidies) are made. Coming down to particulars, he asks if it would be wise to "repeal the beer tax, to the neglect of the American merchant marine." Of course, Senator Hanna is a friend of beer. It would not be "wise," in his sense of wisdom—the political sense—for him not to be. But it is another kind of "schooner" that holds his warmest devotion. If the "oceans of beer" which the prohibitionists see in their excited imaginations were only real, and Mr. Hanna could arrange to have subsidized ships carry the American flag over those foaming billows, he could develop a beautiful theory of community of interest between himself and what he somewhat disparagingly calls "the brewing interests." As it is, however, he thinks that the brewers are getting more of the Treasury surplus than the subsidy beggars, and hence his angry protest against a manifest injustice.

We welcome the shoddy-dealers to the ranks of the free-traders. They have blundered into the procession, to be sure, and their banner carries a protectionist device, but the laughter which they will create all along the line will be worth many an argument. Funnier still, they must stay with the free-traders or march by themselves. The protectionists will have none of them, with their opposition to Representative Grosvenor's bill for the labelling of woollen goods as all wool or part shoddy. Such a measure, say the shoddy-dealers, would ruin their business, and it is quite a business, too—large enough to organize itself into the National Association of Cotton and Wool Waste and Shoddy-Dealers, and strong enough to petition Congress for protection to its interests. And why, Mr. Grosvenor and the Ohio shepherds may be asked, should it not be protected? Is it not a domestic industry, and is it not more worthy of the title "infant industry" than the woollen business? Besides, we must have shoddy, if Grosvenor *et al.* will not let us have wool, and we prefer it without the disquieting label. If it must be labelled, however, how would "Made in America" do?

Prince Henry's coming will bring out one striking advantage of a reform Administration, that of having a Mayor and officers who represent the city creditably. For four years past the Mayor of the city has rarely represented New York as New York deserved to be represented. The boorishness which the late Mayor possibly simulated for political effect, was bitterly resented, and contributed doubtless to his crushing defeat. His feeling was a little that of the genial and exuberant Congressman from Kentucky, who, in his imagination, "boots out" Secretaries of State and orders back foreign ambassadors. "We have made ourselves a laughing stock at every court in Europe," says Congressman Wheeler, "because of our flunkyism, our *truculency*, and the disgraceful sycophancy of the representatives of the republic at the feet of Great Britain." Let us pause a moment upon that beautiful word *truculency* by which the Congressman so aptly and originally describes the grovelling abasement of Mr. Hay at the Court of St. James. We want

no "truculency" in the Kentucky sense. It is a laughable and an odious thing. But "truculency" in the unadorned dictionary sense is also a ridiculous thing, and hardly less contemptible. That kind has been more than once shown at the City Hall to distinguished guests of the city. It is matter for genuine rejoicing that neither kind of "truculency" will be seen at the City Hall during the present Administration. Prince Henry, or any other distinguished foreign guest, will receive from Mayor Low the most democratic of welcomes—the welcome which one gentleman gives another. This, in spite of old-school Tammany politicians and golden-tongued Kentucky Congressmen, is the American way of greeting an obscure or a titled guest.

A much needed amendment to the city charter, covering the appointment of architects for city work, has been introduced at Albany, and should be promptly passed. The Davis bill simply applies to the choice of architects the well-tried principle of an eligible list. The Fine Arts Federation, an institution of high professional standing, is to designate one hundred architects who, in its judgment, are competent to do work for the city. From this list the Mayor is to select fifty, and during his term no building for the city shall be intrusted to any architect not on this second list. We understand, however, that the fact of such a list would not prevent the holding of open architectural competitions, whenever that method should seem desirable. Non-residents, as well as residents, may be nominated by the Federation and the Mayor, which insures, or rather permits, a sufficient catholicity of selection. The object of the amendment is simply to obtain a reasonable standard of architectural merit in public buildings, and to make impossible the rising up of new Horgans and Slatterys. With these objects all good citizens and the Legislature cannot fail to be in sympathy.

The figures of the country's foreign trade in January are really extraordinary. To understand their meaning, it should be noticed that, in the full calendar year 1901, our exports of manufactured goods decreased $46,000,000, and of other non-agricultural products, $4,000,000, but that an increase of $35,000,000 in agricultural experts offset much the greater part of these declines. That such an increase in products of agriculture should have occurred, in the face of $34,000,000 shrinkage in corn exports, was remarkable enough, and was due solely to the very large increase in the outward movement of our wheat. Now, as it happened, wheat exports themselves, at the beginning of 1902, fell off decidedly. They were smaller by 20 to 30 per cent. than in January, 1901, and the whole export trade in agricultural commodities consequently decreased $7,500,000. It might, then, have been supposed that the total decline in exports for the month would be very large. It appears, on the contrary, that the month's entire decrease in exports is measured by the decrease in agricultural products. In other words, shipments of manufactured and other non-agricultural goods, last month, were fully as great as in 1901. When the present trade situation is considered—the decrease in foreign demand, the immense expansion of home consumption in such commodities as iron and steel, and the consequent normal tendency of manufactured exports to decrease—the fact that no decline at all is shown is indeed singular. It is all the more singular from the fact that present prices, from which these export values are computed, are in many commodities 10 to 20 per cent. below last year's—which would naturally make the expected decrease larger. The conclusion which people will probably draw from these returns is that the country's grasp on competitive export trade is stronger even than had been supposed. The seeming anomaly of the case is not lessened by the fact that this trade report appears at a moment when preparations are in progress for large imports of foreign steel and iron, made necessary by the present inability of our manufacturers to meet demands.

The Ontario prohibition bill, which has been introduced by Premier Ross as a non-contentious measure, is a curious example of drastic legislation mitigated by all the law's delays. The bill is simply the Manitoba prohibition act, a measure which has had an unusual history. The Manitoba law forbade, in the most stringent terms, the sale of liquor. Neither hotels, clubs, nor boarding-houses were exempted from its provisions. Invalids might, upon a doctor's prescription, keep liquor in their rooms, but they must not permit any other person to drink it. Premier Ross of Ontario had promised, if the Manitoba act were sustained by the courts, to introduce a similar measure in Parliament. Now that the courts have declared the act Constitutional, the Premier finds himself in the position of being obliged to keep an embarrassing promise. Even in Manitoba the Government has not ventured to apply the act, but is asking for a referendum which shall assure it that the people approve not only the law, but its enforcement. Premier Ross, then, is in the unfortunate position of introducing a bill which, enacted into law in another province, nobody has dared to put in effect.

Considering the necessary awkwardness of the situation, the Premier has managed very skilfully to avoid immediate conflict. The bill is to be presented on the second Tuesday of next October to the voters of the province. That the referendum may be valid, one-half of the voters on the lists must vote; and if a majority are for the measure, it will become law by proclamation, to go into effect, however, only after May 1, 1904, a year and a half after its enactment. Whether Premier Ross will be able to maintain the theory that this is a non-contentious measure is more than doubtful. Already the Conservative papers are pointing out, very justly, that legislation by referendum is of doubtful constitutionality, while it is certainly repugnant to the whole theory of Parliamentary government. In putting off the decision for some months the Premier of Ontario shows that he knows the value of a Fabian policy. Meanwhile the Government of Manitoba may take heart to enforce its own law. If the law, as is very likely to be the case, proves unworkable in a rural community, it will be obviously absurd to try it in the cities of Ontario. Premier Ross is likely to be spared the humiliation of passing a law which nobody wishes enforced, but his present predicament shows how constant is that foible of human nature which is capable of all manner of paper heroics in law-making, provided men are not required to live by laws which are passed for women and clergymen.

In gracefully abandoning its projected naval station and frowning fortresses at Wei-Hai-Wei, Lord Salisbury's Government gives fresh point to the gibe of a witty critic, that his Ministry has been one of "coma tempered by fits." It was in one of the fits that Wei-Hai-Wei was seized. Germany had snapped up Kiao-Chau, Russia had suddenly announced Port Arthur to be hers, and the British Jingo began to rage. It was necessary that the Government be very prompt and vigorous, and accordingly Mr. Balfour informed the Commons that England was also swooping upon the Chinese carcass, and had got Wei-Hai-Wei. The Chauvinist press was in raptures, and the naval experts were delirious with joy. You see: there England was, firmly planted between the rapacious German and the grasping Russian, and ready to show them that she could beat them at their own game of grab. But time has brought its sobering. The second thoughts of the naval experts were against fortifying; it was seen that Britain had nothing to do in that far northern galley; and now the march down the hill has begun. England found that she had acquired, in Lord Rosebery's ironic phrase, "merely a second-class watering place." At least, she knew enough to retreat from a demonstrated folly. We shall yet learn how to do the same thing; but oh the cost of delay in learning, and the pity and the shame of it!

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

It is not strange that the Anglo-Japanese treaty is received with great enthusiasm in Japan. Apart from any immediate advantage which that country may gain by it, the English alliance is a recognition of her rise to a place among the civilized Powers which can only be flattering to her pride. Fifty years ago, Japan was, to all Western nations, simply one of the outlying hordes of barbarians. Until within ten years she was still under treaty obligation to allow foreigners on Japanese soil to be tried by their own extra-territorial courts—so deep was the distrust of native methods. Now, at one bound, Japan comes forward as a nation with which Great Britain is glad to treat on equal terms. It is a vivid reminder of the folly of arrogance of race. Who knows that the despised Filipinos, if given a chance by the removal of foreign pressure, might not make as rapid progress in the next half-century as Japan has made in the past? We ought never to forget the pit whence we ourselves were digged. Go back far enough, and we find our ancestors the inferior race looked upon with contempt by the then leaders of civilization. William Pitt exclaimed in the House of Commons, when a bill to repress the slave trade was up: "We Britons were once as obscure among the nations of the earth, as savage in our manners, as debased in our morals, as degraded in our understandings, as these unhappy Africans are at present."

The drift and tendency of events, long ago foreseen, furnishes a sufficient explanation of the Anglo-Japanese alliance. "Every port, every town, every village that passes into French or Russian hands," says Mr. Curzon, in his 'Problems of the Far East,' "is an outlet lost to Manchester, Bradford, or Bombay." Can England, or England and Japan, or those countries and the United States, stop the progress of Russia in Mantchuria, or in any other part of North China? Probably not; but they may retard it sufficiently to give China an opportunity to become civilized and to help herself to resist the aggression of her northern neighbor. Russia is not yet ready to swallow her prey, and it may be possible for England and Japan to make conditions which shall secure to other nations all the trading rights that they now enjoy. In any such endeavor the United States is a deeply interested party. Accordingly, Secretary Hay has rightly protested against the conclusion of a secret arrangement between the Chinese Government and a Russian banking company, giving to the latter exclusive mining concessions in Mantchuria. Such exclusive concessions would be in conflict with rights secured to us by the treaty with China, dated June 18, 1858, which secures to the citizens of the United States equal privileges with those of any other nation in respect of navigation, commerce, political or other intercourse. An exclusive privilege of mining granted to Russian subjects would be in conflict with the spirit, if not the letter, of this clause. So, too, would be the exclusive privilege of landing telegraph cables on the coast of China for thirty years, which was granted to a Danish company a few years ago, and which has since been acquired by an English company, and approved by Parliament on the 6th of June last, and which effectually prevents the American Pacific Cable Company from reaching the Chinese coast.

Technically, the treaty provides for a coalition only against a coalition. Neither Great Britain nor Japan would be entitled to call upon its ally for aid if either became engaged in a war, for example, against Russia alone. It is only when some "other Power or Powers should join in hostilities" that "the other contracting party will . . . conduct war in common and make peace in mutual agreement." But, as things stand, this practically covers all the chances of war in the Orient, and binds England and Japan to maintain "the *status quo* and general peace." Needless to say, there stands behind the agreement the power to make it respected. The English and Japanese fleets united would absolutely command the China Sea; and Japan could, at present, more quickly fling an efficient army into Korea than could Russia. With the United States neutral, as it would be bound to be in any contest in that part of the world, the union of Japanese and English forces, on land and sea, would obviously be strong enough to enforce their common will.

It cannot be denied that the publication of the treaty is tantamount to serving notice upon Russia that what Baron de Staël at the Hague Conference called her "lurking hopes" (*espérances ultérieures*) in the Orient must, for a long time to come, be held in abeyance. There will be no insinuating Russification of Korea. That country was recognized as independent by both China and Japan in the Treaty of Shimonoseki, as it was later by the Nissi-Rosen protocol between Japan and Russia signed in April, 1898; yet by both the latter Powers it has been almost openly treated as a prize to be striven for. Russia wants Korea, not simply because it is territory to be seized and developed, but also because it stands like a wedge between her two Pacific ports, Vladivostok and Port Arthur. Japan looks eagerly over the Korean gulf to that old "land to the westward" which she conquered more than 2,000 years ago, which has since, though lost to her, sustained the most intimate relations with her—in religion, in art, in commerce—and which to-day stands before Japanese imagination and ambition as the one rich and sparsely settled country into which the overflowing millions of crowded Japan may press. There was thus undoubtedly a bad quarter of an hour in St. Petersburg when the news arrived that England had thrown her sword on the Japanese side of the trembling Korean scales.

Yet the Russians may be excused for sardonically smiling at this new guarantee of the "territorial integrity of China and Korea." Their diplomats have not forgotten the European guarantee of the integrity of the Turkish Empire. In spite of that, province after province and principality after principality have been shorn from the Sultan, mainly by the Russian shears. England stands officially, as Lord Cranborne declared the other day, for "the *status quo* and the integrity of Persia"; yet Russia is steadily annexing it commercially from the north, while Germany is eating into it from the west. "It is all very well," Russians may say, "for those who do not want territory to talk about leaving it in its integrity. We want it. We are taking it and occupying it every day, and mean to keep right on." So they undoubtedly will. They will politely agree to any international understanding which they are forced to accept, but in their steady push into North China, as travellers, colonizers, merchants, they will not be deterred for a day. They have the inside lines. Theirs is the advantage of proximity, of adaptability to native ways, and of sleepless energy. Nothing but a crash in Russian finance (which is always possible) can prevent the speedy absorption of Mantchuria and as much else of Chinese territory bordering on her Siberian possessions as Russia cares to occupy. There still remains a great measure of truth in Napoleon's remark to Gorgaud at St. Helena: "Russia is the Power that marches the most surely, and with the greatest strides, towards universal dominion."

There is a powerful Russophile element in England, led in the press by the *Spectator*, which has long advocated a Russian alliance, and which will see in the friction that Russian diplomacy may easily provoke at different points a proof that Lord Salisbury has once more laid his money on the "wrong horse." From the American point of view, however, he seems to have made a great stroke. The United States is not and cannot be a party to the Anglo-Japanese treaty, but we are vitally interested in it, and stand to gain much by it. It tends to insure peace in the Orient, and our advantage there and everywhere lies in peace. Further than that, the treaty is expressly designed to secure "equal opportunities in those countries for the commerce and industry of all nations." This is a specific pledge of the open door, though none would have been necessary in a treaty to which England set her signature. She is for a fair field and no favors in matters of trade, and that is our

avowed policy in the Orient, as it should be everywhere. There can be no doubt, therefore, that the United States should hail the alliance between Great Britain and Japan as an auspicious event, and should give it the heartiest approval and moral support.

THE PREVENTABLE WAR WITH SPAIN.

Just as Uncle Sam was most chucklingly complacent over the recent diplomatic blabbing in competition, apparently, for American friendship, he was subjected to a cold douche. In the note of the Ambassadors at Washington, given out by Germany, it appeared that they all agreed that the Spanish concessions had "removed all legitimate cause for war." Then unpleasant intimations began to be heard that the President had not informed Congress of the full extent of those concessions. The European press fell to speaking of our not having clean hands when we went to war, and odious comparisons were made between Mr. McKinley's treatment of Gen. Woodford's dispatch and that of the Ems telegram by Bismarck. Thus we are curiously brought back to the important historical inquiry, Did the President have in his hands in April of 1898 a basis for the relief of Cuba and peace with Spain—a basis which a resolute Executive could have used in a way to avert war?

The only answer we propose to give is drawn from the official documents. We put aside the private accounts that have reached us of the way in which the President allowed himself to be overridden by Congressmen. Looking first to the President's own message to Congress of April 11, we find him describing his final demands on Spain as follows: (1) "the immediate revocation of the order of reconcentration"; (2) "an armistice until October 1." The message went on to say that the reply of the Spanish Cabinet was received on March 31, and that it agreed to an armistice only as prepared by the Cuban Parliament, which was not to meet till May 4. This the President called a "disappointing reception" of his "last overture in the direction of immediate peace," and said that with it "the Executive is brought to the end of his effort."

Now, we ask, what was lacking in the statements of this part of the President's message? In the first place, any intimation that Spain had agreed to his demand for the abolition of reconcentration. Yet there it lies in the very dispatch of March 31 to which he refers, but which he did not publish. "The reconcentrados order has been entirely abrogated in the western provinces," wrote the Spanish Minister, and Gen. Woodford telegraphed the same day to the same effect, adding that Gen. Blanco had been given a special credit of 3,000,000 pesetas to help the people back to their farms. All this the President withheld from Congress. So he did also the definite offer of the Queen Regent, reported by Gen. Woodford on April 5, to proclaim an "immediate and unconditional suspension of hostilities in the island of Cuba . . . for the space of six months, to the 5th of October, 1898." Further on in the message, the President referred to the later Spanish note of April 10, with its offer of an armistice, though he said of this armistice that its "duration and details have not yet been communicated to me." They had been, however, in the Woodford dispatch of April 5. Of that he left Congress wholly in ignorance. It was, in fact, jealously guarded in the State Department for more than three years.

All through those later dispatches the President showed a strange disinclination to alter his message to make it square with the new facts. When that moving and pious message of the Queen's was telegraphed him, he replied at once that he highly "appreciated" her "desire for peace," but that his "message will go to Congress to-morrow." The only reason that it did not go was to give Consul Lee time to leave Havana. Not even then was there any hint that the message would be modified to fit the changed situation. Even the Spanish note of April 10 the President tucked away in a cold reference at the very end of his message. That note, he said, had been received "since the preparation of the foregoing message." It ought really to have made him throw away his message and write a new one. But he was so enamoured of it that he could not bear to change a word; and therefore laid it before Congress, with its unmistakable leaning towards war, although he had just received a communication from Spain which, in the opinion of all the foreign Ministers in Washington, "removed all legitimate cause for war." Again we put aside all unofficial stories about the way in which Mr. McKinley came to do this. The official account is given in a dispatch from Mr. Day to Gen. Woodford of March 30, 1898. In that we read that there was "profound feeling in Congress," and that it was held in check "only by assurance from the President that . . . he will submit all the facts to Congress at a very early day"—that is, let the war party have its head.

Some people get angry when told that President McKinley, at that crisis, "abdicated." But he himself admitted it. In his answer, through Mr. Day, to Gen. Woodford's urgent appeal, he said, "The President cannot assume to influence the action of the American Congress." But who said that? Why, the man who had in his own hands the entire negotiation. It was his sworn duty, his solemn obligation, to conduct the affair alone, and to report to Congress, if he could, a completed solution of the grave international problem. Yet instead of seizing eagerly upon the great concession by Spain, and using it to build up an honorable peace, he turned politely away with the remark that he could not think of undertaking to influence Congress! There was the unmistakable surrender of the powers and duties of a great office. What we assert is that a determined Executive, at once accepting and publishing Gen. Woodford's dispatch, hailing it, as he well might, as a great triumph for American diplomacy, and throwing his superseded message into the waste-basket, where it belonged, could have rallied such a peace party throughout the country that a Congress mad for war would have been brought to a muttering submission. There was the great opportunity to prevent the war. It was an "inevitable" war only in the sense that the President of the day was one who would inevitably yield to the pressure of hot-headed Congressmen. "In war," said Napoleon, "*men* are nothing, and *a man* is everything." Unluckily, that man was wanting in those critical days of April, 1898.

THE BILL AGAINST ANARCHISTS.

House Bill 10,386, reported from the Judiciary Committee on February 8, and accompanied by a long explanatory report, is entitled "A Bill for the protection of the President of the United States, the suppression of crime against government, and for other purposes." It is really the residuum of all the bills introduced into the House by excited members since President McKinley's assassination, and represents all that the Judiciary Committee thinks can be done in the way of legal punishment of anarchistic crimes and the suppression of anarchistic doctrines. Some clauses of the bill, as we shall show, are foolish because they are incapable of enforcement; but, on the whole, it is a reasonable and conservative measure, which, after due debate and suitable amendment, might well become the law of the land.

In no respect did the Committee more clearly display its wisdom than in brushing aside the wild proposals which, in the first flurry of grief and indignation last September, were made by apparently sober people, and some of which were embodied in bills introduced in Congress. All criticism of the President, it will be remembered, was to be treated as criminal. Anarchists were to be "strung up" on sight, or else deported to one of Senator Hoar's unnamed islands. All good citizens were, in short, to put down lawless folk lawlessly. But the bill and report of the Judiciary Committee coolly throw all this out of the window. "We have studiously," says Chairman Ray, "avoided interference with the freedom of speech

and of the press." "We have rejected," he observes later, "all propositions looking to the deportation of aliens who have been permitted to land in our country." And he adds the salutary general caution: "We are treading on unknown and untried ground, and it is wise to keep within Constitutional limits." All this is well and soundly put. It is naturally a pleasure to us to see the Judiciary Committee supporting in this way the position which we took in that mad week in September when the passion for "putting down" anarchy by anarchical methods seized upon, and carried away, so many ordinarily sensible newspapers and public leaders and clergymen.

The chief aim of the bill is to establish immediate Federal jurisdiction over criminal assaults upon the President of the United States, or any officer "entitled by law to succeed to the Presidency." One section extends such jurisdiction to the case also of an "Ambassador or Minister of a foreign state," killed while in this country. This is by way of abundant precaution, but seems a proper step towards safeguarding and making more dignified the attitude of this Government towards others. If it could be followed up by a statute giving Federal courts jurisdiction in case of any alien murdered in this country, we should think it a great advance. But that, we suppose, is at present impossible. The bill is guarded in its definition of the crimes it would punish. The assault or murder must be committed while the Federal officer is "in the performance of his official duties, or because of his official character." Private griefs and private vengeance are excluded. Section 8 uses the phrase "unlawful killing," which the report explains as intended to rule out killing under great provocation, or in self-defence, or in any way that would constitute a legal justification. Finally, as Chairman Ray points out, the enactment of the proposed statute would not prevent a State from punishing the offence of killing or assaulting the President or any one in the line of succession. The aim is to arm the general Government with a weapon which it may use in case of inaction by any State.

All these parts of the bill appear to be in line with judicial precedent and the canons of good legislation. No cruel or unusual punishments are provided. The section which would make a "principal offender" of "any person who aids, abets, incites, or conspires with another" to commit the offences named in the bill, does not, we believe, depart from the existing law of conspiracy. There is little ground for criticism, in fact, until we come to those sections intended, not to repress and punish crime, but to repress and punish anarchism. Here the bill stumbles, as does every man who undertakes to legislate against a state of mind. It is one thing to draft a law for fining or imprisoning "any person who advocates, advises, or teaches the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful killing or assaulting of one or more of the officers of the Government," but quite another to devise a criminal statute against any man "who disbelieves in or who is opposed to all organized government."

Under the bill, no man holding those abstract views shall be permitted to enter the United States, nor, if he is already here, allowed to take out papers as a naturalized citizen. The impossible enforcement of this section is discreetly left to that unhappy man, the Secretary of the Treasury, who is to make the needed "rules and regulations." As the report innocently says, "the details" are left to him. But the details are everything. Any one may express a pious wish that no immigrant of anarchistic principles should be allowed to land. But how to find out if he has those principles? By the very hypothesis, he is a man who will stop at no crime. He would kill every Government official cheerfully, and lay whole cities in ashes without the quiver of an eyelid; yet it is supposed that he will have scruples about lying or perjury! We doubt very much if these unenforceable sections of the bill can survive debate in the House and Senate; and we are confident that, if they do, they will instantly become the deadest of dead letters. It seems a pity to encumber with such rubbish a bill which, in the main, is so commendable.

POSTER REGULATION.

It has long been recognized that a certain kind of vulgar advertising is a positive disfigurement of city-street or rural landscape; and various sporadic efforts, chiefly on the ground of good taste, have been made to remedy the evil. A decision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court of New York has established the principle that a city —Buffalo in the test case—may by ordinance limit the size of posted advertisements. This was virtually to declare that a certain kind of advertising is so great an offence to the eye as to constitute a public nuisance, and, being such, falls as properly under restrictive laws as reeking chimneys or malodorous factories. It was probably this decision that heartened the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society to prepare the admirable bill now before the State Legislature.

Assemblyman Landon's bill follows conservatively the approved lines of French and Belgian legislation on this subject. It imposes upon all posted advertisements, except those displayed where the business advertised is actually conducted and those required by law, a stamp tax of one cent for every two square feet—reckoned by the greatest height and breadth of the printed or pictured surface—of posters displayed in public. In consideration of the payment of this tax, the advertiser receives the additional guarantee of a fine of $5.00 upon any person who destroys or defaces a poster properly stamped. The tax is a very moderate one. The average poster displayed at the stations of the elevated railroad and the publishers' placards at the news-stands would be taxed one or two cents. The larger paintings on the hoardings—pity that this kind of art cannot be honored with a surtax—would pay only from twenty-five cents to a dollar or so. It is to be feared that a colossal codfish-bearer, who reminds passers on the Brooklyn Bridge that New York is primarily a centre of coughs, colds, and consumption, would, under the proposed law, be able to ransom himself at a ludicrously low price for the disfigurement he causes.

In fact, criticism of the Landon bill must be chiefly of its conservatism. In France and Belgium, posters are taxed progressively by size. In France, posters up to 7 inches square are taxed one cent; 7 to 10 inches, two; 10 to 14 inches, three; all larger, four cents. Painted advertisements are taxed at a much higher rate, on a sliding scale, according to the population of the city in which they are displayed. In a general way the French taxes are from three to four times those proposed in the Landon bill. In Belgium the minimum rate is practically that which is to be tried in New York, but every increase in area beyond the statutory 196 square inches (14 inches square) is so heavily taxed that very large posters are practically prohibited. When the new law—for we must assume that so admirable a measure will meet no serious opposition in the Legislature—has been tried for a year or two, it will be easy to make amendments, possibly such as should discriminate against the larger, and certainly more unsightly, class of painted advertisements. The important thing is to establish the principle that posters may and should be taxed.

Besides the Supreme Court decision already cited, there are numerous arguments for this innovation. Unquestionably the massing of large and hideous advertisements is something more than a sentimental offence. If the wall of Central Park could be lined with hoardings like the approaches to New York through the Newark meadows, the effect in diminishing the residential desirability, and consequently the price, of real estate would be quickly felt. Similarly, if less markedly, to deface a beautiful countryside by the appeals of pill-men and pad-men, distinctly lowers its standing, not only from the æsthete's point of view, but also from the real-estate agent's. It need not be urged that the multiplication of advertising boards which obscure the street sign,

partially at our elevated stations and completely at those of the London underground, is a nuisance of the most palpable kind. In this connection the petition of Mr. Maltbie, Chairman of the Committee on Advertising Signs of the Municipal Art Society, deserves attention. He asks Comptroller Grout that no advertising signs shall be allowed in the proposed subway to Brooklyn, and he cites the example of various English cities which, upon assuming control of the street railways, have, as a matter of municipal pride and expediency, entirely abolished all posters in the cars and stations. It is hardly necessary to argue further the proposition that he who offends the eye grievously is quite as amenable to restriction as he who offends the ear or the nose.

We should not, however, look upon ourselves as sinners above other men in this matter. We have not yet produced any advertising mechanism so monstrously absurd as the average London 'bus; and if the English have preceded us in this reform, it was because their need was greater. It should not be for a moment imagined, either, that the Landon bill is drawn in a spirit of hostility to legitimate advertising. The advertisers can but gain by withdrawing from the scramble and studying effective means of attracting the passing throng. The shrewdest advertisers have long ago perceived that an attractive design and legend in the right place is worth many blatant hoardings in any place. The great multiplication of ugly pictorial signs, in fact, probably represents rather the enthusiasm of the advertising agencies than the sober judgment of the individual advertiser. It is because the Landon bill is so much in the interest of all concerned that we confidently urge its enactment into law.

ROYALTY AT THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, January 15, 1902.

The present royal family in England have shown themselves so indifferent to art, or rather so ready to prefer the vulgar and the tawdry to the good, that one is apt to forget what distinguished patrons of art British Kings and Queens have been in the past. The name of Holbein adds greater glory to the House of Tudor. The Stuarts would be half forgotten but for Van Dyck, and, in a lesser degree, Lely and Kneller. Even the Georges had the intelligence to recognize—though dimly—the distinction they could borrow from the great painters of their day, from Reynolds and Gainsborough, Romney, Hoppner, and Lawrence. It was really not until the Victorian era that the second-rate and the mediocre came into fashion at court. There was, therefore, every reason to look forward to a fine and important collection of portraits when the New Gallery announced the "Monarchs of Great Britain and Ireland" as the subject of its winter exhibition.

But, unfortunately, the managers of the exhibition seem to have been seized with unnecessary scruples. Within the last decade there have been Tudor and Stuart and Guelph shows at the New Gallery, where many fine portraits were hung. These portraits, apparently, the managers have hesitated to hang again lest they risk the charge of repetition. A good thing, however, cannot be seen too often; indifferent work is not worth seeing once; and by far the greater number of portraits in the present collection are of indifferent merit.

Historically, the series is wonderfully complete, and for the student of history the interest is great. From Edward III. down to Edward VII., there is not a break, not a gap, in the royal succession. There is even a record of so remote an event as the marriage of St. Ethelreda to Egfrid, King of Northumberland, though, to be sure, the record itself dates no farther back than the fifteenth century. It was the misfortune of the earlier kings that none but the Primitive was then alive to paint them. Sometimes, if not always, the Primitive came from abroad. Lucas Cornelisz and Jan de Mabuse are names with which some of the first pictures are labelled. But while the Primitive might give an amusing chronicle of amusing costume, a decorative design in which the heraldic device in one corner and the lettering in another are as important as the face and figure of the sitter, he could not make the men and women he painted live for you, he could not make them stand upon their legs, real human beings of flesh and blood. In all the portraits before Holbein, and in many after, the kings and queens seem mere symbols of royalty, though often the symbol suggests what you cannot help feeling to be an accurate likeness. The three or four portraits of Henry V. bear a striking resemblance one to another; in each the same serious, thoughtful face, only the full red lips reminding you that this stern, ascetic monarch was once the boon companion of Falstaff, the hero of revels at the Boar in Eastcheap. The heavy cheeks, little bead-like eyes, and thin lips are the same in every portrait of Henry VIII.; but then, by this time Holbein had come to England and given lesser painters a model. There are several portraits of Henry and Edward VI. and other members of the same royal family attributed to Holbein; but I believe it is generally admitted that few paintings of the kind in England are really by him, and I know that none at the New Gallery could, with credit to the German master, be claimed for him. On the other hand, there is the large cartoon lent by the Duke of Devonshire, drawn by Holbein for the fresco at Whitehall that was long since destroyed by fire; a splendid piece of drawing. In the foreground of a stately architectural design, the life-size, full-length figure of Henry VIII. swaggers, large, massive, the legs well apart in the familiar pose; the costume is the one that has been copied again and again, until we know it as well as the coat and trousers of to-day; the gross, sensual face is as real to us as the unforgettable features of Velasquez's Philip or Van Dyck's Charles. Henry VII., on a higher step, stands modestly in the background. A copy was made of the fresco for Charles II. by a Flemish painter, Remigius van Leemput, and may now be seen at Hampton Court, offering a suggestive comparison with the cartoon. There are also three or four Holbein drawings of Edward VI. and Jane Seymour, characteristic outline drawings, touched here and there with color. But one remembers regretfully the fine series at the Tudor Exhibition.

After the Holbeins, little will detain the artist until he comes to the Van Dycks. For the historian, I admit there is much to note by the way: the forbidding portraits of Mary Tudor—the face so cruel, hard, and fanatical you are ready to believe any evil of her, and neither Sir Antonio More nor Lucas de Heere made an effort to soften it, whatever pleasure they took in her rich brocaded and jewelled robes; the extraordinary portraits of Elizabeth, her incredible gown embroidered with birds and beasts and fishes, a museum of natural history, as you see it in the large canvas (by an unknown painter) lent by the Duke of Devonshire, whereas in the three portraits by Zucchero the ruff, with its wide gauze wings, the balloon sleeves, with tulips springing from them in one version, the necklace, the ostrich-feather fan, are all woven into an ingenious decoration in which the face almost disappears; the disappointing portraits of Mary Stuart, that cannot explain her charm, but that no doubt will revive old controversies—among them, one of the "memorial portraits" painted long after her death, a full-length with the scene of her execution realistically recorded in the background, and, far more interesting, a small panel by Janet of the Queen in the famous *deuil blanc* for Francis. I suppose even the portraits of James I., by Jameson, and his Queen, by Van Somer, will attract the historian, but they have left a blank in my memory. Or, perhaps, I have forgotten them because of my more acute disappointment when I got so far in this rapid historical review as the Stuart who, of all the British sovereigns, cared most for art and worked most intelligently for its encouragement. Charles I., whatever his weaknesses, whatever his crimes toward his people if you will, was great in his love for art. His pride was his collection of pictures, to which the nation still owes many of its treasures. His delight was in being painted by the masters of his time. He was as royal in his patronage of Van Dyck as Philip IV. was in the honor paid to Velasquez. And Van Dyck returned the royal favor by making the King, the Queen, and the little princes and princesses the motives for his most splendid masterpieces. What he could do for the House of Stuart was shown in the Van Dyck Exhibition at Antwerp, and even more strikingly when that exhibition was transferred to the Royal Academy, with many notable additions.

But the New Gallery, whether fearing to find the public fickle, or whether failing to induce owners to part so soon again with pictures on tour but a year or two ago, has not included one of the portraits that were the glory of those two memorable collections. Of the six that bear Van Dyck's name, none but the Queen Henrietta Maria lent by Mr. Edmund Davis stands out with anything like the distinction expected of Van Dyck at his best. This, however, is very charming, though with a touch of insipidity or over-prettiness that makes one question how it would have stood the test of being seen at Antwerp or the Royal Academy. It is a half-length. The Queen, in her fa-

vorite white, stands, resting her right hand on a crown set upon a table at her side. A curtain is drawn up and loosely draped behind her. It is the conventional setting of the fashionable portrait of Van Dyck's day; but there is grace and dignity in the pose of the Queen, beauty in the soft warm red of the curtain (the color repeated in a higher key by the ribbons on her bodice), and refinement in the painting of the jewels about her neck and wrists. The portrait, in its richness of tone and its perfect pictorial unity, has just "the little more" that separates it for ever from the barren, matter-of-fact record of the painter who, before photography was invented, made of himself a human camera.

Certainly nothing in the Gallery can approach it until the later Hanoverian period, when one most lovely Gainsborough is reached. But you must first pass a flamboyant series of Lelys and Knellers — Charles II.'s sensual, cynical face, and James's rather characterless features, almost as overshadowed by the decorative glory of flaming wig and gorgeous silks as Queen Elizabeth's by elaborate detail of ruff and embroidered gown, while neither of the fashionable portrait-painters is as well represented as he might be. You must first wade through a dreary succession of big full-lengths, formal and empty, painted mostly by Van der Vaart and Jervas, of the early Hanoverians. But then, at last, you have your reward in Gainsborough, to whom both George III., though Benjamin West was his favorite painter, and Queen Charlotte condescended to sit. It is plain, however, that he found the burden of such commonplace royalties all too heavy. The portraits are full-lengths, the King and Queen standing each before the conventional background of architecture and landscape then in vogue, and Gainsborough managed to give to "Farmer George" and "good old ugly Queen Charlotte" something of the regal dignity that probably never was discerned in them save by the eye of genius, even if he could not pretend the enthusiasm he did not feel. To him also came the Duke of Gloucester and his Duchess, the famous Maria Walpole, the beautiful niece who figures so largely in Horace Walpole's Letters. But Duke and Duchess also failed to inspire him, and these four portraits are interesting chiefly because of the history and gossip with which they are associated. It is another matter, however, with his "Anne Luttrell, Mrs. Horton, Duchess of Cumberland," whom we should think enchanting were there no title or tradition to identify her. The portrait is a half-length, very much smaller than the other canvases, and now hanging modestly in a corner. The composition is simplicity itself. The conventional background is omitted. But the beautiful head with the elaborate coiffure, the pale rose-red gown, with the delicate fichu and embroidered scarf, were to Gainsborough motives for one of the loveliest harmonies he ever created.

With the canvases that follow, interest dwindles, the names of Romney, Hoppner, and Lawrence scarcely reviving it, until it disappears utterly in the performances of the Victorian Era. Queen Victoria may have had excellent political advisers, but in art she was allowed to wander hopelessly astray. When the choice of a painter fell to her, she seemed instinctively to prefer the least distinguished. When an artist of note chanced to be commissioned by some one else to paint the royal portrait, he seldom could withstand the deadening, vulgarizing influence of the Victorian court. One or two unimportant records of important events in the early part of the reign, and a sketch by Hayter, mark the beginning of the period. The end is commemorated in that huge stretch of canvas, "Four Generations," by Mr. Orchardson, the Royal Academician, which was exhibited in the Academy of 1899. I described it at the time—the big, ugly, stiff royal apartment, really a corridor at Windsor Castle, with the ugly detail beautifully rendered, and with the royal group, Queen Victoria, the then Prince of Wales and Duke of York, and the little Prince Edward of York, as wooden and lifeless and mechanically posed as if they were so many lay figures or tailor's dummies arranged for a fashion-plate. Mr. Orchardson is an artist of distinction, but, for the moment, royalty paralyzed him. The collection ends with a full-length of the King by Mr. Stuart-Wortley, which is commonplaceness itself, and a little panel by Bastien-Lepage, dating many years further back, almost as commonplace, though technically infinitely better. The head is finished with the minuteness of a miniature, but it is so characterless, so smooth and smirking, so idealized, I can hardly believe it to be the portrait, or even the study for that portrait, which rumor declared the King, as Prince of Wales, rejected because of its uncompromising realism.

Scattered through the galleries are two or three cases of miniatures in which royalty makes a more decorative display. There are good examples of Holbein, Janet, Hilliard, Oliver, Petitot, Cosway, from various collections; little gems, many of them, by masters who understood an art that has been sadly dishonored by its recent fashionable revival. The old miniature-painters knew how to place a head, or a figure, on their little square or oval of ivory or paper, so as to make a fine design; they knew how to give it the beauty of color, they knew how to draw within the limits at their disposal without any sacrifice of character. I can only hope the good result of showing such an admirable series will be felt in the two annual exhibitions of miniatures now held in London, where the touched-up photograph seems to be the standard accepted.

These historical exhibitions are never complete without a liberal supply of "relics," and relics now appear in the usual variety and number. They are the things that appeal most keenly to the large majority. As a grave Scotchman, at the Press view, assured me, there is a never-failing pleasure in dropping a sentimental tear on the shirt of Charles I. or a lock of his hair. The New Gallery offers an unrivalled opportunity for the admirers not only of the Stuarts, but of the Plantagenets, Tudors, and Guelphs. Many and various are the objects in this section, from the baby linen made by Queen Elizabeth, while still a princess, for the child Queen Mary never bore—tragic little caps and shirts—to the gorgeous gold-embroidered robes which George IV., the first gentleman of Europe, wore at his coronation; from the jewels of the Stuarts to the rich official plate of the Hanoverians; from the signet ring of King John to the pens used by Queen Victoria at her coronation and wedding. It would be impossible to describe all these things in detail. Some come from South Kensington, others from royal and private collections, and many an afternoon could be spent amusingly, even profitably, wandering from one case to another of the several that contain them. The Society of Antiquaries have contributed an interesting series of the royal seals of England, and Messrs. Lincoln & Son a collection of gold and silver coins, extending from Norman days to our own. It is impossible to look at them without regretting that the designer of the new coins just issued, bearing the head of King Edward VII., did not rely less upon his own poor powers of invention and more upon a careful study of earlier artists. Of armor just enough is shown to decorate the large square central hall, lending to it quite the air of an apartment of state in some fine old castle or noble mansion. Of royal letters and manuscripts there are more than I can do justice to at the end of an article.

N. N.

THE MOTHER OF THREE KINGS.

PARIS, February 1, 1902.

M. Stryienski edited, a few years ago, the very interesting memoirs of the Countess Potocka. He now publishes a book which contains not so much original matter, but which is, nevertheless, valuable, since, according to the rules of the new historical school, there are to be found in it some inedited documents. The title of it is 'The Mother of the Three Last Bourbons, Marie-Josèphe de Saxe, and the Court of Louis XV.'; but it should have been: 'The Mother of the Three Last Bourbon *Kings*.'

The son of Louis XV. had two wives. It is well known that he was passionately fond of the first, the Infanta of Spain. María Terésa Raphaëlli, daughter of Philip V. and of Elizabeth Farnese, arrived from Spain in 1745, and died eighteen months afterwards in giving birth to a princess who likewise died. María Terésa had pleased nobody at the French court, except her husband, who was also only seventeen years old. He became immediately very fond of her, and twenty years afterwards, in his will, written *in articulo mortis*, he asked that his heart should be placed at St. Denis near the heart of the Infanta. The Court of Madrid and a great party at Versailles desired that the Dauphin should marry at once Antonia, the sister of María Terésa. But at that time there was still a great repugnance to unions between brothers-in-law and sisters-in-law (these marriages continued forbidden in France in the Code Napoléon, and became legal only after the Restoration). As France was at the time at war with Austria, the Princess chosen was a daughter of the Elector of Saxony, who was on the throne of Poland. Marie-Josèphe de Saxe was only fifteen years old. M. Stryienski gives us, with the most minute details, the story of the negotiations which preceded the marriage, of all the ceremonies, of the Court functions, and of the popular rejoicings which accompanied this event. The marriage was celebrated on the 9th of February, six months after the death of the first Dauphiness.

The principal negotiator in the affair of the Saxon marriage was the conqueror of Fontenoy, the famous marshal Maurice de

Saxe, who, by his victories, had obtained great credit at the Court of Versailles. His letters are more amusing than are mere diplomatic documents. For instance, he is describing the French Court to the mother of the young Princess:

"To succeed here," says he, "there must be no superciliousness nor familiarity. . . . The women of the Court all have *esprit* like devils and are correspondingly wicked. They will never be wanting in respect to her [the future Dauphiness], but they will try to involve her in the quarrels which they have perpetually among themselves, and this is far from laughable or amusing. The King does the same. If anything displease her, let her address herself directly to the King. . . . He is the only person in the Court with whom she must have no reserve. She must look upon him as her asylum, her father, and tell him everything, good or bad, as it comes, without any disguise. With all the rest, I recommend reserve. If she practises that, he will adore her."

The Queen, he continues, "is a good princess, who often has her little whims, but who has never known what to do to get them humored." As for the Dauphin,

"he has much *esprit*, more than he seems to have. The King likes him much more for his docility, I believe, than for any other reason. I noticed that last year people made an estrangement between father and son [this was on account of Madame de Pompadour, the friend of Maurice de Saxe; he does not name her in his letter, but the Queen of Poland probably understood the allusion]. The King did not cease to make advances to the Dauphin till he won him back to him. They now get on well together and it is necessary, for the good of the state and the good of everything, that the Princess should always keep this point in view, and that she should work incessantly to preserve the union between father and son. She will thus obtain the confidence of both and the respect of all."

The Dauphin was attached to the memory of his first wife. He had made a sacrifice to reasons of state in remarrying. M. Stryienski pretends that he was not always faithful to his second wife, and that she had on various occasions a right to complain of him. On this point we find him opposed to the tradition which represents the son of Louis XV. as a prince of almost austere virtue. The intimacy became, however, complete after a great malady of the Dauphin's, during which his wife took the greatest care of him. The Dauphiness had her first son in 1751, and then four others in rapid succession. The names given to these children were the following: Dukes of Burgundy, of Aquitaine, of Berry, Counts of Provence and of Artois. The Duc de Berry became Louis XVI., the Comte de Provence Louis XVIII., the Comte d'Artois Charles X. Then came two princesses, the second of whom was the unfortunate Madame Elisabeth. Marie-Josèphe was entirely engrossed in her maternal cares, and took no part in politics. Her position had been from the beginning very difficult between her husband, the King, the King's sisters, and the favorite, Madame de Pompadour. She always maintained a great attachment for her own country, and took much interest in the incidents of the Seven Years' War. She hoped for a moment that Saxony would receive an increase of territory, but her hopes were disappointed. The humiliations of Saxony during the Seven Years' War were a great blow to her pride and her affections, as they deeply affected her father and her mother, whom she had never seen since she came to France, and who both died without having the consolation of saying good-bye to her.

She had other troubles and losses very close to her. The eldest of her daughters died very young, as well as her second son, the Duc d'Aquitaine. She lost the Duc de Bourgogne later, when the child was already ten years old. This child seems to have resembled in many respects the pupil of Fénelon who bore also the name of the Duc de Bourgogne; he was naturally very violent and irascible, but gradually became mild and amenable. He was extremely pious, but even when he received religious lessons of humility, he did not forget who he was. When the story of Esau was told him, he was already ill and in bed; he protested that he would never sell his birthright for a mess of pottage, not even for a return to health. The Dauphin himself fell ill during some military manœuvres at Compiègne, and became consumptive. He had grown very much attached to his wife, for their common sorrows had brought them nearer to each other. They lived together with great simplicity. He called her Pepa; when he felt himself dying, he insisted upon her staying near him, contrary to the rules of royal etiquette.

After his untimely death, Marie-Josèphe wrote to a bishop who was her friend: "I don't know any more what it is to be happy. I come and go, I speak, I even laugh at times, but sorrow never goes out of my heart; all that might give pleasure gives me pain, for it reminds me of my misfortune. All the pleasure I have is to weep over what I have lost, and to speak of him with those who really loved him." She now occupied herself exclusively with the education of her children. When the Duc de Berry was of marriageable age, she was not consulted in the choice of a wife. The King announced to her that, for political reasons, he was inclined to choose an Austrian princess. She merely said that the late Dauphin had other views for his son; she added that the best way to keep the Court of Vienna in a proper state of feeling was to keep it between fear and hope. After some time, however, the marriage with Marie Antoinette was decided on; this marriage was the work of the Duc de Choiseul.

Marie-Josèphe fell ill, and for some time was treated by the famous Genevese doctor, Tronchin. It was of no avail; she died, on the 13th of March, 1767, and was buried next to her husband. Her life had not been a very happy one; what would her thoughts have been if she had been able to prophesy the dramatic, we may say the tragic, destiny of her three sons, who were all fated to wear the French crown? Victor Hugo, in his "Voix Intérieures," speaks of the early days of these three princes, and of Marie-Josèphe, their mother. Alluding to the future, he says:

"Dieu! comme avec terreur leur mère épouvantée
Les eût contre son cœur pressés, pâle et sans voix,
Si quelque vision, troublant ces jours de fêtes,
Eût jeté tout à coup sur ces fragiles têtes
Ce cri terrible: 'Enfants, vous serez rois tout trois'!

. . . . . .

De vous trois enfans, sur qui pèse
L'antique masure française,
Le premier sera Louis Seize,
Le dernier sera Charles X."

And, after an allusion to the scaffold on which fell the head of Louis XVI., speaking of Louis XVIII. and Charles X., he adds:

"Le règne de Louis, roi de quelques bannis,
Commence dans l'exil, celui de Charles y tombe.
L'un n'aura pas de sacre, et l'autre pas de tombe:
A l'un Reims doit manquer, à l'autre Saint-Denis."

Correspondence.

SIR C. FURNESS'S SHIP-BUILDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for December 26, 1901 (p. 484), the statement is made that Sir Christopher Furness "left in American shipyards orders aggregating four million dollars for twelve steamers of an average carrying capacity of eight thousand tons"; and the comment is made that this is an "untimely confirmation of the well-known fact that this is the best place in the world to buy ships."

May I ask whether it is certain that any such order was placed in the United States? My own impression, on reading the item in the daily press, was just the opposite of what you report. I have since been informed, on the authority of *Fairplay:*

"It is reported that Sir Christopher Furness, while in the United States last month, arranged for the building of six oil-tank steamers of about eight thousand tons dead weight each. It is believed that the vessels will be constructed on the North-east Coast."

In this paragraph the reference is, I believe, to the northeast of England, Sir Christopher having a large shipyard at West Hartlepool.

The matter is one of such considerable interest that I should like to be more certain of just what occurred. If it was a sale instead of a purchase, it surely ought not to be used to support the claim that ships can be built more cheaply in the United States than in England.—Yours respectfully, HENRY RAND HATFIELD.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, February 8, 1902.

[It would appear that we had misread; but we cannot at this moment verify our source.—ED. NATION.]

NEW YORK ANTICIPATED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this week's publication you say: "An admirable feature of our revised charter is the provision which allows the head of any administrative department to occupy a seat in the Board of Aldermen and authorizes him to participate in its discussions." You close the editorial by saying that, so far as you can recall, this is the first time this principle has been applied in this country.

I would call your attention to the fact that, under the new city charter of Baltimore, all heads of departments have seats in the First Branch of the City Council, which is the popular branch, and have the right to participate in discussions. This system, among the many other very excellent provisions of the new city charter, has been in operation here about two years.

Knowing that you wish to be fair in all matters, except as to Southern ques-

tions, I take the trouble to give you this information.—Very respectfully,

CONWAY W. SAMS.

BALTIMORE, February 13, 1902.

[And we take the trouble to thank our correspondent for jogging our memory, though the matter is municipal, and not Southern.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the editorial note in your issue of the 13th instant, relative to heads of administrative departments occupying seats in legislative bodies, I beg to call your attention to the fact that the city of Cleveland has had this provision in its charter since the present Federal Plan Law went into effect, some nine or ten years ago.

I believe there has never been any question as to the desirability of this feature of the law. Under this provision the Mayor and his Cabinet, who are the heads of the administrative departments, occupy seats in the City Council without vote.

Respectfully, JOE C. BEARDSLEY.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WORKS, CLEVELAND, O., February 15, 1902.

CONTEMPORARY GERMAN LITERATURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Those who would like to know more about recent developments in German literature will be glad of the letters which Prof. Charles Harris is sending to the *Nation* from Berlin. Considering our large German population, it is surprising how little is known in this country about German authors of the present day. Paul Heyse, Rosegger, and Spielhagen belong properly to a past generation. Of those who have become distinguished within the past ten or fifteen years it may be doubted whether any names except Hauptmann's and Sudermann's are at all known in this country. Not long ago Mr. Julian Hawthorne had occasion to review the translation of a novel by the well-known German writer, Richard Voss (I think it was called 'Sigurd Eckdahl's Bride'). Evidently he had never heard of Richard Voss, for he took for granted that the story was written by some Scandinavian.

For some reason our literary journals seldom refer to contemporary German literature. In 1900 occurred the death of a German novelist of some note, Ernst Eckstein, but I did not see any reference to it in the New York *Bookman* or the Chicago *Dial*, both of which I was then taking. On the other hand, *Das Litterarische Echo*, a magazine of the same class published semi-monthly in Berlin, has regular letters from both London and New York, from which we may infer that every new American writer of promise is brought to the notice of the German literary public.

Those who would like to see recent German novelists treated from the view-point of Christian morality would do well to procure a fifty-page pamphlet by Ulrich von Hassell entitled 'Streiflichter auf die Unterhaltungs-Litteratur der letzten 20 Jahre.' He divides recent German novelists into three classes: first, "Die Jüngstdeutschen" and "Modernen," who follow Zola, and, in the frantic desire to be realistic, are not governed by any limitations of purity or propriety; second, the distinctly Christian writers, like Emil von Grotthuss and Peter Rosegger. But between the two he puts those whom he calls "independent" and "neutral." Among these an honorable place is given to the subject of Professor Harris's last letter, Georg Freiherr von Ompteda.

HERBERT MORISON CLARKE.

ELDRED, PA., February 13, 1902.

Notes.

Mr. Worthington Chauncey Ford is about to print, in a limited edition for subscribers, the journals of the sessions of the General Court of Massachusetts for May, July, and August, 1715—the year which marked the beginning of a series of printed reports nowhere extant in their entirety. He will follow a copy belonging to Judge Samuel Sewall, the diarist, and will supplement it (in default of any printed original of the November journal—there was none—and of the manuscript, which has been destroyed) with the Minutes of the Governor and Council for that session. These are quite inedited. The volume will, to judge from the prospectus, be elegant and stately, and will be bound in paper boards with cloth back. Mr. Ford's address is No. 11 Prescott Place, Lynn, Mass.

A manuscript work of Martin Luther has been recently discovered in the library of a deceased Russian prince, noted as a scholar and bibliographer, and is now in the possession of his daughter, who prefers to sell it directly to some public or private library, in which it would be permanently preserved. The contents consist of miscellaneous theological treatises, written chiefly in Latin (although a few of the final pages are in German), and not printed in any edition of Luther's writings. The volume has, therefore, not merely an autographic, but also a real literary value. It contains 552 pages of rather heavy paper bound in vellum. On the fly-leaf are the words, "D. Martini Lutheri Autographa Manuscripta Theologia Miscellanea," with the date 2. Aug. Año 1547, and the name Wolfgangus. This would seem to imply that after Luther's death on February 18, 1546, the manuscript became the property of Luther's most enthusiastic friend and supporter, Wolfgang, Prince of Anhalt, who, on account of his zeal in promoting the Reformation, was put under ban and temporarily deprived of his sovereignty by Charles V. The genuineness of the MS. appears to be undisputed. Here is a rare chance for some one to secure it, say, for the Germanic Museum at Harvard.

The latest Clarendon Press publications include editions of 'The Lay of Havelok the Dane,' by W. W. Skeat; 'The Complete Works of John Gower,' volume four, by G. C. Macaulay; 'Plays and Poems of Robert Greene,' by J. Churton Collins; and 'Elizabethan Critical Essays (1570-1603),' by G. Gregory Smith. Also, 'The Troubadours of Dante,' by H. J. Chaytor; 'A Summary Catalogue of Bodleian MSS.,' volumes five and six, by F. Madan; 'British Colonies and Protectorates,' by the late Sir Henry Jenkyns; the 'Life and Correspondence of Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex,' by R. B. Merriman; 'The Memoirs of Bishop Burnet,' by Miss H. C. Foxcroft; 'A History of the Peninsular War,' by C. W. C. Oman; the seventh volume of the late J. E. Thorold Rogers's 'History of Agriculture and Prices'; 'An Antiquarian Companion to English History,' by F. P. Barnard; and an authorized translation of Schimper's 'Geography of Plants,' by Percy Groom and W. R. Fisher.

John Lane will shortly publish a second volume of 'Florilegium Latinum,' celebrated passages, mostly from English poets, translated into Latin by the Rev. J. St.-John Thackeray and the Rev. E. D. Stone; and 'India's Love Lyrics,' collected by Lawrence Hope.

Directly to be issued by Macmillan Company is A. R. Colquhoun's 'The Mastery of the Pacific,' profusely illustrated.

The Psychical Research Society's publications are to be made to do duty in establishing the marvels of Revelation in a volume announced by Thomas Whittaker, 'Psychic Research and Gospel Miracles,' from the pens of Thomas G. Allen, M.D., and the Rev. Edward M. Duff.

'The Next Great Awakening,' by Dr. Josiah Strong, which Baker & Taylor Co. have in press, is a prophecy of a new religious revival during the present century. The same firm promises 'Parliamentary Usage for Women's Clubs,' by Mrs. Emma A. Fox.

'Bramble Brae,' the collected poems of Robert Bridges ("Droch"), and 'According to the Season,' talks about the flowers in the order of their appearance in the woods and fields, by Mrs. Frances Theodora Parsons, with drawings by Elsie Louise Shaw, are to be published by Charles Scribner's Sons.

A. Wessels Co. will add to the late Grant Allen's series of "Historical Guides" a volume on 'Umbrian Towns,' by J. W. and A. M. Cruickshank. They are also about to bring out a volume of verse, 'The Nameless Hero,' by James Blythe Anderson.

L. C. Page & Co. have nearly ready 'The Best of Balzac,' edited by Alexander Jessup.

There must be a scramble for the limited edition of a work on Italian bookplates, 'Gli Ex Libris Italiani' (Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Büchner), a handsome quarto, to judge from the prospectus, with the usual illustrations, under the joint editorship of Achille Bertarelli and David Henry Prior.

The 'Lectures and Essays' of the late William Kingston Clifford were first published in 1879, the year of his untimely death at the age of thirty-three, and were reviewed by us at considerable length on their appearance. There has been an intermediate edition preceding the third (in two handy volumes, "Globe 8vo") now issued by Macmillan. The literary remains, therefore, of this most promising man of genius have maintained a vital currency for nearly as long a term as was vouchsafed him in living. "Conditions of Mental Development," "On Theories of the Physical Forces," "Aims of Scientific Thought," "Atoms," "The Unseen Universe," "Body and Mind," "Right and Wrong," "The Ethics of Belief," "The Ethics of Religion," "Cosmic Emotions"—such are some of the themes considered by Clifford, whose appeal would seem to be to a select class of minds that reason freely about mathematical, philosophical, and general scientific conceptions. And so it is as a whole, but at the same time the author's

popular style will beguile those whom his subjects might daunt, and he can light up a discourse on "Right and Wrong" with an apt illustration from his brother mathematician's 'Through the Looking-Glass' of *Cogito, ergo sum.*

The latest issues of the Bell-Macmillan "Great Masters" series are 'Rembrandt,' by Malcolm Bell, and 'Giotto,' by F. Mason Perkins. The 'Rembrandt' is merely an abridgment of Mr. Bell's previous book on the same subject, published in 1899 and reviewed by us at the time; but Mr. Perkins's work is, in more ways than one, an original contribution to the series. Mr. Perkins has ideas of his own on the chronology of Giotto's work, and sets them forth lucidly, together with his conclusions as to the authenticity and state of restoration of various pictures. There is nothing of the compiler about him—he is a critic to be reckoned with. Naturally enough, he is over-enthusiastic about the artist whose works have been his special study, and greatly overrates, not the initial force of Giotto, but his actual achievement.

Inexpensive little books on art subjects multiply apace. Miss Estelle M. Hurll adds a 'Correggio' to her "Riverside Art Series" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.); and to "Bell's Miniature Series of Painters" (Macmillan) is added a 'Watteau,' by Edgcumbe Stanley, B.A. The omission from the illustrations of the 'Correggio' of that master's great nude pictures of mythological subjects, probably thought necessary for a juvenile public, renders the selection unusually non-representative, while the inevitable reproductions from Toschi's copies are, as usual, entirely unjust to the merit of the originals. Mr. Stanley is, apparently, right enough as to his facts, and fair enough as to his criticism, but he has not made an interesting book. If he thought "the somewhat frequent use of French words and quotations . . . warranted by the peculiarly French character of art *à la Watteau,*" he should have endeavored to secure the services of a proofreader with a competent knowledge of French. "Je scarvis mon Saint Nicholas par cœur, et je ne passois d'original" (p. 9) not only is hopelessly deformed in its first clause, but conveys, in its second, tne exact reverse of the idea that Watteau meant to express. A particularly funny blunder is that on page 40, where we are told that Watteau "was especially fond of drawing the *backs* of his figures, that he might depict the various beautiful *coiffeurs* of the period." These "beautiful hair-dressers" turn up once and again in the book, to the exclusion of their handiwork, with a persistence hardly to be laid to the account of the long-suffering compositor.

'Stories of the Tuscan Artists,' by Albinia Wherry (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), is calculated for the infant mind and for the longitude of London, and need not be taken very seriously by the adult or the Westerner. The stories are not retold entirely without warning of their mythical character, but the attitude is hardly critical, and the style is somewhat goody-goody, not to say mushy.

'The Saints in Christian Art,' or 'Lives and Legends of the Evangelists, Apostles, and Other Early Saints'—we do not pretend to say which is the correct title; one is on the cover, the other on the title-page—is written by Mrs. Arthur Bell and published by Bell in London and Macmillan in New York. The plan of the book is to take up in chronological order the saints dealt with. "Wherever possible, the actual historical facts of the life of each saint are first given, then the legends which have gathered round the nucleus of truth are related. The general characteristics by which a saint may be recognized are enumerated and explained, the patronage assigned to him or her, with its reason, is stated, and examples are given of typical works of art in which the saint under notice is introduced, either as a principal or an accessory figure." The work seems to be well enough done, and will possess a certain utility for those who are anxious about the exact subject of a work of art, and, perhaps, a greater to the worried designer of ecclesiastical art.

In 'Nature and Character at Granite Bay' (New York: Eaton & Mains), Daniel A. Goodsell writes of the scenery, flowers, and birds around his summer home on Long Island Sound, of the quiet pleasures of life there, and of certain "natives" who are his neighbors. To members of the summer colony at Granite Bay the book, with its many details, will be full of interest; but few other readers will find that either subject or treatment repays the long ramble through its pages.

The Macmillan Co. publishes, newly revised and translated, Esmarch's well-known 'Surgical Technic,' edited by Senn of Chicago. Its condensed text is effectively illustrated by fifteen hundred woodcuts and fifteen colored plates. Pictures do not make surgeons, but pictures help the memory and save words.

Longmans, Green & Co. publish the illustrated fourth edition of Dr. P. W. Williams's authoritative 'Diseases of the Upper Respiratory Tract.' As greater importance becomes attached to the chronic affections of the nose and throat, the value of such special studies is more widely recognized. A particular feature of this volume is thirteen excellent stereoscopic anatomical plates, for whose better observation a stereoscope is furnished in a pocket of the cover. There are twenty-four more plates, some colored, and about 200 cuts.

In his study of the bacterial flora of cultivated soils, Mr. F. D. Chester of the Delaware College Agricultural Experiment Station found great difficulty in satisfying himself which forms were, and which were not, already known to science. He therefore arranged for his own convenience such bacteria as had already been described, and now publishes his work for the benefit of others as 'A Manual of Determinative Bacteriology' (Macmillan). He expressly disclaims that it is anything more than the name implies, for he recognizes that a satisfactory system of bacterial classification cannot be expected with our present knowledge. We believe that it will be, as the author hopes, a convenient guide for the student with cultures to identify, and as such will prove a valuable adjunct to the elaborate manuals of this microscopic science.

Dr. S. Solis-Cohen is editing a 'System of Physiologic Therapeutics' (Philadelphia: Blakiston & Co.), of which four volumes of the whole eleven have been published. Physiologic therapeutics is utilizing the natural forces of nature, as supplementary and occasionally substitutive means, rather than drug-giving, for the treatment and (more important) the prevention of disease. But the accomplished editor is careful to make it clear that he is neither antagonizing nor decrying the use of the more ordinary measures under appropriate conditions. The first two volumes are upon electro-therapy, the apparatus for generating electricity and its application in disease, by Dr. George W. Jacoby, with special articles by other competent writers. There is notoriously so much charlatanry connected with electro-therapeutics that it is refreshing to find a clearly written work, neither credulous nor skeptical, upon this force. The next two volumes, by Dr. Weber for Europe and Dr. Hinsdale for America, are devoted to climatology, sketches of health resorts, and the indications which various diseases present for climatic treatment. They form practically a medical gazetteer, accounting accurately, as far as we have been able to observe, for numberless places of every description.

'Volks- und Seewirthschaft,' by Prof. Dr. Ernst von Halle (Berlin: Mittler & Sohn), contains in two volumes twelve essays, nearly all of them more or less directly concerned with Germany's economical interests and world politics. The author, though one of the "Flottenprofessoren," is not one-sided, and sees no inconsistency in combining naval expansion with a conservative agrarian policy. The longest essay of the series, "Deutschland am Ende des XIX. Jahrhunderts" (i., 13-135), is a study in statistics which may be read with interest and profit by all who are in want of reliable information on Germany's development, mainly on the material side, since the foundation of the new empire. That the writer has obtained his material largely at first hand, that he has himself visited the countries of which he writes, appears in his essay on "Die wirthschaftliche Entfaltung Mexicos und der Weltmarkt (1901)" (ii., 84-146), and elsewhere. His discussion, on an historical basis, of American Imperialism, "Die Bedeutung des nordamerikanischen Imperialismus (1900-1901)," shows his familiarity not only with political events, but also with political methods and thought in this country. It is all the more surprising that Mr. Bryan's approval of the cession of the Philippines should have led the author into the comical error of making the Democratic candidate for the Presidency a member of the Paris Peace Commission.

In the February Bulletin of the Boston Public Library are printed two interesting papers on the counterfeiting of colony bills of credit—an evil inseparable from the use of paper money. The depositions printed at length are dated 1735 and 1739, respectively, and give a very clear idea of the methods employed by the swindlers, and of the ease with which their operations were conducted on quite a large scale. It is somewhat startling to learn that the engraver of the plates used by the Province was also willing to make plates for the counterfeit product; but the ready resort of the Government to the printing-press really invited multiplication of the bills, and the blame must lie with the legislators who put a premium on dishonesty. Was it the depreciation of the bills in circulation that led to the counter-

feiting of the notes of higher denominations —the three and five-pound notes? These legal documents open up a number of questions on the social condition of Massachusetts and Rhode Island when paper was plenty. The same Bulletin contains an interesting paper by John Marshall, and a letter from North Caroiina, dated 1721, on an Indian unjustly seized as a slave.

The mural sculptures and paintings of the Egyptians, as well as their mummies, assure us of the permanency of the type of certain of the human races for at least 5,000 years; and Miss Lillian C. Smythe, in an interesting paper on "The Ancient History of the Greyhound," in the *Stockkeeper's* Christmas Supplement, reproduces pictures of the greyhound from the tombs of Beni Hassan of the thirteenth dynasty, and from steles of about the same date, and also photographs of a wrapped and unwrapped head of a greyhound, in the British Museum, mummified about 1300 B. C. So little variation has taken place in this breed of dog that the pictures of 2500 B. C., the mummy of 1300 B. C., and the greyhound of to-day can, as pointed out by Miss Smythe, be all described with equal accuracy by the fifteenth-century rhyme:

> "Heided like a Snake; neckyd lyke a Drake;
> Fotyd like a Catte; tayllyd lyke a Ratte;
> Syded like a Braeme; chynyd lyke a Beme."

The special winter number of the *Studio* is devoted to modern designs in jewelry and fans. There are separate sections relating to the work of French, British, Austrian, German, Belgian, and Danish designers, and each is prefaced by a short sketch by a writer presumably especially acquainted with the subject. The objects illustrated show much fine workmanship and a great deal of vitality of design, but are all surprisingly alike in their diversity, being all in that style, or lack of style, which the *Studio* has done so much to familiarize us with—a style marked by a determined modernness and by "originality" at all hazards. A few of the best pieces, particularly in the French section, are beautiful as well as new, but the most are ugly as well as affected. In his preface to the French section, M. Gabriel Mourey has a few words which might well apply to the whole collection. "Such, briefly," he says, "is the modern art-jewelry movement in France. Its intensity, as one sees, is so great as to be almost alarming. Whither is it tending? Some of its excesses are dangerous; what will be the result? M. Émile Molinier, in a recent article on 'Objects of Art in the Salons of 1901,' expresses certain fears which I share. He dreads a reaction due to the eccentricities of certain artists, to their love of the outrageous and the bizarre, to their lack of proportion, both in form and in choice of material. 'It would really be a pity,' he says, 'if so promising a revival of the true artistic jewelry should come to a bad end. Happily, we have not reached that point yet, but it is a result which may soon be reached if artists continue to foist these weird things on the public. A fashion in jewelry should last longer than a fashion in dresses or in hats; but it should not be forgotten that it must rely in the long run on its appropriateness and adaptability.' "

From the publishers of the *Studio* come also the first two parts of 'English Water-Color,' with reproductions in color of drawings by well-known English water-color painters and a text by Frederick Wedmore. Here the atmosphere is as conventional and old-fashioned as in the other publication it is ultra-modern. The publishers declare that the plates are "reproduced by an expensive special process which gives the nearest facsimile effects ever yet obtained." If this be true, it shows how entirely conventional was the coloring of the older water-color painters, most of these plates being hot and brown, and with no resemblance to nature's scheme of color or to the full scale of the great colorists. Harding, clever drawing-master as he was, stands out among his fellows because he shows an appreciation of blue and green. Of the sixteen plates so far issued the most interesting is a bold sketch, by J. M. Swan, of a "Jaguar and Macaw." The work will be completed in eight parts, and each subscriber for the whole series will be presented with a portfolio to contain it.

"The Teaching of Geography," by Prof. R. S. Tarr of Cornell, in the *National Geographic Magazine* for February, is a plea for the better training of teachers, in which the foundation of a university school of geography is advocated, as well as the introduction of the Continental method of primary instruction in the geography of the home as the basis of the study of distant lands. Mr. E. J. Hill gives a rather meagre account of a trip through Siberia. He was most impressed with the great progress made in opening up the country, with its wonderful natural resources, and with the "splendid opening which it affords for the sale of American farming and mining machinery." A humorous reference to the massacre of the Chinese on the Amur is not in good taste, especially where the writer goes on to say that "a Russian gentleman told me that at Aigun alone ten thousand Chinese found a watery grave, and that the Cossacks on the Amur had been drinking vodka and living on the plunder from Mantchuria ever since."

Some noteworthy items to be culled from the Harvard College volume of annual reports (among which that of the Athletic Committee is to be regularly incorporated hereafter) are the establishment of a small experimental garden in Cuba; the recount of the Library (with a correction of former exaggerations), and "the cataloguing, either completely or partially, of some 440 uncatalogued volumes all belonging to the Library before the present public catalogue was begun, and some even going back to before the fire of 1764"; the attempt of the Prussian Government to secure Harvard's assistant professor of chemistry for Göttingen; and the flying of kites for meteorological purposes for five days on an eastbound transatlantic steamer.

The collection of the late octogenarian Comte de Limur, former Vice-President of the Société Géographique de France, is for sale to any purchaser ready to preserve it with the Count's name attached, in the interest of science. The palæontological section is especially remarkable for its primitive specimens; the mineralogical comprises 142 cases representing the entire globe, and classified according to Dufrenoy's method. Offers or inquiries should be addressed to the present Comte de Limur, Rue Thiers, Vannes, Morbihan, France.

—The sudden death of James Bradley Thayer at Cambridge, Mass., on February 14, deprives the Harvard Law School of one of its greatest ornaments, and removes a legal writer whom it would be hard to match for learning, clear and convincing exposition, and weight of authority. This journal also suffers in the cessation of a friendly collaboration covering nearly a score of years. Professor Thayer was a native of Haverhill, Mass., but received his early education mainly in Northampton, while by marriage with the daughter of the Rev. Samuel Ripley he became intimate with the circle of Concord philosophers. His Northampton experience laid the foundation of his close friendship with the late Chauncey Wright, afterwards his college classmate, whose Letters he edited biographically in 1877 in a model manner. With Concord, on the other hand, is associated his 'Western Journey with Mr. Emerson,' published seven years later. He obtained the higher education at Harvard on slender means and by dint of teaching in the college intervals. He graduated A. B. in 1852, and from the Law School in 1856, entering directly into practice in Boston as a member of the Suffolk bar, and being made Master in Chancery in 1864. Ten years later he was called to the Weld professorship in the Harvard Law School, where he added to the labors of instruction the composition of masterly text-books on 'The Origin and Scope of the American Doctrine of Constitutional Law,' 'Cases on Evidence,' 'Cases on Constitutional Law,' 'The Development of Trial by Jury,' and his great 'Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at the Common Law.' These works have been currently reviewed in our columns, and we need say no more of them than that they have fixed Professor Thayer's reputation in the very front rank of legists on either side of the Atlantic. As a lecturer he was far from fluent or decisive, but his writings were a delight to the intellect. He took a warm interest in the study of the historical evolution of law, and consequently in the fortunes of the Selden Society, the publication of the Year-books, of Bracton's Note-books, and kindred antiquarianism. His two non-legal works mentioned above prove his exceptional literary endowment, and nothing but his high achievement in his chosen profession could reconcile us to his diversion from a purely literary life. His personality was engaging. His death followed by one month the completion of his seventy-first year.

—The Oxford Historical Society, which was founded in 1884, has already brought out many learned books, and some that are readable, but volume xli. of its publications possesses quite an exceptional character. A large number of the preceding works in the same series have been closed to the generality of readers, simply because they form the material of history and are in no sense historical literature themselves. It is far otherwise with the present issue, which is called 'Studies in Oxford History,' and bears upon its title-page the name of J. R. Green (Macmillan). While the Rev. George Roberson is also a contributor, the book in the main is Green's, and bears throughout the mark of his qualities. This is quite as it should be, for the Oxford Historical Society was his creation, and has in several important respects kept to the programme of activity which he mapped out during those last months when he was so ill, yet so indefatigable. Readers of the 'Letters' will remember that Green was born

at Oxford, and though some of his academic associations were not altogether happy, he kept alive a strong affection for the town and a strong interest in the University. Mrs. Green says: "I well remember the passionate enthusiasm with which he watched from the train for the first sight of the Oxford towers against the sky." Early associations and unswerving fondness will account, then, for the writing of these essays. All of them centre about Oxford, and are conceived in much the same spirit, but they appeared at different times and differ widely in form. First comes an article on the early history of Oxford, which was originally published in *Macmillan's Magazine;* then follow twenty-two short papers on Oxford during the eighteenth century; and, finally, there are two sketches taken from the *Saturday Review*—the one called "Young Oxford," the other, "Oxford as It Is." Of the whole collection, the eighteenth-century series is decidedly the longest, and as a peculiar product of the author it deserves to stand first. It was here that Green proved his mettle when still an undergraduate, and all but unknown to the teachers of his own university. A local newspaper, the *Oxford Chronicle*, wanted some "copy," and Green supplied it, giving much better value than was required by the needs of the case. He was then reading outside the lines of the curriculum, and he took his degree without winning a place in the honor lists, but, thanks to this opportunity, he did not leave Jesus College before he had given some sign of exceptional talent. The articles on eighteenth-century Oxford rise far above the average of undergraduate attainment in the field of literature, even if we exclude the element of historical research from the praise which it deserves. They may be indebted for occasional suggestions to Macaulay's third chapter, but they are by no means an imitation of it. On all accounts we are glad that the Oxford Historical Society has honored the memory of its founder by publishing the present volume.

—'King Monmouth,' by Allan Fea (Lane), is a volume which closely resembles in guise and character the same author's 'Flight of the King.' Having already traced the escape of Charles II. after his disastrous defeat at Worcester, Mr. Fea advances a generation, and, with the aid of copious illustrations, describes the career of Charles's son. He thus in the two works traverses the latter part of the seventeenth century through nearly the whole of its course, giving many glimpses of English life in the country and at court. It would be an injustice to say that both books derive their value from the pictures, but it is only fair to emphasize the presence of a strong pictorial element. There are in 'King Monmouth' fourteen photogravure portraits, besides nearly ninety half-tone illustrations. Although some of the latter are not very well executed, the selection of subjects is in all cases good, and the reproduction of so many apartments and country houses harmonizes well with the semi-biographical, semi-antiquarian strain of the narrative. The text itself reveals a certain indebtedness to Roberts's Life of Monmouth, now more than fifty years old, but numerous documents have come to light since then which Mr. Fea uses with good effect. For example, the archives of Drayton House, Northamptonshire, which have been made accessible by the Ninth Report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, furnish important information regarding the movements of King James's troops during the Sedgemoor campaign; and the jail-books of Taunton, which were produced by Mr. Inderwick in 1889, add fresh details concerning the results of the Rebellion. The career of Monmouth touches all the salient points of English political history from 1670 to 1685, and Mr. Fea has gleaned his material from a wide range of sources, both official and private. After all, the story remains one of an unfortunate origin, a bad bringing up, and a weak character. Monmouth's youth was set off by a little cheap popularity and a reputation for daring; circumstances made him a tool in the hands of reckless politicians, and he ended by becoming the unheroic victim of an ill-judged adventure. He lived in a bad age, and was misguided by evil companions, but under no probable conditions could he have risen to true eminence. Mr. Fea avoids all temptation to rehabilitate him, leaving his "weak and superstitious mind" to express itself through his actions. Indeed, this is a book which shuns the pathetic and romantic by keeping to a matter-of-fact strain of historical gossip. No course could have been wiser, for in the generation of Oates and Jeffreys public life was pestilential. Even Sidney and Russell have ceased to be looked upon altogether as national martyrs!

—'Maids and Matrons of New France,' by Mary Sifton Pepper (Little, Brown & Co.), is a volume of historical biography which covers the entire period of the old régime in Canada. The title is a good one and the subject is also good, for from an early date the history of French life in America is adorned by the actions of courageous and humane women. The author compares the fame of the nineteen heroines who came over in the *Mayflower* with the comparative obscurity of the French ladies who accompanied Champlain, Maisonneuve, and their successors. When writing thus, she doubtless has in mind an American audience, inasmuch as there is no disposition on the part of French Canadians to forget the worthies of their own race. Jeanne Mance is still remembered in Montreal; and that Mère Marie l'Incarnation is not forgotten at Quebec, the three volumes of the Abbé Casgrain testify. Not unnaturally, Miss Pepper fixes her attention upon the foundation of the colony more steadily than upon any other single period. The most striking names are to be met with at that time, and all the circumstances contribute to heighten the interest which springs from the story of piety and good works. After the arrival of the Carignan regiment, corruption crept in, and when it comes to the Seven Years' War, the social life of Quebec under Bigot is not a theme for the sentimentalist. Miss Pepper recognizes that Mme. de Pean is but a poor figure in comparison with Mme. de la Peltrie or Marguerite Bourgeois. Part of the subjects are drawn from Acadia, as in the case of Mme. de Guercheville and Mme. de la Tour, part from Quebec and part from Montreal. None of the essays are long and none of them contain any new material, but they are not unlikely to serve their purpose of arousing a greater interest in the women of New France than now exists among English readers. With one remark, however, of Miss Pepper we cannot bring ourselves to agree. After pointing out that members of the religious sisterhoods preceded the first batch of wives by nearly a century, she observes: "If the order had been reversed, New France might still be vying with her neighbor, New England, in prosperity and progress."

BRYCE'S STUDIES IN HISTORY AND JURISPRUDENCE.

Studies in History and Jurisprudence. By James Bryce. Henry Frowde. 1901.

Mr. Bryce's publishers have treated him rather shabbily. We should, in any case, hardly have expected the Oxford University Press to emit a volume as little attractive in paper and in binding as a public document, and of similar awkward dimensions. No volume that is to be read, and not merely consulted, ought to contain more than nine hundred pages rather closely printed in rather small type. Especially is it true that no writer so honored in America as Mr. Bryce should have his work presented in a shape to weary both the eyes and hands of his admirers. And, whether he is here peculiarly appreciated or not, his reputation is such as to make it proper to give his works a dress corresponding with their value, and one that shall adorn the libraries that they will enrich.

The value of these studies is indicated by the mere enumeration of their titles. They number sixteen, five of which involve comparison of the Roman and British empires. Three of these are technical—"Methods of Law-making in Rome and in England," "The History of Legal Development at Rome and in England," and "Marriage and Divorce in Roman and in English Law." Two involve generalizations which may be properly called magnificent—"The Roman Empire and the British Empire in India" and "The Extension of Roman and English Law throughout the World." Four essays are mainly descriptive and historical—"Primitive Iceland," "The Constitution of the United States as Seen in the Past," "Two South African Constitutions," and "The Constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia." The rest may be classed as belonging to political philosophy—"Flexible and Rigid Constitutions," "The Action of Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces on Political Constitutions," "Obedience," "The Nature of Sovereignty," "The Law of Nature," "The Methods of Legal Science," and "The Relations of Law and Religion."

Taken as a whole, these essays constitute an incomparable treatise on the legal aspects of history. Mr. Bryce observes that the longer one lives, the more is one impressed by the close connection between the old Greco-Italian world and our own.

"The current of study and education is at present setting so strongly towards the sciences of nature that it becomes all the more needful for those who value historical inquiry and the literature of the past, to do what they can to bring that old world into a definite and tangible relation with the modern time—a relation which shall be not only stimulative but practically helpful."

With this aim, Mr. Bryce has attempted, and in our judgment, with great success, to bring out the often neglected constitutional

and legal element in history, and to present topics commonly avoided, because of their supposed dryness, in a way to make them intelligible to readers who have some general knowledge of history, but little special knowledge of law. Such an undertaking is altogether beyond the powers of mere scholarship, however extensive, and must be left for the exceptional men who, like Sir H. Maine, combine with profound learning the genius for generalization and the gift of lucid expression. When we consider that these essays represent the study and reflection of thirty years, clarified and corrected by much travel and contact with men of thought and action all over the world, one may well regard them as a splendid addition to the literature of political science.

It is, of course, impracticable here to attempt any adequate criticism of so extensive a work, and we must content ourselves with a few rather haphazard observations. We naturally turn first to the essays relating to the Constitution of our own country, and note as of exceptional value the critical examination of the views set forth in the 'Federalist,' and in Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America.' The latter work is now little read, and Mr. Bryce's careful analysis amounts to a summary of its contents which will, for most purposes, supersede the original. He gives Tocqueville full credit for the elegance and refinement of his reasonings, and the acuteness of his observation. Tocqueville's book is a classic; "no book of the generation to which he belonged contains more solid wisdom in a more attractive dress." But he did not know enough of England to understand to how great an extent her institutions had been reproduced in America. Moreover, he had France always in mind, and was prone to regard as abnormal what was merely un-French; and, after all, "it is not democracy in America he describes, but his own theoretic view of democracy illustrated from America." Nevertheless, Mr. Bryce heartily testifies to the permanent merits of Tocqueville's work, and criticises it in a spirit of most appreciative sympathy.

The writers of the 'Federalist,' like Tocqueville, failed to foresee the development of the party system—a failure which has vitiated many of their predictions. This does not impeach their wisdom, for this development is a perfectly new thing in the history of the world, and there is little creative imagination in the field of politics. Their wisdom, too, is proved by the fact that none of the objections raised against the Constitution has been sustained by the event. We are inclined to question Mr. Bryce's view that the credit of the Supreme Court has not been seriously diminished. He thinks that it "may possibly have suffered slightly" because of its treatment of the Legal Tender question. Many of our best lawyers thought that its course in that matter subverted the doctrine of limited powers, and recent events have confirmed their judgment. Not long after, Chief Justice Waite, in giving the opinion of the Court in the grain-elevator cases, declared that, to correct abuses of power by the Legislature, the people must resort to the polls and not to the courts. This doctrine has been lately reaffirmed; but it is incompatible with the function of maintaining the Constitution as the supreme law asserted in the first place by John Marshall, and ever since the most important and distinctive prerogative of our courts. At the present moment we fear that most Americans, even of the educated class, regard Mr. Dooley's estimate of the Supreme Court as substantially correct.

We must reluctantly pass over without comment the suggestive chapters on Flexible and Rigid Constitutions and Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces, although they can be disregarded by no student of politics. The exposition of the Constitution of Australia has especial interest for us on account of the comparisons which it draws between that instrument and the Constitutions of the United States and of Canada. In sublimity of subject the essays comparing the Roman and British Empires can hardly be surpassed. Mr. Bryce seems to consider that oligarchies of the republican type are alone capable of building up empires, and, regarding Russia as a despotic hereditary monarchy, he has some trouble in explaining her success. But is it not explained by considering Russia as really ruled by an oligarchy? Not long since, when it was decided to expend a great sum in increasing her navy, the Czar told his Minister in effect that he knew nothing of the military needs or the financial resources of his Government, and must assume that what his Minister said was true. "Knowledge is power" is an aphorism valid in politics, and the great officers of the Russian Government know more about it than any Czar can learn.

The contrast drawn between the tasks of the Romans and the British is made striking by the clearness with which the two elements of religion and color are brought out. The peoples conquered by the Romans could be assimilated because they were of the same color as the Romans, and because neither they nor the Romans had any religion, in the modern sense. But surely Mr. Bryce goes too far in saying, "Possibly the first injunctions to have regard to religion in choosing a consort that were ever issued in the ancient world were such as that given by St. Paul when he said, 'Be not unequally yoked together with unbelievers.'" St. Paul could have found precedents enough in the Pentateuch. It must be admitted, however, that the English Governors in India have displayed an indifferentism in religion equal to that of Gallio, and have done even less in the way of persecution than the Romans. But distance, climate, color, race, and religion together render it for ever impossible that the inhabitants of India and those of England should become one people. India is ruled, on the whole, with justice, and with amazing success; but so long as she is ruled by England she will be ruled like a conquered province. "To India severance from England would mean confusion, bloodshed, and pillage." To England severance need involve no lasting injury. The possession of India adds to her fame, but not to her strength.

It is natural to ask of one who so thoroughly knows the past, what he can tell us of the future. Mr. Bryce disclaims any gift of prophecy, but occasionally his statements of what has been established by experience are precise enough to enable us to judge what may and what may not be anticipated. In speaking of flexible constitutions, he observes that the mass of a nation are, and must be, like passengers on board an ocean steamer,

"who hear the clank of the engine and watch the stroke of the piston, and admire the revolution of the larger wheels, and know that steam acts by expansion, but do not know how the less conspicuous but not less essential parts of the machinery play into the other parts, and have little notion of the use of fly-wheels and connecting-rods and regulators. . . . In the early stages of national life, the masses are usually as well content to leave governing to a small class, as passengers are to trust the captain and the engineers. But when the masses obtain, and feel that they have obtained, the sovereignty of the country, this acquiescence can no longer be counted on. Men without the requisite knowledge or training; men who, to revert to our illustration, know no more than that steam acts by expansion, and that a motion in straight lines has to be converted into a rotary one; men who are not even aware of the need for knowledge and training; men with little respect for precedents, and little capacity for understanding their bearing—may take command of engines and ship, and the representative assembly may be filled by those who have no sense of the dangers to which an abuse of the vast powers of the assembly may lead."

In the essay on Obedience this line of thought is carried further. Political obedience is not to be explained, as Hobbes and Bentham explained it, as originating in compulsion, nor with Rousseau, as the result of agreement. It is a form of compliance in general, the motives to which are Indolence, Deference, Sympathy, Fear, Reason; but the greatest of these is Indolence. It is a case of motion in the line of least resistance. Those who love exertion are exceptional men; and the moments when exertion is loved are exceptional moments. To the vast majority of mankind, nothing is more agreeable than to choose only those forms of exertion that are pleasurable and not fatiguing. This is true of the effort of thinking; to most people nothing is more troublesome.

"Protestants have been apt to assume that the natural and normal attitude of man in religious matters is independence—a wish to seek out truth for himself, a sense of the duty of consulting his own conscience; whereas the opposite is the fact, and those religious systems take the greatest hold upon man which leave least to individual choice, and inculcate, not merely humility towards the unseen powers, but the duty of implicitly accepting definite traditions, or of revering and following visible ecclesiastical guides."

It may be admitted that in so far as the exercise of Will implies a conscious exertion of rational choice, it is characteristic of Man alone. But in most men the want of individual Will—that is, the proneness to comply with or follow the will of another—is the specially conspicuous phenomenon. This explains the history of the East; this shows how political theories must be modified:

"The abstract love of liberty, the desire to secure self-government for its own sake, apart from the benefits to be reaped from it, has been a comparatively feeble passion, even in nations far advanced in political development. . . . It used to be believed, perhaps it is still generally believed, that, with the advance of knowledge, the development of intelligence, and the accumulation of human experience, Obedience must necessarily decline, and that therewith governmental control will decay or be deemed superfluous, the good sense of mankind coming in to do for themselves what authority has hitherto done for them."

Experience has not justified this belief, and we must conclude that the

"theoretic democratic ideal of men as each

of them possessing and exerting an independent reason, conscience, and will, is an ideal too remote from human nature as we know it, and from communities as they now exist, to be within the horizon of the next few centuries, perhaps of all the centuries that may elapse before we are covered by the ice fields again descending from the Pole, or are ultimately engulfed in the sun."

The tendencies of human nature which make for obedience, Mr. Bryce concludes, have not become, and are not likely to become, less powerful than they were. There is less compulsion than of old in the sphere of religion, physical force plays a smaller part than in the ruder ages. But Indolence, Deference, and Sympathy, rather than Reason and the pride of personal independence, have filled the void which the less frequent appeal to physical force has left. Do the events of the last seventy years, during which power has, at least in form and semblance, passed from the few to the many, encourage the belief that the spirit of independence, the standard of public duty, and the sense of responsibility in each individual for the conduct of government are really advancing? The events of the last few years in England and America answer the question. The most that a reasonable optimist may venture to hope for is, that "the masses" of democratic countries in the future, since they must follow a small number of leaders, will attain such virtue and wisdom as to select the right leaders. To hope for more than this is to hope for what history affords little reason to believe is attainable.

ROSS'S FLORENTINE VILLAS.

Florentine Villas. By Janet Ross. With reproductions in photogravure from Zocchi's etchings, and many line drawings of the villas by Nelly Erichsen. London: J. M. Dent; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

The stately villas among the olive-clad hills of Florence are one of the city's charms. They invite attention by their importance in the landscape, catching the sun's rays like jewels among the trees. There has been hitherto no book devoted to their history, so that Mrs. Ross's sumptuous volume supplies a distinct want. The reproduction of Zocchi's etchings from 'Vedute delle Ville ed altri luoghi della Toscana,' published in 1744, is a happy inspiration, for we thus see many of the villas as they were meant to be, surrounded by groves of trees and formal gardens, their true setting; while now a host of small and unimportant houses cover the land and destroy the architectural effect of these splendid summer palaces. Zocchi is little known as a painter; he decorated the Serristori and Rinuccini palaces, and died in 1767. Besides these etchings, the book is full of recent drawings by Miss Nelly Erichsen, who gives us all that is most picturesque and characteristic of Tuscan gardens, so that we can compare what was with what remains, and congratulate ourselves that nineteenth-century progress, even at its worst, has not been able to spoil the character of the Florentine countryside.

It was during the Medicean epoch, when a more luxurious manner of life became usual, that architects such as Michelozzi, Ammannati, and Buontalenti were called in to adapt ancient villas till then more like fortified castles, or to build new ones more fitted to the requirements of the age. The villeggiatura, then as now, was regarded as indispensable. In order that the various members of a family might install themselves with all their belongings in their country villas for the summer months without friction, it was necessary that plenty of space should be available. The Medici owned at one time or another the majority of the most important villas. We shall come to them later, for Mrs. Ross begins the series with the Villa Palmieri, now belonging to the Earl of Crawford, to which Queen Victoria came in search of sunshine and rest in the spring of 1888 and again in 1893. Its earliest association is with the Decameron. Baldelli, in his Life of Boccaccio, tells that this writer owned a little villa at Maiano and therefore described the surrounding country. Poggio Gherardo, Mrs. Ross's present home, Baldelli recognizes as the first halting-place of the Decameron party, and the sumptuous Schifanoia (now the Palmieri Villa, then belonging to Cioni de' Fini), as the retreat for the second day. In the fourteenth century Schifanoia (otherwise "Banish Care") was bought by the Tolomei and called Palazzo de' tre Visi, because of a bas-relief of the Trinity or a fountain with the head of Janus. It was next bought by Matteo Palmieri, whose descendant Palmiero Palmieri in 1670 transformed it into the beautiful palace it is now and gave it his name. He built the long archway across the road under which the brothers of the Misericordia of Florence met with those of Fiesole in the olden time, and were allowed to rest and have a drink of vinegar and water, after the steep climb. Now that the road has been deviated, the confraternities may be seen resting in the little garden of the entrance.

Another villa on a site which Boccaccio has described is that of Font all' Erta. Roberto Gherardi tells how the fountain was diverted about the year 1710 because it damaged the crops and chilled the land. This fountain was below the villa belonging to the Gaddi family, descendants of the painter Taddeo Gaddi, the friend of Dante. Our author tells us that at the time Florence was being furbished up to become the capital of United Italy, when the old road was being turned into the new boulevard, the remains of a water conduit and cistern of old Roman work were discovered, together with a sacrificial knife, human bones, and fragments of Roman pottery. Above this spot a white spectre like a cloud of moving mist had often been observed, but never appeared again after the new road was made; which would prove that spectres have a sense of fitness. It was Niccolò Gaddi, heir to the property in 1558, who gave the villa its present form. The loggia is supposed to have been designed by Ammannati. Niccolò was illustrious in every sense of the word. Duke Cosimo gave him the mission to announce to the Dukes of Ferrara and Mantua his promotion by the Pope to be Grand Duke of Tuscany; he was Senator also, and had many public charges. His own library, picture gallery, museum of antiquities, were second only to those of the Medici. The Laurentian and Magliabecchiana now possess the greater part of his manuscripts and rare editions; besides which he delighted in his garden, filling it with rare shrubs, trees, plants, and medicinal herbs. It is to Niccolò Gaddi that Florence owes its botanical garden.

Facing us from Font all' Erta is the Landor Villa, belonging to Prof. Willard Fiske. The River Affrico runs through his grounds, and the valley of the Ladies is recognized as being below his garden walls. The lake, of course, has long been filled in. Font all' Erta has been in recent times full of interesting associations, for it was bought in 1850 by Count Giuseppe Pasolini, one of the most distinguished of the patriots who worked for the regeneration of Italy, and here in his villa all the great Liberals met together and deliberated. The villa now belongs to his daughter, the Countess Rasponi della Testa.

The villa of Poggio Gherardo, so different in character from the two villas we have described as connected with Decameron lore, resembles a mediæval castle. Its history dates back to 1321, when Meglino di Magaldo Magaldi left by will the greater part of his property to the Congregation of the Visitation. It was evident that this man had sins to score with heaven, for the object he desired to attain by his munificence was a daily mass for the repose of his soul. His heirs initiated a law suit, but the Congregation got permission from the Cardinal Legate of Pope John XXII., who was at Avignon, to sell the estate; so the villa was sold to two Baroncelli brothers, passed later into the hands of the Albizzi, and later still of the Zati, who sold it in 1433 to Gherardo di Bartolomeo Gherardo. In his family it remained for 455 years. We remember it some years ago in its mediæval grandeur and isolation, a most melancholy and desolate castle, too solid for decay, but entirely untouched by the movement of the present time. It was bought in 1888 by Mr. H. J. Ross, and transformed in many ways, being the home of his well-known collection of orchids. Mrs. Ross tells us that Poggio Gherardo was originally one of the frontier castles which defended Florence from the people of Arezzo and the Casentino; the line of castles with towers, beginning with Castel di Poggio, Vincigliata, and Poggio Gherardo, then extending across the valley and up the opposite bank of the Arno. Poggio Gherardo stands three hundred feet above the plain, and has weathered many sieges; its eastern wing was destroyed by Sir John Hawkwood, and never entirely restored. Roberto Gherardi, at one time the owner of the castle, wrote an interesting account of the country around, which has never been printed ('La Villeggiatura a Maiano'). From this work Mrs. Ross quotes freely. He was evidently much interested in Boccaccio's connection with the neighborhood, and shows great ingenuity in his identifications, which must naturally be treated as pure conjecture, as also his idea that Boccaccio was born near the banks of the Mensola.

The Medicean villas occupy the greater part of Mrs. Ross's book. There were few important villas which did not, by marriage or by right of confiscation, fall into the hands of some member of the family, besides those expressly built for them. Poggio a Cajano, about ten miles from Florence, founded on the ancient castle by Giuliano di San Gallo for Lorenzo the Magnificent, is so like a fortress, with its bastions and solid walls,

that the Emperor Charles V., after spending a day there in 1536, created the bastard Alessandro de' Medici Duke of Tuscany, as he regarded the villa unfit for a private citizen. Andrea del Sarto, Franciabigio, and Pontormo, by order of Leo X., decorated the hall in later years with frescoes recording the glories of the Medici. Great festivities took place there in 1539 when Cosimo I. brought his bride Eleanor of Toledo for five days to the villa, on their way from Pisa to Florence. Twenty-six years later, their son, Francesco, met his bride, Joan of Austria, there; and after her death and his secret marriage with his mistress Bianca Capello, it became the favorite residence of the Venetian Grand Duchess, and was the scene of the shooting party in honor of Cardinal Ferdinand, brother and heir to Francesco, which ended with the tragedy of the death of the Grand Duke and of Bianca—whether through her own frustrated attempt to poison the Cardinal or through the latter's deed, remains uncertain.

Cafaggiuolo, although eighteen miles from Florence, is too intimately connected with the Medici to escape mention. According to Vasari, Michelozzo Michelozzi built this palace in the Mugello in the guise of a fortress for Cosimo the elder. Cafaggiuolo was a favorite resort of Lorenzo and Giuliano de' Medici and their friends the Pulci; they found subjects for their poems in their intercourse with the peasants at the fairs and the weekly markets. After the murder of Giuliano by the Pazzi conspiracy, Lorenzo sent his wife and children there for safety with Angelo Poliziano, their tutor, and the Bishop of Arezzo.

The question of the pottery bearing the name of Cafaggiuolo has excited much bitter controversy among the *cognoscenti*. Some assert that the pieces signed Cafaggiuolo were made by a family of Faenza, the Ca' Fagioli. Mrs. Ross cites documents printed in the *Athenæum* to prove that, in 1485, kilns existed in the district. Baccini also mentions, in the list of Cosimo I.'s possessions in 1566, that there were kilns used by potters, makers of vases, and decorative ware (*vascellai*), two of which were near the villa rented by Jacopo di Stefano. Mr. Ormy E. Fortnum, who has a list of Cafaggiuolo ware in his work on majolica, with the marks of the most characteristic pieces, chiefly letters, does not explain those marks, but Signor Baccini supposes them to be the initials of different members of a family from Montelupo, who went to Cafaggiuolo to make the *bocali*—a certain Piero, whose son was Stefano di Piero, and grandson Jacopo di Stefano, above mentioned as the tenant of the kilns in 1566.

It was in 1417 that Cosimo de' Medici bought of Tommaso Lippi, for 800 florins, "a palace with a courtyard, a loggia, a wall, archways, dovecotes, a tower, a walled kitchen-garden, two peasant-houses, and arable land, vineyards, olive groves, and spinnies, in the parish of Careggi," on the hillside which Varchi mentions as "the most delightful hill called Montughi." Michelozzi, Cosimo's favorite architect, was commissioned to turn the place into a castle with battlements, covered galleries, a tower, a drawbridge, and high walls round the gardens. Here Cosimo spent all his leisure from state affairs, with the most distinguished men of the time in literature as in art; here, too, his long life ended in 1464. His son Piero survived him only five years, and was succeeded by the famous Lorenzo, the story of whose death at Careggi is too well known to require telling. After the Medici had been expelled from Florence, Dante and Lorenzo da Castiglione, with other young men, set fire to the villas of Careggi and Castello. The former was much damaged, but the thick walls remained, and Alessandro attempted to restore it to its former splendor when death interrupted his work; he was murdered by Lorenzino, his cousin.

Petraja. Castello, Villa dell' Ambrogiana, Pratolino, Villa Ferdinanda a Artimino, are also Medicean villas, all full of interesting records, which Mrs. Ross presents with ample historic documents. She has been very generous in quoting her authorities, and has had great advantages in obtaining inaccessible sources of information. While telling us about the villas, our author gives us all the history and romance of the people who have inhabited them, descriptions of all the pageants, functions, and ceremonies of which they have been the scene; the crimes they have been witness to—nothing has been withheld. The edition is of only 300 copies.

Famous Houses of Bath and District. By J. F. Meehan. With an Appreciative Introduction by the Marquess of Dufferin and Ava. Illustrated with about sixty reproductions of original drawings and rare prints in the possession of the author. Bath: B. & J. F. Meehan. 1901. Pp. xiv, 228.

Ancient Royal Palaces in and near London. Drawn in Lithography by Thomas R. Way, with Notes compiled by Frederic Chapman. John Lane. 1902. Pp. vi, 175.

Our columns have recently made room for extended descriptions of a three-volume book on some English country houses of the first rank, with their extraordinary surroundings and as extraordinary contents. Now we have to mention a very curious attempt on the part of a Bath bookseller to deal with the houses in and near his beloved city. It is a readable book, for it contains an interesting collection of ana concerning very interesting people. Marshall Wade, the famous maker of those Scotch roads which were so bad "before they were made"; Gainsborough, the painter; Dr. Johnson; Beckford, the tremendous millionaire of the close of the eighteenth century, and the unlucky builder of Fonthill; Shelley and Mary Godwin; Jane Austen, Hannah More, and, supremely important, Beau Nash himself—these are the men and women who lived in Bath for a part at least of their lives, and who have left associations and legends behind them. The illustrations are without merit except this, that they manage to furnish portraits of a certain accuracy of various old houses now gone or altered out of recognition. There is no material here for the delectation of the architectural enthusiast; but there is something for the collector of documents, and he will be glad to study the view of Milsom Street and the more attractive architectural presentation of Shockerwick House.

The second book named above is of a very different character. It has a cloth binding of royal purple with a sowing of Tudor roses, and this splendid outside prepares us for the dithyrambic character which is given to the text. The keynote is struck in the preface, in which it is stated absolutely that the "thirteen palaces or remains of palaces near London" constitute "a more splendid collection of buildings of the kind than any other country can boast of." The reader who is familiar with the buildings is more capable than another would be of sympathizing with the writer, and to understand aright what he means; for, as the next paragraph goes on to say, Westminster, Eltham, Hampton Court contain among them "an unsurpassable trio of Gothic roofs," and it is also true that "Hampton Court is far too living a palace to be allowed to drift entirely into a museum and picture gallery." In like manner, one who knows some of the ins and outs of Kensington Palace, the Banqueting House at Whitehall, and the Tower of London will understand the possibility of an Englishman's enthusiasm. The difficulty is, of course, in the mistaking of these domestic, tranquil, unambitious buildings (whether from that category Hampton Court be excluded or not) with the far more stately buildings that cluster around Paris or are grouped in Berlin and its suburb, Potsdam. But it is fair to say that there is not much insistence on the supreme importance and dignity of the English palaces; it is only now and then that the patriotic touch of exaggeration comes in, while indeed the text deals generally with the historical and semi-historical records of the people who lived and attended to the business of state within the walls of these royal structures rather than with the walls and the roofs themselves.

The peculiar value of this book is, however, the very considerable collection of lithographs which it contains, twenty-four in all; the work of a recognized master in this newly revived art, and all of them treated with express reference to the picture-like quality of the scene represented. They are an interesting lot, and separate plates of the series will undoubtedly become important to collectors. At the same time, it is not to be assumed that each is an important work of art. The simplest ones are naturally the best. The little view of Eltham Palace opposite page 4 is a charming and tranquil picture with great unity of composition, and with even an agreeable reminder of the work (inferior to it, however) of seventy years ago. A contrast to it is afforded as well by the Whitehall view opposite page 56 as by some others. That is a print which seems entirely without artistic significance.

The Furniture of Our Forefathers. By Esther Singleton. With critical descriptions of plates by Russell Sturgis. In eight parts. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

Colonial Furniture in America. By Luke Vincent Lockwood. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. xix, 352. Twelve artotype plates, 293 half-tone cuts in text.

The lively interest nowadays taken in the early history of our country and in the manners and customs of our ancestors has justified the appearance of several books upon their furniture. The subject receives its most extended treatment in Esther Singleton's 'Furniture of Our Forefathers,' which aims to include examples of all the kinds of furniture in use in the American

colonies from the time of the first settlement at Jamestown to the decline of taste in the early nineteenth century. For many people the chief interest of the book lies in its illustrations, which cover a great range and include pieces of every kind without regard to their origin, provided only that they have at some period been in more or less common use in our own country. To the index to these plates are added notes, sometimes by Esther Singleton, sometimes by Russell Sturgis, which, being historic and critical, are of great value in bringing out points of interest that might not be evident from the plates alone. Mr. Sturgis, in particular, has the faculty of peering into an illustration so closely as to find something well worth saying about it, something which the average reader, unused to the designer's point of view, could scarcely hope, unaided, to find in it, even by the most careful scrutiny.

The text is historical and descriptive. It deals with the course of furniture design in Europe and America from Jacobean times to our own. It enters largely into the question of how the homes of the various classes were furnished at any given time and in any particular part of the Colonies. Original sources of information have been largely consulted, and much space is occupied in reproducing ancient inventories which describe the personal belongings of people in many stations of life. At times such descriptions are worded with reasonable precision, at times with maddening vagueness. Often their interest is heightened by an exact valuation of the articles named. These inventories are the most prominent feature of the earlier parts of the book, but in the later periods the inventories are no longer needed, since many mansions are known in which the old furniture is still in its original position. Descriptions of these houses and their furniture then become the dominant note of the text and serve to maintain its interest. The book is excellently got up. The type is large and clear, the margins wide, the half-tone plates of a high order, and the pen-and-ink drawings scattered through the text are clear and crisp.

Mr. Lockwood furnishes the collector and connoisseur a most useful hand-book, that treats its subject in a systematic and reasonable way. The information contained in it is well arranged and well digested, not merely brought together by accident from scattered sources, as is too often the case in books about old furniture. The method adopted is to treat each class of objects—for example, chairs, tables, chests—in a separate chapter. Such a method demands at some point a discussion of style in furniture and a handling of the history of the furniture of the period covered by the book. This the author gives very satisfactorily in an introduction, in which he points out the intimate relation between the early furniture of this country and that made about the same time in England and Holland. Changes in the design of furniture so plainly reflect political and commercial history that some consideration of such history is most desirable. In tracing the course of style in furniture, changes in politics and commerce are therefore closely followed, and their relations to the furniture of any given period clearly brought out. The introduction constitutes an essay on the history of furniture in the American Colonies of most excellent clearness and breadth, yet of sufficient brevity to avoid the weariness inevitable in an extended pursuit of such a subject.

The plan of treating each class of objects in a separate chapter makes it easy to consult the book for the purpose of gaining information about a given piece of furniture. For instance, should one wish to know about a highboy with bandy legs, scroll-and-flame top, shell enrichments, and pillared angles, he would naturally turn to the chapter on chests of drawers, where, among the many illustrations of such pieces, he would find one of the kind described, and from the text he would soon discover that such highly elaborate chests were of late date, generally made of walnut, that they are found chiefly in Pennsylvania and Virginia, and that five of them, differing slightly in design and detail, may be examined in the Pendleton collection at Providence, R. I.

Detail begins with a chapter on chests. These, at first simple, become later quite elaborate, and by the addition of drawers afford an easy transition to the second subject, that of chests of drawers, which, passing into bureaus, lead to cupboards and sideboards. Chairs occupy a large part of the book, and merge naturally enough into settles, couches, and sofas, which in turn give way to tables. Desks and scrutoirs follow, and the book ends with chapters on mirrors, bedsteads, and clocks. There is no better systematic treatise on Colonial furniture than that of Mr. Lockwood. Although we have spoken of it as a hand-book, it is such only in so far as it is a compact treatment of a large subject. In reality its form is that of a handsome volume (8x11 in.), well printed in large clear type, and illustrated with artotype plates and half-tone cuts of admirable quality.

Dreiunddreissig Jahre in Ost-Asien. Von M. von Brandt. Leipzig: Georg Wigand.

The portraits serving as frontispieces in this brace of volumes of the reminiscences of a German diplomatist are in themselves eloquent. The one is of a handsome old man of the Occident in 1900, and the other of a very young one of the Orient in 1871. They suggest the fascinating story of two great movements—the one of the winning by Germany of a strong place in the politics of the Far East, and the other of the advance of Japan. As we remember the young German Minister of thirty years ago, alert, scholarly, keenly perceptive, and intensely energetic, the contrast with the man of snow-white hair and beard whose kindly, penetrating glance meets us to-day, is suggestive. Von Brandt is the very incarnation of Germany's part in the Far Eastern question. The frontispiece in the second volume is that of the Mikado, Mutsuhito, as we remember seeing him in the palace in '71, with flowing robes of vast amplitude, with his feet cased in stub-toed, bright-colored footgear half a foot above the floor-matting, and an upright stiff pennant of gold rising from his black lacquered cap two feet into the air. He was then a young man only eighteen years old. Now, wearing always in public the dress of a modern sovereign, he is a grandfather and soon to pass a half-century. From Tycoon time to Japan's entrance into the world's commonwealth as an equal and a Power is the space covered in Herr von Brandt's mature lifetime.

In literary quality these two volumes are a delightful surprise. The author wields a practised pen, as those familiar with his diplomatic papers and articles written for the German Asiatic Society know full well. His style is clear and vigorous, and his matter readable. Von Brandt has a keen sense of humor, and most of his judgments are tempered by a charity that belongs to sunny and healthy old age. If rumor has it right, his exit from German diplomatic service after thirty-three years of pioneering and masterful influence was hastened by his marrying an American wife. Certainly his criticisms on Americans are genial and appreciative, without a trace of bitter sarcasm. Indeed, he seems to be severer on the Germans in America than upon the natives of the great republic. He scores his cis-Atlantic countrymen who have gone into politics, for their lack of patience in working out attainable results, and for losing vast benefits because they dreamily expect something better too soon. It will reward, even if it mildly humiliates, some German-Americans to see themselves as they are reflected on these pages.

There seems to be in Von Brandt a strain of the matter-of-fact Englishman rather than of the idealistic Teuton. Perhaps his having spent most of his life away from his own country and among English and Americans has made him, what he is, a very practical and very successful diplomatist. We imagine that Mr. Townsend Harris, of whom he speaks so appreciatingly, and with whom he came in contact very early in his career in Yedo, had a powerful influence upon him at the start. When the Germans had no standing interests and few beyond those of trade in the Far East, Germany itself being (in the East, at least) little more than a geographical expression and without a navy, Von Brandt went out in the Prussian Expedition to Japan in 1860, arriving there just after Mr. Harris had, without a ship or a soldier, by patient tact and courtesy, made his triumphant entrance into Yedo. We have more than once heard the New Yorker tell of the bright young German fellows in Yedo, to whose chief he loaned his secretary, the Dutch-American Heusken, during the Prussian negotiations. Naturally, Mr. Heusken preferred to spend his evenings with cultivated young men of his own age rather than with an elderly gentleman in a lonely temple, when Yedo had not a score of white men within its vast area. The fact of his frequently riding or galloping at night, during a time of political strain, with his occasional disregard of Japanese proprieties, resulted in his assassination. The story of this episode and of his burial forms a pathetic page in the Reminiscences. Yet while all the other foreign envoys left Yedo and retreated to Yokohama, Mr. Harris, following the Japanese advice, kept in at night and also kept the stars and stripes flying in Yedo.

Herr von Brandt's chapters on Nagasaki, Tientsin, Peking, Canton, and Siam are interesting as clear word-pictures of thirty years ago. Evidently he was in the fulness of health and enjoyed every moment. Appointed Consul, he returned to the Mikado's

empire, reaching it at a time when the already century-old process of inward forces and tendencies toward revolution had been quickened by the presence of foreigners. He tells again the story of Shimonoseki—in which bombardment the Germans had no ships or men—the fall of the Yedo usurpation or shogun's government, and he also explains why he did not accept audience of the Mikado in Kioto when first granted, early in 1868. He feared the young Emperor could not control his fanatical subjects. His surmises of evil were fully justified when two patriots, filled with bigotry, and also with saké rich in fusel oil, ran amuck among Sir Harry Parkes's cavalry, and in five minutes had wounded eleven men and five horses. A trip in Yezo is most vividly described (for Von Brandt is a wide-awake traveller), as is likewise the first year of the new Japanese civilization, when Yedo became Tokio. After a run across America in 1871-72, he returned to Japan to take a very active part in forwarding German interests, though he was unable then, as before or afterwards, to carry out the scheme of Bismarck in behalf of German colonization and the purchase of the island of Formosa; the logic of events making that island first the subject of invasion and afterwards of possession by the Japanese. In 1873, in Tokio, he organized the German Asiatic Society, which has done such creditable work in investigation and publication. Of his appointment to China and his work there, another volume is expected to tell. It is rare, we imagine, that a diplomatist writes in the first person so frankly and engagingly.

The Sherbro and its Hinterland. By T. J. Alldridge, F.R.G.S. The Macmillan Company. 1901. 8vo, pp. xvi, 356. Maps and illustrations.

There is a special interest in the accounts which the builders of the British Empire occasionally give of their work, apart from any literary or scientific merit they may or may not have, for they are generally practical demonstrations of the best examples of governing savage or semi-civilized peoples. In this book the preliminary work of bringing a number of mutually hostile tribes to acknowledge one supreme authority, not by force, but by persuasion, is described. The Hinterland of the Sherbro, a district of Sierra Leone, was made some ten years ago a British protectorate, and Mr. Alldridge, the Commissioner, was directed to visit the principal chiefs and invite them to enter into friendly relations with his Government. This necessitated long and dangerous journeys into regions hitherto unvisited by white men, and demanding no little courage and endurance, as well as great patience and tact. His success in treaty-making and in winning the confidence of the chiefs was remarkable, and causes the reader to overlook the crudities of style and the frequent dulness of his account of these expeditions. The book is full of descriptions of the unexplored interior and of the distinctive manners and customs of its inhabitants; the more trustworthy as they are not the observations of a mere passing traveller, but of one who has spent thirty years in the Sherbro. He dwells upon the rich natural resources of the land, its palms, rubber-plants, and fruits, its rice, coffee, and cotton, and looks forward confidently to the day when, a profitable export market being provided, the native will be led to develop this wealth. Of mineral deposits he says nothing, but the fact that the chief currency among some of the tribes was long strips of iron would seem to indicate the existence of ore beds. The natives of the interior are represented as intelligent, naturally industrious, and as displaying much skill in the weaving and ornamenting cotton cloth and in making pottery. Some are very observant. A chief carrying a bright iron spear came close to a mariner's compass which was in Mr. Alldridge's hut and the needle immediately vibrated. The motion caught his eye and he asked its cause, and on the next day, at the end of a meeting at which a treaty was signed, requested that his people might be shown it.

"I had the compass brought, opened, and allowed the needle to become quiet. He requested as many of his people as possible to stand round while he, in the most dignified way, brought his spear near to the compass, when, of course, the needle was considerably excited. After the needle was again motionless, I told him to take a silver armlet from one of his wives and to touch the compass with it. He did so, when the non-movement of the needle caused a general look of surprise upon the faces of the people."

They hold political meetings in which they discuss public affairs

"with deliberate caution and great dignity. The whole debate, in fact, is carried on with the greatest quietness, ceremony, and politeness, and often filled me with profound amazement, and afforded me infinite pleasure. At these times it was difficult for me to realize that I was in a so-called uncivilized country—for certainly the manners of these parliamentary hands, in their abstaining from personal invective and recriminations, were polished to a very remarkable degree. It struck me forcibly that many a lesson might be gathered from the dignity, the courtesy, and the general friendliness which these tribes showed—not only towards a stranger, but in their every-day life towards each other."

Considerable space is given to an account of the secret societies which, before the establishment of British law, entirely ruled the natives, and are still of great importance, and an "enormous force both for good and evil." Mr. Alldridge describes their initiation ceremonies and many of their customs, but acknowledges that he has never succeeded in penetrating the inner mysteries, and is satisfied that no outsider knows what the secrets really are. An ordinance against one of the society methods was a principal cause of the insurrection of 1898, of which a brief account is given. Another was the suppression of the slave-trade, to which the incessant tribal wars were wholly due. To defend themselves against these raids, the natives surrounded their villages by war fences. These were (for they are now not allowed by the Government) live trees, the lower part being kept free from foliage, but interlaced with a rude lattice of long live canes that also sprouted, making a dense mass of vegetation from fifteen to twenty feet high, with a gate formed of a solid slab of hardwood. Every town had from two to four of these fences, and in one instance there were ten.

Mr. Alldridge gives a brief sketch of life in a coast town, and refers to the eagerness of the better class of natives for education. Many of the well-to-do among them have sent their sons to England to receive a thorough medical training, and these are "to-day duly qualified medical officers, holding high appointments in the Government service." In fact, there is not an official in his district who is not colored. His main object, however, is to inform his countrymen about this almost unknown part of the empire, the hinterland, and to interest them in the industrial development of its inhabitants. He also shows by many graphic touches the hard and self-sacrificing life of the English official among them. Two maps and numerous photographs, some of great beauty, illustrative of scenes and incidents or people mentioned in the text, add to the value and attractiveness of the volume.

The Tale of the Argonauts. By Apollonius of Rhodes. Translated by Arthur S. Way. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Apollonius adopted the epithet "Rhodian" out of gratitude for the generous welcome that met him in Rhodes when the stress of hostile criticism drove him from the cultivated court of Alexandria. Callimachus and his clique of pedants felt that an Alexandrian philologian who had ventured to write an epic of six thousand verses in the style of Homer had put himself outside the pale of their patronage. Indeed, the world of letters has never wholly revoked their verdict, for literary critics are rightly shy of a *tour de force* in poetry. To compare great things with smaller, it was like Mr. Le Gallienne rewriting FitzGerald's 'Omar,' though the parallel is unfair to Apollonius, because he actually succeeded in turning out a sort of masterpiece. He is always labelled with a qualifying phrase: Quintilian in his day said the poem flowed "with a sort of even mediocrity"; and Longinus, with the captiousness of the true critic, complained that Apollonius never makes a false step, whereas we all know that Homer nods. In all this faint praise there is much injustice. Virgil, at any rate, thought the poem good enough to plagiarize, and his admirers are prone to forget that the famous Dido episode is in parts a close imitation of the 'Argonautica,' while not a few of Virgil's oft-quoted similes are derived from Apollonius. In our own day he inspired the 'Life and Death of Jason.'

'The Argonauts' is not a great national poem like the 'Aeneid'; an Alexandrian living on the threshold of the mysterious East, Apollonius "heard it calling," and his fancy delighted to paint the savage scenery of the Caucasus, and the gloomy seas and lowering skies that attended the Argonauts to Colchis. It was as though he challenged himself to take up certain opportunities that Homer had let slip for moving and magical adventures in "perilous seas and faery lands forlorn." In his epic he shows the defects of his period and his school. The adventures are too successive, so that the poem tends to become a mere itinerary—a most thrilling one, it is true, but there is too much that is irrelevant to the working out of the drama, and there is a wealth of picturesque detail that is overflorid to a taste trained in the fine simplicity of Homer or the impressive outline manner of Virgil. The Alexandrians were at once very Greek and very modern. But even those who insist on the weaknesses of

the poem as a whole must admit the unmistakable beauties of the Third Book, with its description of the passion of Medea. This is not the baleful Medea of tragedy, but a charming compound of *jeune fille* and sorceress. The 'Argonautica' is a love poem, and here we meet the Alexandrian attitude to women. The pathos of Medea's early love for Jason, so strikingly absent from Euripides, is a strong *motif* in Apollonius. Unfortunately, he did not end his poem with the taking of the fleece and Medea's flight; and so the return adventures, in which the less agreeable side of her character is emphasized, are inevitably an anticlimax.

There are two English verse renderings of Apollonius, long out of print; and since they were in the manner of Pope, we need not regret their scarceness. Mr. Way is well known for his excellent verse translation of the plays of Euripides, and he has all the equipment of the successful translator. But in choosing the sixteen-syllabled verses familiar to readers of William Morris's 'Sigurd the Volsung,' Mr. Way lighted on a most difficult medium. Even Morris could not avoid an awkward line now and again, and Mr. Way has by no means succeeded in giving the general effect of smoothness attained in 'Sigurd.' Sometimes the awkwardness is due to the shifting of the accent to an unnatural place, as is occasionally inevitable in this metre; but, from whatever cause, there is a heavy, tumbling effect about Mr. Way's version that is far from reproducing the "carrying-on-ness" of the Greek hexameter. We have too many such lines as

"So in sweetest communion did these try each the other's heart,"

or

"That, as he fought in the shock of the meeting ranks, he should have."

It is an athletic feat to read aloud several continuous pages of Mr. Way's translation. It is seen at its best in passages like the following, where Medea addresses Jason:

". . . 'So the golden fleece unto Hellas, if this be all,
From Aia afar shalt thou bear: oh yea, turn thou and depart,
Whithersoever it pleaseth thee; seek the desire of thine heart.'
She spake, and her eyes to the earth at her feet in silence she cast;
And her cheeks, divinely fair, were wet as her tears fell fast,
As she sorrowed because that far and afar from her side o'er the main
He must wander away. And she looked in his eyes and she spake yet again
With mournful word, and his right hand now hath she ta'en in her own;
For the shamefastness now from her eyes on the wings of love had flown:
'But, oh remember, if ever thou com'st to thine home afar,
Medea's name; and in like wise I, when sundered we are,
Will forget thee not.' . . ."

Apart from his metre, Mr. Way's translation is most successful. It is scholarly and well sustained, and will doubtless hold its place for some time to come as the best translation of the 'Argonautica.' It is got up in the charming and convenient style of the Temple Classics, and contains a useful epilogue on the life of Apollonius. It is a signal opportunity for those who are unable to read the original to make the acquaintance of a new type of epic, the Alexandrian, in which, true to the preoccupations of Alexandria, love plays the leading part.

Glories of Spain. By Charles W. Wood, F.R.G.S. Macmillan Co. Pp. xxiv, 498. 85 illustr. 1901.

Mr. Wood has invented a new *genre*. Genius from time to time has taken journeys more or less sentimental and whimsical in search of the picturesque, and has recorded its sensations and ideas in free creations of its fancy. Plainer-minded journeyers either recorded what they saw, or drew a large and clumsy bow in travellers' tales of what they did not see. But the creations of genius have no such crude ineptitude; they show what should have been seen from each mount of vision even though the stage was bare. They, like the god floating through the atmosphere of a Greek landscape or the siren voices heard on a wave-beaten shore, labor with Plato's poet to complete the broken round of nature and to give to it meaning and interpretation. But this precious ore, from Sterne to Longfellow, has lain in a single vein, and, like genius always, has refused a second working. There is only one 'Sentimental Journey' and one 'Hyperion.' For Mr. Wood it has been reserved to reduce this process of poetry to the reduplicating power of an automatic machine, and to have produced, so we gather from the advertisement, at least four books in this his own *genre*.

To judge from the present specimen, he is quite an artist in his way. Sterne might have come back from the shades to write some scenes, but it would have been a Sterne purified in purgatorial fires, his wantonness departed and with it his genius. At the opposite extreme, the whole book is steeped in the atmosphere of those "Annuals" which were the delight of the first half of the last century, precious yearly periodicals, by no means of protest, but of an elegant and dapper romanticism. So Mr. Wood works out his romantic progress through Spanish cities, meeting with more adventures than Don Quixote, and these more astonishing. The itinerary is brief; this is no clumsy traveller who rushes along and crams us with names. Entering Spain by its eastern wicket, the picturesque possibilities are developed of Gerona, Barcelona, Montserrat, Monresa, Lerida, Zaragoza, Tarragona, Poblet, Valencia, and Saguntum, few names in all, and in a mere corner and strip of the land. But the developing is well done. The towns open before us with separate and living personalities. The crowds or the solitudes in the streets, the churches and ruins are clear and distinct. With it all, too, goes the haze of illusion which is of Mr. Wood's art. He believes in human interest in his pictures and supplies it richly. Across his stage come priests, several of them—he confesses to a weakness for priests—and they are usually good; at least one bishop, who is hypnotized into a long history of himself, almost the only dull one in the book; a nun with a romantic tale; a bootblack of aristocratic descent, who, unlike the needy knife-grinder, has a story to tell us; a watchman; a veiled and mysterious lady, who begs and who also has a weakness for wine—this is managed well; a monk musician, or rather two of them, one of romantic presence after the fashion of the "Annuals," the other, an excellent other, dropped from pure romance—a hunchback playing Schumann, Bach, and Beethoven in an empty cathedral at midnight, by the light of a solitary candle; a most romantic old Canon—but who could not make romance out of a Canon of Spain with an old housekeeper who calls him "Canonigo"?—who lives in the most wonderful Dutch interior of a house, with copper pans and old oak carving (Mr. Wood has a knack for interiors); an architecturally inclined sacristan and his son; and, above all, donkeys—a wilderness of donkeys. Towards priests and donkeys lies Mr. Wood's penchant, and the donkeys are better than the priests. It is true that none is equal to Sterne's Ass—alone worthy of the capital, the only worthy ass in literature since those of Balaam and Sancho Panza; but one here, especially, which could appreciate the joke of being beaten, is full of excellent humors.

And the art in it all, if somewhat artificial and in need of concealment, is undoubtedly great. These figures are never allowed to obscure the stage on which they move. The towns, with their varying atmospheres and associations, are made more real by their presence and never overshadowed, as in some less careful progresses which we have seen of late. Mr. Wood keeps his puppets in order, and they go back to their box obediently when need is. In this he is much aided by the illustrations. However they are produced, and whatever is their ultimate basis, they are of singular beauty, and, what illustrations seldom do, they illustrate. But little separates some of them from the exquisite steel engravings which were the glory of the old-fashioned "Annuals" and which makes them still a prize for the collector. Only on two points would we entreat Mr. Wood to reconsider his method—it will be but to slip some cogs or levers in the machine: let us have less of the vapid sentimentalities of the "Annuals" and of Chateaubriand, and more of the solider humor of Sterne and Longfellow; and let him pose less as an inspirer of mysterious confidences from all sorts and conditions of men. The effect is always a strain, and it produces, in the end, artificiality to the point of absurdity. The ingenuity otherwise in his book is so great that he can surely accomplish this.

Finally, if it may seem to Mr. Wood that we have written of his book too trivially or flippantly, let him believe that it has been read with pleasure, and is now cordially commended for its refreshing novelty and graphic vivacity.

Camera Shots at Big Game. By A. G. Wallihan. Doubleday, Page & Co.

In this, as in a former book, 'Hoofs, Claws, and Antlers,' Mr. Wallihan has presented to the world the finest photographs ever taken of large wild mammals in their native haunts. On the present occasion his hunting ranges were in northwestern Colorado and western Wyoming, and his pictures include black-tailed deer, elk, antelope, mountain sheep, coyote, black bear, wild cat, and mountain lion. He caught his subjects fording, swimming, drinking, standing alert for danger, crouching at bay, grouped by hundreds, and posed singly for a portrait study. His skill and patient industry under difficult conditions are noteworthy. He says in his preface:

"The pictures have been made in the

open country, outwitting the far-seeing antelope, or by riversides, while the author waited with bated breath the near approach of a bunch of deer. Again, the work has been done in the mountains where the fawns lay hidden, their mothers bounding away upon approach, where the fat bucks sought the shelter of the oak brush or lay out in a point of aspens that the sun might harden their horns, . . . or following the hounds in winter on the trail of a cougar over the hills and cañons of White River, or on into the bleak, wind-swept ranges of Wyoming, matching skill with the big-horn or the lordly elk."

His most thrilling "camera shots" were taken at mountain lions. Hunters treed the beasts with hounds, and then he used an eight-by-ten camera with wonderful success. In one case he caught a lioness in mid air, springing from a tree so near that she struck the ground within six feet of him.

The book contains an introduction by Theodore Roosevelt, which concludes thus:

"More and more, as it becomes necessary to preserve the game, let us hope that the camera will largely supplant the rifle. It is an excellent thing to have a nation proficient in marksmanship, and it is highly undesirable that the rifle should be wholly laid by. But the shot is, after all, only a small part of the free life of the wilderness. The chief attractions lie in the physical hardihood for which the life calls, the sense of limitless freedom which it brings, and the remoteness and wild charm and beauty of primitive nature. All of this we get exactly as much in hunting with the camera as in hunting with the rifle; and, of the two, the former is the kind of sport which calls for the higher degree of skill, patience, resolution, and knowledge of the life history of the animal sought."

The publishers have handled the illustrations unfortunately, inserting them at haphazard, and omitting several that are referred to in the text.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amber, Miles. Wistons. Scribners. $1.50.
Bloomfield, Will. Transplanting an Old Tree. Isaac H. Blanchard Co.
Bosworth, Newton. Hochelaga Depicta: A History of Montreal. (Facsimile Reprints.) Toronto: Congdon & Britnell.
Burnett, Frances H. The Methods of Lady Walderhurst. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Clay, Mrs. J. M. Frank Logan. Abbey Press. $1.
Coulevain, Pierre de. Eve Triumphant. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
Coulon, Emile. Poetical Leisure Hours and Torontonian Descriptions. Stamford (Conn.): Emile Coulon.
Dame, L. L., and Brooks, Henry. Handbook of the Trees of New England. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Dennis, J. S. Centennial Survey of Foreign Missions. Fleming H. Revell Co. $4.
Drum, Blossom. A Dog-Day Journal. Abbey Press. 50c.
Dunning, W. A. A History of Political Theories, Ancient and Mediæval. Macmillan. $2.50.
Freear, R. L. The Shadow Dwellers. Isaac H. Blanchard Co.
Graham, Alexander. Roman Africa. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Harkness, Albert, and Forbes, C. H. Cæsar's Commentaries on the Gallic War. American Book Co. $1.25.
Haymond, Mrs. W. E. Agnes Cheswick. Isaac H. Blanchard Co.
Hörstel, W. Die Riviera. (Land und Leute.) Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 4 marks.
Jones, H. C. The Elements of Physical Chemistry. Macmillan. $4.
Kidd, Benjamin. Principles of Western Civilization. Macmillan. $2.
Kovalevsky, Maxime. Russian Political Institutions. Chicago: The Chicago University Press.
Leffingwell, Albert. The Vivisection Question. New Haven: The Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co.
Lewis, A. H. Wolfville Days. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Londeregger, C. L'Achèvement du Canal de Panama. Paris: Vve. Ch. Dunod.
Lord, W. R. A First Book upon the Birds of Oregon and Washington. Portland (Ore.): W. R. Lord.
Matthews, Brander. Pen and Ink. Scribners. $1.25.
Miller, William. Mediæval Rome. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Norris, Zoe A. The Color of his Soul: A Novel. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Payne-Westbrook, Henrietta. The West-Brook Drives. Peter Eckler.
Rose, J. H. The Life of Napoleon I. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Savile, Frank. Beyond the Great South Wall: The Secret of the Antarctic. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.50.
Schmauk, T. E. Bible Geography for Schools. Philadelphia: General Council Publication House.
Sharpless, Isaac. A Quaker Experiment in Government. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach. $1.50.
The Social Evil, with Special Reference to Conditions Existing in the City of New York. (Report of Committee of Fifteen.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Underhill, A. F. Valid Objections to So-called Christian Science. Edwin S. Gorham. 25c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1902.

The Week.

Very ungraciously, and with many ifs and buts, the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee have at last agreed on a proposal for Cuban reciprocity. The details of it are grudging and unsatisfactory; but they are scarcely worth stopping over now, since every one knows that the measure will receive its final form in the Senate. The great thing is to have driven the small and small-minded junta in control of the business of the House to admit that we are morally bound to grant Cuba tariff reductions. Rates and time of going into effect will be determined later and elsewhere; to have made the reluctant and timid Committee go so far as it has in defying its protectionist tyrants, is triumph enough for the day. The victory is really Mr. Roosevelt's, who has shown the astonished Congressmen what a President can do who, when he says "plain duty," means it, and sticks to it, and drives it home to the consciences of others.

Several of the Senators who hate civil-service reform as the devil does holy water, took occasion of the debate on the Census Bill to free their bosoms of long-pent woes on that subject. Senator Stewart came out strong on the intolerable "mystery" and "secrecy" of the civil-service examinations. How men passed them, why they were then appointed to office, offered painful difficulties to his brooding mind. Just let Senators and Representatives have all the appointments, and see how plain and above-board the whole thing would be—no intrigues, no whisperings, no back-door bargainings, but simple merit coming to its own! As for Senator Gallinger, he took up again his ancient and bitter parable. Civil servants protected in their offices by law were to him the one unclean thing in politics. Why, there are clerks in the departments, credited to New Hampshire, who do not "go home to vote"! Worse than that, they "do not contribute for political purposes"! Of course, to the Gallinger intellect, it is clear that "there ought to be some way of weeding them out." But, for a real Tammany outburst, commend us to the cry of Senator Scott against what he called "civil service," to which, he said, he "was opposed from the beginning." "It will soon be," he shouted, "that we will [shall] not need the service of Congress at all. The Civil-Service Commissioners will be the people who will run this country." Such was the animus, half ignorance, half malice, of the men who aimed a blow at civil-service reform in the Census Bill, which President Roosevelt is under the highest obligation to nullify.

Senator Tillman richly deserves expulsion for his passionate assault upon his colleague, Senator McLaurin, in open session of the Senate, but apparently some way will be found, short of that, to "purge" him of contempt and restore him to good standing in the "most august assembly on earth." No provocation can excuse so gross a breach of the rules of the Senate, to say nothing of the manners of a gentleman. The South Carolinian's antecedents, with the fierce methods so long used by him in fighting his way to the front in his own State, have evidently made him quite too ready both with tongue and fist. It must be admitted—and in saying this we are only following the opinion of some of the best Republican Senators—that Mr. Tillman has greatly improved since coming to Washington, and, in many ways, has given promise of becoming a useful legislator; but so long as he is still subject to such bursts of ferocity, his place is obviously not in the Senate of the United States. We have seen in that body too many representatives of the half-horse, half-alligator type to expect perfect courtesy from all its members; but open brawling, with bloody noses and blackened eyes, is scarcely the kind of thing the Senate would like to exhibit to Prince Henry as a sample of the manners of our statesmen.

The President has now spoken the last official word in the Schley controversy, and his decision is a happy mixture of sound judgment and shrewdness. He brought to his task a fresh mind and a practised power of expression. The skill of the literary man surely stood him in good stead when he wrote that the present appeal to him was "in effect an appeal from the action of President McKinley," and when he announced his own finding to be that "President McKinley did substantial justice" in recognizing Sampson as commander-in-chief at Santiago, and in recommending for him a greater advance than for Schley. Can you be sure that you are not an anarchist if you object to such a verdict? Equally ingenious is Mr. Roosevelt's review of the actual course of the battle. He had to intervene in an angry dispute as to which one of two men was the "hero" of the fight. His answer is "Neither: it was a captain's fight." Mr. Roosevelt has the air of putting aside as of small account the findings of the Board of Inquiry in regard to matters occurring before the battle. The appeal to him was on other points. Moreover, he remarks that Schley's offences had been technically "condoned." Yet we do not expect the Schley partisans to glory excessively in this part of the President's memorandum. It is really an approval of the grave charges made against Schley in his conduct of the preliminary operations. As to all of them President Roosevelt quietly remarks, "I am satisfied that on the whole the Court did substantial justice." That is to say, he agrees with it in thinking that Admiral Schley was guilty of terrible lapses as an officer, and of conduct unbecoming a gentleman. To say that these "offences" were "condoned" is cold comfort for a popular hero *sans reproche*.

The Supreme Court has decided, in the action brought by Gov. Van Sant in behalf of the State of Minnesota to prevent the merging of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Companies, that it has no jurisdiction, and that the bill of complaint cannot be amended so as to confer jurisdiction. Therefore, the case drops without any indication of an opinion touching the main controversy involved in the merger. The essence of the controversy is whether the merger is in the nature of a monopoly, which the law of the land, both State and Federal, aims to prevent. Monday's decision was of a technical nature, interesting to lawyers, indeed, but not to the public in general.

The announcement is made from Washington, by the Attorney-General himself, that a suit will shortly be begun by him to test the legality of the merger of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Railway Companies. Further, that the President requested his opinion as to the legality of the merger, and that he had recently given his opinion that it violates the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890, whereupon the President directed that he take suitable action to test the question judicially. In so doing, the President is, of course, moved by something more than mere curiosity as to the legal bearings of a new form of corporate enterprise. In the course of argument in the case brought by the Attorney-General of Minnesota against the merger, one of the judges asked the learned counsel of the Northern Securities Company whether there was any reason why the system of merging might not be carried on till all the railroads in the United States were consolidated. The reply was that no such reason existed in the mind of the counsel, but that he thought it very unlikely that merging would ever be carried to such an extreme. That colloquy probably

had its influence in deciding the President to take some step to show that the Republican party is not altogether remiss, as has been charged by leading Democrats, in using such powers as the law has supplied for curbing the Trusts and combines which have so greatly multiplied of late. Thus politics is at the bottom of the suit which the Attorney-General has announced his intention to begin, but it is politics in the wide sense of the nation's purpose to find out where it stands in reference to these huge aggregations of capital, which seem to menace the orderly and customary progress of industry and social growth.

The Anti-Trust Act, under which the Attorney-General will proceed, was passed by Congress in 1890. It declares that every contract or combination, in the form of Trust or otherwise, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations is illegal, and may be proceeded against in the courts of the United States by the district attorneys, under the direction of the Attorney-General, for the purpose of restraining, preventing, and prohibiting violations of the act. The question to be considered by the court, therefore, is whether the Northern Securities Company is a contract or combination in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States. Of course, this point was duly considered by the legal advisers of the company before the merger was agreed upon. They contend that the holders of the shares of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Companies have the right to put their holdings in a safe-deposit box or common receptacle, under an agreed custodian, and that no court can disturb them in such ownership and disposition of their shares. They say that the only difference between such custody and that of a corporate holding like the Northern Securities Company is that, in the former case, the death of the holders would release the securities and dissolve the agreement, whereas in the latter no such mishap would occur. The vital difference, therefore, is that in the one case the agreement is temporary, and in the other it is or may be perpetual. In its essence it is the difference between ordinary holding and mortmain, which, as lawyers know, is a material difference.

A little second thought will, we think, convince even the Wall Street interests which were put so much out of countenance on Thursday, that the Administration's movement to test the Northern Securities combination is desirable. The plain facts are that a company with $400,000,000 capital is on the eve of beginning business and distributing its shares to investors; and that a severe prohibitory law exists which may or may not cover this organization. On this second point eminent lawyers are known to differ, and no final decision can be had outside the Federal courts. Considering the consequences that might ensue were the test to be applied when the company had been long in active operation, and when, presumably, a number of other companies had been organized on similar lines, it would seem that the question could not be pushed to a settlement too soon. This we believe to be the feeling of lawyers generally, and it is certainly the feeling of the thoughtful public. The people at large, in fact, have a further stake in such a judicial test. The Northern Securities project may be beneficial and innocuous. But it is not denied that the theoretical powers under that charter, in the line of possible control over competition, are all but unlimited. This being so, the very same corporate device may conceivably be used, at any time, by promoters whose purposes would be both dangerous and harmful.

Secretary Hay's formal protest against the secret convention between China and Russia is a diplomatic move of the first importance. Forwarded on the 1st of February, although first published on Thursday last by the *Sun*, it anticipated by some days the publication of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, the moral effect of which it undoubtedly strengthens. Secretary Hay has an interest of a very personal sort in this negotiation, for it was his initiative and patience which, in the spring of 1900, gained assurances from all the Powers, including Russia, that the open door would be maintained in China. The correspondence, which was chiefly concerned with foreign "spheres of influence" and leased territory in the Chinese Empire, is now of exceptional interest, since Russia principally was affected by this international agreement. Secretary Hay, beyond uniform tariff regulations, desired assurances that it was not the purpose of Russia "to interfere with other nations, and that our citizens would continue to enjoy within said leased territory all the rights and privileges guaranteed them under existing treaties with China." It is interesting, in view of subsequent events, to recall that Mr. Hay named to the Russian Foreign Office, as the first Powers which had fallen in with the American proposal, the future allies England and Japan. Count Muravieff met Secretary Hay's note of September 6, 1899, very squarely in the matter of tariffs; in the matter of general commercial concessions the Russian Foreign Minister merely said that, in the territory (read Mantchuria) which lay beyond the districts already leased to Russia, "the Imperial Government had no intention whatever of claiming any privileges for its own subjects, to the exclusion of other foreigners." This assurance is Secretary Hay's warrant for protesting against the exclusive concession of railway and mining rights in Mantchuria to Russian companies. His intention is not primarily political, but commercial.

Gov. Taft concluded on Thursday his testimony before the Senate Committee regarding the situation in the Philippines. His appearance at the national capital has been a great disappointment to those who welcomed his coming as that of an almost omniscient being, whose views as to the proper policy of our Government would command universal acceptance. Practically all that he has said may be reduced to this, that he and his associate Commissioners, and other Americans who may be sent, from time to time, to the Philippines, must be trusted to govern the islands as they think best; and that it is not only impertinent, but intolerable, that anybody here should criticise anything they may do, or, indeed, talk about the matter in any way, since any talk is pretty sure to do harm. Gov. Taft has been a judge of high reputation, but he knows little about the American character if he supposes that such Imperialistic rule will be sanctioned by the people. The truth is, that the feeling in this country in favor of giving the Filipinos their independence is now decidedly stronger than it was before the Governor began testifying, and the Anti-Imperialists are much indebted to him for the stimulus which he has given their cause.

Like Gov. Taft's statement to the Philippine Committee, Secretary Root's letter to Senator Lodge in defence of the army admits that there have been many cases of sporadic ill-treatment of Filipinos by American soldiers. This is all that has ever been charged by the critics of the war in the Philippines. It was quite unnecessary for Mr. Root, or any one else, to show that the orders to the army have always been against the practice of cruelties or barbarous methods of warfare. The rules of war have long laid down certain actions, such as the poisoning of wells, the shooting down of prisoners, etc., as beyond the pale of civilized warfare. The military authorities in every country inform their troops upon these points, but whether the under officers and the soldiers live up to their orders depends entirely upon the discipline of each army. According to Secretary Root, some forty-four officers, soldiers, and camp-followers have so far been tried for illegal actions, and of these no less than thirty-nine have been convicted. How many more have gone undetected cannot even be estimated. Unfortunately, the nature of the country, the fact that it is against "niggers" that our troops are fighting, and their frequently being split up into detachments of five

or ten without an officer, allow many an opportunity for misbehavior which is never heard of by the high officials. That there is very grave provocation in the undoubted cruelty and misbehavior of the Filipinos, the Secretary asserts, and no one will deny; but no misconduct on the part of the owners of the Philippines will excuse the American soldier who lowers himself to their level.

The American Newspaper Publishers' Association, at its annual meeting on Thursday, passed the subjoined resolution:

"Resolved, That the American Newspaper Publishers' Association ask Congress to abolish the duty on wood pulp, mechanical ground wood, and lumber used in the manufacture of paper, and that the duty on news print paper be reduced."

This resolution expresses, we think, the unanimous wish of the press of the United States, and is, in itself, a reasonable proposition. The material for the manufacture of wood pulp (spruce logs) is becoming scarce, so that, under the normal relations of supply and demand, the price of paper must rise. The very scarcity of the material favors a combination of the paper manufacturers. As soon as the latter can control the supply, they can advance the price, and may be forced to do so, even against their will. The publishers, as a general rule, cannot advance the price of their newspapers without incurring great risks. A one-cent newspaper, for example, cannot raise its price to two cents without danger of losing the bulk of its circulation, yet a small advance in the price of white paper may make it impossible to sell at one cent per copy without loss. The entire press of the country is facing the problem of an advance in the price of its raw material, which will come soon, unless the supply of wood pulp can be increased.

No such increase of supply is possible except from foreign countries. Canada and Norway have large forests of the kind of timber suitable for wood pulp, and are able to produce pulp itself cheaper than it can be made here. Under the Dingley tariff, logs and blocks of wood for the manufacture of pulp are admitted free, but wood pulp, if bleached, is subjected to a duty of one-quarter cent per pound, dry weight. The rate for unbleached pulp produced by the mechanical process is one-twelfth cent, and by chemical process one-sixth cent, per pound. The duty on print papaper is three-tenths cent per pound. There is a senseless provision in the law that, if any country shall impose an export duty on pulp wood, an equivalent amount shall be levied as an additional duty on wood pulp imported from such country. This provision, foolish in any case, is especially so in the case of a country which has an insufficient supply of the article in question. The export duty puts an obstacle in the way of the importing country which is seeking an additional supply. The countervailing duty doubles the obstacle, without any gain to anybody. The tariff combine will resist the change, not because the duty on wood pulp is of any particular consequence, but lest the opening of any crevice in the wall shall lead to wider breach. For the same reason that Mr. McKinley's reciprocity treaties were throttled, the movement for free wood pulp will be resisted and defeated unless the newspapers solemnly teli their Congressmen that they will oppose the renomination and reëlection of every one who votes against the measure. The Illinois Press Association seems to have reached this determination. Nothing short of this will be of any effect.

Prince Charming himself could not have made happier first impressions than has Henry of Prussia. A right democratic prince, with a true sailor's affability and frank address, he has shown an intuitive perception of the real nature of his mission. This is simply that of the bearer of cordial greetings from one great nation to another. Mystified foreign observers will not believe this, and even in England the notion seems to be held that the Prince may quietly make a treaty with President Roosevelt of a sort to revolutionize international relations. Saying nothing of the ludicrous misunderstanding involved in this, it shows how incredible it is to a certain order of intellect that trouble should be taken in the name of plain friendship. But it is purely as a friend that the Prince comes, and only as such that he gets his hearty welcome. And, come to think of it, this is really better and more significant than any treaty or alliance. Instinctive sympathies and spontaneous good will cannot be reduced to writing or put into a binding contract; but when they exist, as they now do between Germany and the United States, everything which serves to emphasize and heighten them, as does Prince Henry's visit, is an event to make glad the hearts of all lovers of peace.

Lord Rosebery's final announcement of his purpose to set up for himself, in opposition to Campbell-Bannerman and the bulk of the Liberal party, has an unfortunate appearance of being a step to which he was goaded by his critics and importuned by his friends, rather than led by his own courage and instinct of leadership. During the weeks since his Chesterfield speech, he has been letting I dare not wait upon I would, apparently hoping that the Liberal party would gravitate his way. Now that he has found the party organization still indisposed to throw over Irish home rule, and not inclined to adopt his views of the Boer war, he reads himself out, more in mortification than in boldness. He will doubtless form a Liberal "cave" for the present, but the real question is what he will do next. Some think his aim will be to detach the Liberal Unionists from the Conservatives. But this will be difficult. Joseph Chamberlain will have something to say about that, and he is a politician far more astute than Rosebery, besides possessing a daring and adroitness to which that nobleman can lay no claim. And Chamberlain has already gone out of his way to show that he will have neither part nor lot with Rosebery. The latter's idea of peace proposals he called "wild and whirling words," and he even gibed in the Commons at one of Rosebery's catchwords—"that great and glorious word, efficiency," he said, mockingly. Rosebery is young, as English statesmen go, and may hope to live long enough to be Prime Minister again, at the head of some party or other; but the immediate effect of his action can only be to make him a more impossible Liberal leader than ever.

Spain has known little but political and industrial upheavals since 1898, yet the present troubles in Catalonia, which seem to be expected to spread to other parts of the kingdom, appear more threatening than anything that has gone before. Radicals and Socialists, with leanings towards anarchy, have long swarmed in Barcelona, but why, on account of their fierce outbreaks, should the Government be thinking of declaring martial law over the whole of Spain? This grave and even panicky view of the situation would argue that the discontent which so many observers of Spanish affairs have been reporting is more widespread and deep-seated than was suspected. Taxation, as usual, is at the root of one great popular grievance. The food tax, known as the *consumo*, which is levied on all food (except bread) entering towns, has been a cause of general dissatisfaction and outcry. This tax yields for the national Treasury about $13,000,000, and for the municipalities something like $10,000,000 in addition. The municipal rate varies, though the Treasury portion is fixed, so that the tax rests more heavily upon some cities than upon others. On wine, for example, the *consumo* tax in Barcelona is said to be over 400 per cent. on the original cost, while in Madrid it is about 200. Taxes so grievous and unequal seem as if ingeniously devised to provoke a revolt. When we reckon in the industrial depression in the manufacturing provinces, the anarchistic propaganda pushed partly by a foreign element, the general instability of the Government, and the *malaise* of the country, it is not, perhaps, surprising that we hear of such extensive disturbances in the Peninsula.

MR. ROOSEVELT'S FIRST VETO.

President Roosevelt has not yet vetoed—but can there be any doubt that he will veto, when it reaches him?—the bill (H. R. 10,308) to "provide for a permanent census office." A permanent census office may be desirable, but no bill establishing it which incidentally aims a deadly blow at the merit system should receive the signature of Theodore Roosevelt. Exactly that is what the bill does. By providing that all the clerks now employed in the Census Office shall be taken into the classified service, it proposes to foist a thousand or twelve hundred Congressional protégés into offices which, under the civil-service rules, would go to the persons who, by test of open competition, have won their way to the head of the eligible lists. It is, in short, a flagrant attempt to "beat" and discredit civil-service reform. But that means, of course, that it is also an attempt to discredit President Roosevelt; and he, convinced and committed civil-service reformer that he is, will know how to fling back the insult in the teeth of the spoilsmen who offer it to him.

There is no concealment about the nature of the bill. Its demoralizing aim was clearly pointed out in both House and Senate by the handful of genuine civil-service reformers to be found in either. Representative Moody indignantly denounced the job. Senator Lodge, with no flaming zeal, explained its vicious tendency. The case stands as follows: There are some 2,298 persons at present employed in the Census Office. About 800 are to be retained in the permanent census. The temporary employees number 145, and they will be dropped. There remain, therefore, fully 1,200 employees who, by the bill, are to be carried over to the classified service. Now what does that mean? It means that these clerks, without examination, are to be put over the heads of those who have passed the civil-service examinations and are on the eligible lists waiting to be certified, as the law directs, to the first vacancies that may occur in the Government departments. If you are "in the classified service," though unemployed, you are entitled to a "transfer" to any office falling vacant, with preference over a candidate merely on the eligible list. But who are these specially favored individuals? Why, they are Congressional appointees, thrust upon the Director of the Census by political influence, and now smuggled into the classified service by the back-door of tricky legislation. There was no disguise about the business. In either house the bill was put through amidst jeers at civil-service reform—"this so-called civil-service reform," was Senator Gallinger's taunt—and in a hilarious and unblushing revel of the spoilsmen.

The bill has gone to conference, but if it comes to the President with this nefarious assault upon civil-service reform still included in it, Mr. Roosevelt is bound to veto it. He has some regard for his own consistency, if Congressmen have none for theirs. If there is anything for which he stands in public life, it is for an impartial and unflinching maintenance of the merit system. The man who made so heroic a fight at Albany to get "the starch" put back into the State civil-service laws, is not going to sit idly by and let Congress make the national civil-service laws look as limp as one of Gov. Black's starchless collars on a muggy day in July. The President is under obligation to see that good faith is kept with those who, all over the country, have accepted the Government's invitation and taken the civil-service examinations. The tacit, the well-nigh explicit promise to these successful persons at the head of the eligible lists is that they shall be certified to the 600 or 700 vacancies occurring every year. But now a swinish Congress steps in to put over their heads enough unexamined favorites to fill all the vacancies for two years. Meanwhile, the eligible list is good only for a year, and the result would be, not only to deprive those on it of their implied right to appointment, but to force them to take their examinations over again, if they still desired to take service under a Government capable of so gross an injustice to them.

This is the spoilsman's game, the politician's double-dealing, which President Roosevelt is bound to block. None of the ordinary reasons against vetoing an important bill apply in this case. It is not the end of a session. The bill can be revived in decent form and made law. And the argument of the expediency of not offending Congressmen with whom the President has to cooperate, is not one which we should advise any one to address to Mr. Roosevelt when it is so clear a case of right and wrong. He would simply take down a copy of his 'Strenuous Life' and read to the tempter a few ringing sentences: "There are certain subjects on which no man can compromise." For Theodore Roosevelt, civil-service reform is one of them. "When a man in public life pledges himself to a certain course of action, he shall, as a matter of course, do what he said he would do, and shall not be held to have acted honorably if he does otherwise." By word and deed President Roosevelt is pledged up to the hilt to withstand all such attacks upon the merit system as that which the census bill carries with it, and we are therefore confident that he will courageously meet those enemies of his, and of reform, and let them feel the weight of his veto.

It is a critical hour for the whole reform. The demoralization under President McKinley was insidious and pervasive. This latest cynical attempt to make a mockery of the civil-service laws is the natural result. The clerks were put into the Census Office as so much spoils, and the excuse was given that their employment was special and temporary. Now we see the whole body of them shoved into the classified service. If the President consents to this breach in the defences, soon the whole fortress will be swarming with spoilsmen, and civil-service reform will be made an end of. The time is ripe for a bold and vigorous and conscientious reformer like the President to call a halt. A smashing veto message now would do more for the cause than all the insincere political platforms in the world. It is as if the President's enemies in Congress had determined to challenge his metal. Prince Henry has been reading 'American Ideals'; no finer spectacle could the President offer him of the ideal in action, of civic courage leaping to the defence of principle, than that of withstanding single-handed the rush of the embattled spoilsmen, and taking his stand, as he does in *Life's* cartoon last week, upon civil-service reform, with the cry, "This rock shall fly from its firm base as soon as I."

HUMILIATING THE HOUSE.

"You must know what privileges you have. Not to speak every one what he listeth, or what cometh into his brain. But your privilege is 'Aye' or 'No.'"

Such was the language of a Lord Keeper of the Great Seal, in the Tudor days, to the House of Commons. It would be regarded now as an absolute suppression of the liberties of the Commons of England. Yet we have lived to see that lusty child of the Mother of Parliaments, the House of Representatives of the United States, held down to the bare privilege of voting "Aye" or "No," with scarce a murmur heard. Its haughty Keeper of the Great Seal is no Tudor courtier, but its own Committee on Rules. That body reported a "rule" last week that the pending bill for the repeal of war taxes should be voted on without amendment. A perfunctory debate was to be allowed—though this was cut off by Representative Richardson's motion to proceed at once to voting, since, as he asked, "If we are really gagged, why should we try to talk?"—but any amendment, large or small, was to be immediately declared out of order. There could not well be a rougher way of reminding the House to what a vanishing point its old privileges have been whittled.

Yet another such rule, it is said, is to be put in force when the bill for the relief of Cuba is laid before the House. Members will be allowed to speak their minds about that measure and to vote for or against it; but will not be permitted to change it, to improve it, in any particular. Evidently automata would, under such circumstances, serve as well as living men, with brains and voices,

in the capacity of Representatives. The Committee on Rules could then, a little more conveniently than now, press a button, and let the roll-call do the rest. One has only to look to the other end of the Capitol to see the contrast between such slavish methods and the old tradition of free discussion and untrammelled decision. The Senate passed the Philippine Tariff Bill on Monday. Debate had been perfectly free; the right of offering amendments was unrestricted. Many amendments were, in fact, offered. Some of them were adopted, others voted down; but the sense of the Senate was fairly taken.

That is the fundamental objection to this new style of putting manacles on the House: it defeats the great end of every deliberative assembly—namely, to ascertain "the sense of the meeting." The leaders of the House refuse to take the sense of the House. They devise a rule, rather, to prevent that sense from obtaining expression. No one can doubt, for example, that the Babcock bill for putting iron and steel on the free list would have commanded a majority in the House, if the House had been allowed to vote on it. As an amendment to the bill repealing war taxes, it would have been perfectly germane. Many Representatives were eager to offer it as such; more than a majority were ready to vote for it. But no, said the Lord Keepers of the Committee on Rules, all you can do is to say "Aye" or "No" when the bill is put on its passage, and all your amendments will go out on a point of order. That marks the depth of humiliation to which the House has been brought.

We know it is said that the House did not need to adopt the obnoxious rule. It could have refused to sanction the proposal of the Speaker and his satellites of the Committee on Rules. Messrs. Henderson and Dalzell humbly profess to be "the servants of the House," and will allege that, if it wears any fetters, they are self-imposed. This has a technical plausibility, but does not go to the heart of the case. If the House had rejected the rule, then the bill would not have been called up at all. The Committee knew that both sides of the House were desirous of passing a bill of some sort. It practically said to the members, "Very well; take the bill exactly as we present it, without the change of a letter or a comma, or else you will not get it at all." It may be said that the House had still a remedy. It could have elected a new Speaker, and thus got a new Committee on Rules. But that would have been practically a revolution; and it was upon its impossibility that the Committee cunningly counted when it asked the House to cut itself off from the power of amendment. The only alternative was to revolutionize the organization of the House. It is substantially true, therefore, that the creatures of the House have devised a scheme to make the House impotent.

Speaker Henderson, in that pitifully weak letter of his to an Iowa constituent, innocently revealed another way in which the House, under his leadership, is sinking into discredit. Speaking of tariff revision, of which he said that, as respects "a few schedules, like steel and glass, I would [should] like to see it done," he remarked:

> "You may not be aware that under the rules of the House we would [should] be able, undoubtedly, to pass a bill that might touch a very few items, putting some on the free list or reducing; but while, under the rules of the House, this might be accomplished, the Senate has no such rules, and there it would probably broaden out into a general revision of the tariff. That all of us dread and fear."

There it is again: the sense of the House must not be taken. Representatives cannot speak their wish and work their will, lest, if they do, something happen elsewhere. The House is to live in terror of the Senate. The House has "rules," to act like bit and bridle, but the lawless Senate may actually do what the majority of its members desire! That is the spectacle which frightens Speaker Henderson. He has so long been accustomed to voting to order, and only on questions which the Committee on Rules deems it wise to let the House consider, that the thought of open discussion and free voting fills him with alarm.

It is clear, however, that it is only a bogey at which he is terrified. The Senate *has* its rules. The majority of the Senate *can* have its way. This we have seen again in the case of the Philippine Tariff Bill. If the Republican Senators were in earnest, they could effect that tariff revision which Speaker Henderson affirms to be so desirable but so impossible. Every one knows this. And every one knows, also, that what the Speaker and his protectionist mentors are afraid of is, that the thing will get out of hand if brought up at all. They know that a Republican revolt is muttering in the West, and they fear that many Republican votes would be found united to Democratic if a tariff revision bill could be got squarely before the House. So they go about to deny the House the right to vote at all on tariff revision, apparently unconscious that they are thus humiliating the House which they profess to honor, and doing all in their power to enhance the dignity and importance of the Senate, which they profess to dread. If any one inquires why it is that the Senate has so greatly risen in popular esteem during the past ten years, while the House has sunk, the true answer will point to those timid and narrow-minded leaders of the House who have been so successful in making it a contemptible second in all great matters of national legislation.

A NEW SCHEME TO AVOID LABOR TROUBLES.

There has never been a time when any scheme for securing better relations between capital and labor, and especially for avoiding a recourse to strikes and lockouts, was so sure of sympathetic attention as now. The public has grown weary of the suffering inflicted upon it, as well as upon the parties immediately concerned, when differences end in bitter controversies, and has become convinced that there must be some better way of settling such disputes than by fights. Hopeful progress is now making with a plan for establishing a central court of settlement and appeal for employers and employees in the various building trades of New York city. There are dozens of these trades—carpenters, masons, iron-workers, stone-workers, plumbers, plasterers, and so on; indeed, the outsider must be surprised to learn how many different kinds of occupation there are which have to do, in one way or another, with building operations. The number of employers reaches high into the thousands, and there are scores of thousands of workmen. The establishment of any system which would secure peace and harmony in this great army would consequently be an event of the first importance in the industrial world.

Perhaps the most serious obstacle to the securing and maintenance of the right relations has been the lack of any machinery for preventing a difference from ending in a strike before an attempt at arbitration is made. The employees "get mad" and stop work, or the employers say that they "can't stand such nonsense," and order a lockout; each side feels indignant at the other, and does not want to be the first to back down; if arbitration is proposed, it is hard to agree upon terms and to secure the proper referees, and the controversy drags on for weeks, quite likely to end in no material gain for the party which precipitated the trouble.

The fundamental feature of the present scheme is the establishment of a permanent body for the settlement of all questions as they arise—a body constituted when both sides are cool, and considering issues submitted by people who still remain cool. This "central court of settlement and appeal" is to have three salaried members, chosen for a term of not less than three years, who will be the nucleus of a larger body of nine men, six of whom will be constantly shifting. One of the central three is to be chosen by the workmen in the various building trades, acting through a committee; the second by the employers, acting in the same fashion; and the third by these two. It is hoped and expected that men of good ability and high standing will be secured for these positions, as their work would seem attractive and their pay would be

liberal. On a question being raised in any trade—as, for example, the painters'—the three permanent members of the court would be reinforced by three men representing the employers and three representing the employees in this trade, making nine in all. These six temporary members would bring expert knowledge of the special conditions affecting their trade to supplement the grasp of general principles affecting all trades possessed by the three who sit permanently. The nine would decide, say, the terms on which the employing painters and their employees should work for the coming year, and then these six temporary members would withdraw, to be replaced by six representing the carpenters, six who should act for the plasterers, and so on. When all trades have thus been through the court, announcement will be made of every agreement that has been reached, and these agreements will be the rule by which all who have to do with building operations, as employers and employed, are to be governed for the next twelvemonth.

Should any controversy arise as to whether either side in any trade is living up to the agreement, recourse would at once be had to the court. If, for instance, the steam-fitters should think they had a grievance against their employers, their three special representatives, with the three representing their employers, would join the standing three, and the nine would render their decision after hearing all the evidence and considering the merits of the case. Meanwhile the employers in every trade would be pledged not to order a lockout and the workmen not to order a strike, so that the development of a controversy need cause no interruption of work or inconvenience to the public.

The proposed court would have no legal authority. It would depend solely upon moral influence for the execution of its decrees. But it is believed that a hearty acceptance of the scheme by both sides in all of the many trades would give such weight to any decision of the body that neither side to a dispute submitted to it would challenge the odium involved in repudiating its authority. The development of the plan was intrusted, some months ago, to Mr. William H. Sayward, a well-known practical builder and public-spirited citizen of Boston, who organized the National Association of Builders, of which he is now the Secretary. He has had experience in such work as he is now doing, having devised a system of working relations between employers and employees in the building trades of Boston which has prevented any strikes in those trades for a number of years. He has presented the scheme to nearly all of the many employers' associations, and in every case has secured their cordial approval. It is now being submitted formally to all the labor unions in the various trades; and as many of their leaders have individually endorsed the idea, it is hoped that these bodies will also accept it. In that case it should be possible to put it in operation during the present year.

It would be over-sanguine to expect that any plan will immediately put an end to all troubles in any trade, and especially in so large a group of trades as is here involved. But there is warrant for great encouragement that a scheme which appears so reasonable and practicable should have been devised, and that so much progress should have been made toward carrying it out. This progress is in itself a sign that public opinion is enforcing its growing demand that industrial war must cease.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY SCHEME.

The new Ship-Subsidy Bill is made up of two distinct parts, the first relating to mail subsidy, and the second to general subsidy. These are not only kept entirely distinct in the provisions of the act, but are quite distinct in their general principle. The mail subsidy purports to be given on the basis of *value received* by the Government; that is, it provides a certain special price for mail-carrying contracts. If the Government does not receive value for what it pays under this system, then the system has no justification, and the payment must be regarded as a mere bonus. The general subsidy has, on the other hand, no element of a direct return to the Government, and is merely in the nature of Government aid to a so-called infant industry.

The new bill amends the Mail-Subsidy Act of 1891 practically in only two particulars—that is, it increases the compensation to the vessels, and makes a different classification under which the largest mail subsidies can at present be paid only to the four vessels of the American Line of over 10,000 tons burden and capable of a speed of twenty knots. Senator Frye, who stands as sponsor for the new bill, states that the postal subsidy rates under this bill are about one-third larger than those now paid under the act of 1891. It is proper, therefore, to inquire whether the service which the Government has been receiving under the act of 1891 is of such a character as to justify this increase in the payment.

During the last fiscal year of the Post-Office Department, the American Line carried about 71,000,000 grams of letters and 641,000,000 grams of printed matter, for which the Government paid to that line, under the Postal Subsidy Act of 1891, $528,537. During the same year the Cunard Line carried almost twice that weight of letters (137,000,000 grams) and 835,000,000 grams of printed matter, receiving for the service only $213,103; and the White Star Line, which carried about 62,000,000 grams of letters and 326,000,000 grams of printed matter, received but $91,591. That is, the Government is now paying the American Line at a rate about three times as high as it pays the other lines for carrying the same mails, and the only change contemplated by the present bill is the increase of this rate of payment. It is quite unnecessary to comment on such a change in the law. The simple explanation of the change is, that the postal contract of the American Line is about to expire, and that it desires to have the contract (which is now unjustifiable, so far as the public interest is concerned) renewed on a more lucrative basis.

The sections of the bill providing for a general subsidy are rather brief, and have none of the safeguards against abuses which have been so much discussed. That is, there is nothing in the bill which will prevent an empty ship from collecting full subsidy. This will interest those who contend that subsidy should be paid only in proportion to the cargo carried. There is no provision which will secure the establishment of any new means of communication, or will prevent this Government bounty from going as a bonus to those who are already engaged in the shipping business, even though they provide no increased facilities for the public. There is the same old provision about corporations owning vessels; that is, so long as the corporation is formed here, its stock may be owned by foreigners, and the subsidy may all go as dividends to foreigners.

There is no adequate guarantee that the subsidy will not be given to foreign-built ships whenever Americans consider it for their interest to buy these ships and to obtain a special American registry for them, as has been done so often in the past. There is apparently the same exclusion of Panama business from the commerce called foreign, although a large part of the trade with the west coast of South America is conducted by way of Panama, and although this is a trade which it is especially to the interest of the United States to develop. The rate of this general subsidy is one cent per gross ton for each one hundred nautical miles sailed. At this rate a steamer of ten thousand gross tonnage will earn one dollar a mile, both on the outward voyage and on the return voyage. There is an addition of 25 per cent. to this subsidy for the first five years of the life of vessels hereafter to be built.

There is no discrimination whatever in this system. The ship that carries out a cargo of American-manufactured goods receives no more Government aid than a ship of the same size which brings in one thousand immigrants from Russia or the Mediterranean; it is simply a crude, indiscriminate handing out

of public funds, with no attempt to recognize the fundamental principles behind all justifiable subsidies—if any are justifiable—that they should be given only in order to open avenues of commerce which do not already exist, and which could not be started without Government aid.

There is no limit as to the subsidy to be paid. It may be that for a year or two to come the amount will not exceed $9,000,000 per annum, the limit fixed by the old bill; but the serious effect of passing this bill would be that it would commit us to the principle that profits in shipping properly depend on Government aid, and not on economical conditions—that is, that foreign commerce is to be moved from the domain of business into the domain of politics. Does any one seriously think that, when once the country is committed to the doctrine that it is the duty of the Government to make foreign commerce profitable, at the expense of all other forms of business, the beneficiaries of the system will rest content with small subsidies? Has that been the history of pensions, or tariffs, or any other system of Government aid to individuals or classes? All signs point to an enormous increase in our foreign commerce. Our shipyards are blocked with business, and the official returns of the Treasury Department show a rapid growth of our trade in almost every direction. The question now is, Shall we go on and try to succeed in the field of the world's commerce by the means which are now giving us success, or shall we make success depend upon Government largesses and the efforts of the lobby?

THE JOHNS HOPKINS CELEBRATION.

Frequently the anniversary habit in our brand-new universities is about as naïve as the practice of that newly wedded pair who celebrated every week the coming round of Thursday, their wedding day, as an "anniversary." The completion of the twenty-fifth year of Johns Hopkins University and the retirement of its first President were, however, events so interesting that nobody will find their elaborate celebration other than fitting.

When President Gilman was called from the University of California to give shape to the indefinite bequest of Johns Hopkins, he came into unusual opportunities. The endowment, in that day of small things, was a generous one. The founder, being safely dead, required only gradual canonization, a far more facile and gracious service than that mollification and diplomacy to which presidents have frequently been driven in their dealings with living founders. The trustees, who had advised their eccentric associate to apply his fortune to the founding of a university and a hospital, were wise enough to confide absolutely the working out of this programme to the man of their choice. President Gilman, then, was free to found an institution unique in its day in America, of which productive scholarship should be the informing idea—free to take immediately the step which President Eliot, inspired even then by the same ambition, has since been able to take in the Harvard Graduate School.

Indeed, Johns Hopkins University, to educators of the old school, must have seemed a revolutionary enterprise. Nothing could have been more unlike an American college. The new school started with none but graduate students. To the older colleges, where genuine graduate students, except those in the professional schools, were scarcely admissible, this was a fatal putting of the cart before the horse. Then the new university lacked certain safeguards. No religious denomination vouched for it, nor any recognizable social tendency, while it conferred the strange degree, then usually "made in Germany," of Doctor of Philosophy. It made its start with a Virginian professor of Greek, late of the Confederate cavalry; a Baltimore editor; a young disciple of Huxley's; an eccentric English mathematician—with anybody who knew more about his given subject than anybody else. It manifested a sublime disregard for academic appearances and even comforts. It bought lavishly of books and scientific apparatus, but it set its handful of famous specialists to teaching in rookeries, chance-leased in the heart of the city. If the memories of these first eager days of close companionship between master and student have grown into a legend tenderly regarded of old Hopkinsians, at the time this complete ignoring of collegiate pomp and circumstance seemed almost suspicious.

From the very first, the University was forced to practise the virtue of renunciation. Omitting many subjects which are taught in the great universities of the world, it tried to give every subject in the best possible way. Probably many Americans, before the Johns Hopkins University naturalized the terms, knew that *Gründlichkeit* and the scholar's conscience were one and the same thing; and many of our scholars from an early period had exemplified in their work *wissenschaftliche Methode*. But this thoroughness and scientific method were still rather the possession of individual scholars than of institutions. For the new university was reserved the honorable part of first training systematically numbers of young scholars in the methods of pure research. For the first time in the century, it could fairly be said that America had a university which in quality, if not in scope, was the equal of any European institution of learning.

How this example became a leaven for the whole academic mass, how gradually, in spite of great and unmerited financial reverses, the university grew, here extending its older courses, there adding an undergraduate department and a medical school, is matter of recent record, and need only be recalled at this time. But a unique feature of Johns Hopkins life should not pass unmentioned: through the accident of its founder's residence, the University was set in a border city. Its unique character drew many students from the North and West; this, and its geographical situation, a far larger number from the South. The resulting association of men of diverse traditions and training was singularly advantageous. The Northerner came to see close at hand the sore problems left in the wake of the war; he came to recognize the admirable tenacity of purpose and the frequent heroism of the Southern young men, who, seeking the best education for themselves, carried back light and leading to their own people. He came, too, under the charm of the gracious social life of the South. Similarly, the Southerner gained in this contact. He soon lost certain religious and social prejudices, and came at least to admire the intellectual audacity and adaptability of the "Yankee," his efficiency and essential kind-heartedness. For twenty-five years now these young doctors have been scattering, chiefly to their own sections, but always a certain number of Northerners to the South, and vice-versa. Among these old Hopkinsians, professors mostly, and nearly all men of considerable prominence, there exists a strong fellow-feeling, and this academic comity has undoubtedly contributed, and will contribute, to the broader national comity which is to be.

The celebration last week was not only a tribute to the institution which has done so much to foster original research in America, but also a testimonial of a more personal sort to President Gilman, who turns over to younger hands the work he has shaped for a long future. It is characteristic of his manifold activities that he does not seek the repose he has so fairly earned, but is preparing to organize, in the fulness of his years, another and equally unprecedented foundation for research—the Carnegie Institution. No other man of our time has been so fortunate as to have the unhampered administration of two trusts of this character, and few educators have been privileged to accomplish a work at once so original and of so enduring value.

THE STRUGGLE FOR INDIVIDUALITY ON THE GERMAN STAGE.

BERLIN, February 9, 1902.

The German stage of the present day shows a curious mixture of high aspirations and imperfect fulfilment, of noble conceptions and brutal effects, of an ar-

dent desire for truth, freedom, nature, and of a tame subservience to conventional devices and artificial sentiment. In the early nineties, when the first powerful productions of Sudermann and Hauptmann filled the air with joyous echoes of the striving for a heightened existence both of the individual and of society, we dreamed of a new classic era of dramatic literature close at hand. We hoped that the young German writers who so boldly and with such earnest conviction had taken up the gospel of Ibsen, Björnson, and Tolstoy, would soon rise to the full height of their masters, or perhaps even surpass them. For it seemed as though there were something in these young writers, a certain sense of measure and tradition, a certain reverence for the human past, that in all their tumultuous strivings would keep them on the path of true art and preserve them from the merely volcanic, which, especially in the Scandinavian writers, not infrequently destroys the pure æsthetic enjoyment of modern poetry.

These hopes, if I may be permitted to give to my own experience a somewhat wider application, have been sadly disappointed. Instead of pressing on toward the goal of an art embodying in vigorous, free, and impressive types the ideals of modern humanity, and thus holding up before the eyes of the present the life that is to come, the German dramatists, or most of them at least, have again fallen back to that position from which the whole movement of "Youngest Germany" started some fifteen years ago—the position of an essentially negative and pessimistic analysis and arraignment of existing conditions. That in taking this stand they give expression to a large and important part of the intellectual life of modern Germany, can hardly be denied; for the natural counterpart of the reigning imperialism and officialdom has been the growth of a public opinion so peevishly sensitive to even the slightest encroachments on personal rights, so eagerly insisting on free inquiry, so boldly—and often with such bitter sarcasm—exerting its function of a searching criticism of public affairs, as is scarcely to be found in countries where individual liberty is more firmly guarded. In no other country, for instance, would the artistic views of the chief of state have aroused such violent antagonism, or would his efforts at putting these views into practice have been received with such a flood of biting satire, as was the case with the Emperor's recent utterances on art addressed to the sculptors of his monumental gifts to the city of Berlin. Nor is it likely that the appointment of a Catholic professor of history beside that of a Protestant—which recently took place at the University of Strassburg—would in any other country have led to such a storm of indignation, such protestations of principle, such abuse of Government interference with professorial standards of impartial inquiry, as shook German academic circles some weeks ago.

As a reflex, then, of public affairs, the German drama of the last few seasons, disappointing as it is when considered from the point of view of ideal art, is still an extremely instructive phenomenon. The clash between the individual and society which, in one form or another, may be said to underlie all tragic situations in real life as well as in art, has received in the German drama even of very recent years some new and interesting impersonations. What seems to me regrettable is, that in hardly any of these recent dramas is there a ray of hope, a suggestion of a possible delivery from the social conflict except by self-destruction of the individual; that, on the contrary, this self-destruction is constantly being insisted upon in these dramas as the only and as a truly heroic solution, even where there seems not the slightest necessity for it, since a little more common sense and large-mindedness and a little less wilfulness and sentimentality would have obviated all difficulties.

A striking illustration of this drift towards the needlessly tragic and its painful results is a drama which is at present holding a prominent place in the repertory of almost every German theatre; which, moreover, through the award of the Grillparzer prize and a nearly unanimous approval of the leading critical reviews, has obtained the highest literary distinction. I refer to Otto Erich Hartleben's "Rosenmontag." The hero of this drama is a Prussian officer who falls a victim to the petty prejudices and hollow ambitions of caste. He is a dreamer, an idealist, a man to whom purity of heart is the highest demand of life. He has fallen in love with a simple burgher maiden, without realizing that, as long as he remains an officer, there can be no question of marriage with this girl. Two of his comrades, cousins of his, in whom the sense of family pride and social standing seems to have absorbed every other intellectual or emotional faculty, take it upon themselves to save him from embarrassing situations by acting the part of his Fate. First they separate him from the girl by bringing it about that he is for a time detached to another garrison. In leaving, he intrusts his love to their protection. This confidence they abuse by persuading the girl that he has become engaged to another, while at the same time representing to him that his love has broken her faith. The news of her alleged treachery prostrates him physically as well as mentally, and when, after a year of illness and agony, he actually becomes engaged to a rich society girl, this is clearly a symptom of his shattered ideals. Thus he returns to his old regiment, only to find out what a shameful trick has been played upon him. Now he is beside himself with rage and indignation. He has a violent rupture with his comrades; he defies the military code of honor; he takes his old love back, and, after a few days' revelling in bliss, ends his life together with hers.

Hackneyed and crude as this plot is, I am far from denying that it is worked out with unusual cleverness and brilliancy of dramatic invention. The officers' life, with its racy, frivolous jargon, its well-mannered and well-meaning inanity, with its jolly comradeship and its brutal conception of woman, is portrayed here with astonishing vividness and truthfulness. Although during the whole play we do not get beyond the limits of the barracks or the officers' casino, the only woman character of the plot being the deserted girl, there is not a moment of dulness or monotony in it. As an historical document, as a comprehensive and cutting satire on military life in Germany at the beginning of the twentieth century this drama is undoubtedly a notable achievement, and will stand in literary history by the side of such Storm-and-Stress productions as Wagner's "Die Kindermörderin" or Lenz's "Die Soldaten." All the more disappointing is it that the author, who knew so well how to castigate social foibles and depravities, should not have been happier in depicting genuine human feeling, that he should not have been able to create a hero capable of something besides ranting and fuming against military conventionalities and then blowing his brains out. There is really not the slightest reason in the world why this man, after he has found out that his love always has been and still is faithful to him, should not with a light heart bid good-bye to all these glittering frivolities, and begin, together with the woman of his choice, a new, serious, and happy life. Is an officer's life, then, everything, even in Germany? Is the only alternative left to this man really either to stifle the best instincts of his being or to follow the contemptuous advice of a comrade of his—"Then go to America and turn waiter"? And even this latter choice, would it not have been manlier and more genuinely human than this absurd refuge in the Nothing? How differently has Ibsen, in his "Enemy of the People," tackled a similar problem! How radiant and triumphant does the personality, in the midst of defeat, here stand out at the end against the unreasoning and unfeeling herd of the "solid majority"! In Hartleben's play, in spite of all the lofty talk and noble sentiment, there is at the end nothing left but moral numbness and submission to the dictates of an artificial etiquette.

I cannot bring myself to speak at length of a recent production of Sudermann's, which was first put on the boards of the Deutsches Theater last week, under the curious misnomer of "Es lebe das Leben!" For nothing could be more devoid of the real feelings for which life stands than this painfully thought-out parody of life; and it is truly saddening that a man who began his literary career in accents that reminded one of the young Schiller, who, even in his "Johannes" and "Die drei Reiherfedern," seemed to strive after the heights of life, should now stoop to the pseudo-tragedy of social scandals not a whit more uplifting or less mawkishly sentimental than the much abused plays of Kotzebue or Paul Lindau. What leads me to mention this doleful production here is the fact that it is another flagrant instance of that lack of a bold and consistent personality, along with and in spite of a certain attitude of protest against social tyranny, which seems to me responsible for the ultimate artistic failure of Hartleben's "Rosenmontag."

In Sudermann's play also the hero, or rather the heroine, sacrifices herself without any sufficient reason, nay, even without any intelligible purpose. She sacrifices herself, she thinks, in order to save the life of her lover, with whom fifteen years ago she had transgressed her marriage vows, and who since then has lived unsuspected in ideal friendship with herself and in close comradeship with her husband, until a sudden exposure brings the two men into irreconcilable conflict. But how is it pos-

sible to think that this man, after her self-destruction, should take up life in the sense she wishes him—namely, as a champion of the Conservative cause against the destructive tendencies of Social Democracy, since, as he himself expresses it epigrammatically, he "must live on because he is dead"? She sacrifices herself also, she thinks, in order to rescue her husband from an impossible situation, apparently without realizing how little this sacrifice can do to atone for the protracted falsehood and lie of fifteen years. Finally, she sacrifices herself in order to keep the Conservative party from the scandal and confusion which would arise from an open conflict between the two men, both pillars of law and order; and again she seems to be entirely blind to the fact that nothing will more clearly reveal the "skeleton in the closet" of the Conservative party, and more directly and irretrievably hurt the cause of law and order, than her own suicide.

In short, the motives which actuate the events in this play are artificial to the last degree; and while there runs a hidden protest through it against the suppression of individuality demanded by the complicated moral code of the modern state, there appears not a single character in it who dares to be truly himself, and most of the characters (to borrow one of the author's own phrases) seem to be living in a prison which they themselves guard. A sorry turn, indeed, to be taken by the author of "Heimat."

It would be superfluous to dwell on other dramas of recent date, such as Philippi's "Das grosse Licht" and "Wohlthäter der Menschheit," which show this same curious mixture of individualistic leanings on the one hand and submission to social convention on the other. It is, however, worthy of mention, since it is characteristic of the whole state of contemporary German culture, that the only play of the last few years in which a powerful personality successfully asserts itself, is an educational play—Otto Ernst's comedy, "Flachsmann als Erzieher," a brave, timely, and amusing plea for individuality and common sense in the instruction of children. The way in which the ideas of Pestalozzi and Froebel are here given form in an inspired young teacher who fights to the end and maintains his ideals in spite of endless intrigue, slander, and malicious machinations on the part of his colleagues and superiors, is truly delightful; and the only pity is that the sphere of action in this piece is too narrow to give room for a really free and large artistic movement.

When will the German drama fulfil the prophetic message of fifteen years ago, free itself from the shackles of sentimentality and conventional formality, and rise to a really human representation of the great conflicts of modern life? Björnson's "Beyond Our Strength," which is being performed with such masterly skill in all the great German theatres, should point the way toward this goal. KUNO FRANCKE.

SUDERMANN'S NEW PLAY.

BERLIN, February 14, 1902.

Dramatic interest in Berlin centres just now in the Deutsches Theater, where Hermann Sudermann's newest play, "Es lebe das Leben," is attracting crowds of interested spectators. The piece promises to be a pronounced theatrical success. On the first and second nights, loud applause marked the close of the second, third, and fifth acts, and was in no wise lessened by the repeated appearance of the author before the curtain. In the case of all such ovations it is, of course, difficult to decide how much is to be credited to real interest in the play, and how much to the desire to see a live literary lion. The applause on these occasions marked, at all events, the points of highest interest for the spectator.

The Deutsches Theater knows how to give a play by Hauptmann or Sudermann. This circumstance insures a sympathetic and adequate representation of the new drama. Players and author work together so harmoniously in this case that the spectator forgets to think about the probability or improbability of what is going on before his eyes. For the time being, he sees and hears only facts, and about the reality of facts there can be no disputing. Nor does the interest lag at any point in the whole representation. A play which so holds your interest and attention that you forget to pick flaws in it until you leave the theatre or read it in peace at home, may be said to have attained at least one of the ends for which it was written.

Sudermann is dealing here with a gruesome theme. The presupposition of the whole is a case of marital infidelity in the higher circles of Berlin. It is hardly fair to call it a drama of adultery, for the degree of grossness of the infidelity is veiled in the discreetest silence. In any event, fifteen years of correct living have passed since then, and the secret seems for ever safe, when the action of the play begins. The persons are, with few exceptions, Berlin aristocrats of to-day. The time is the end of the nineties, when the new Civil Code was taking shape in the Reichstag. The title (whatever else it may also mean) points to a passage towards the close of the fifth act, where the guilty wife proposes *a toast to life* at the moment when her own self-inflicted end is near.

The scene of the first act is in the house of Count Kellinghausen. He is a man of infinite good-nature and kindness, but otherwise quite mediocre, whereas his wife Beate is the dominating figure of the drama. For twenty years she has played the rôle of wife and mother to his entire satisfaction. In spite of such continued ill-health that every day she lives is in a sense the gift of the physician and the apothecary, she is the admired social leader, and makes his house a centre for the fashionable and poliical world. Fifteen years before, her heart had passed out beyond the bounds of her conventional marriage and had found the object of its unwavering affections in Baron Völkerlingk, whose frivolous and heartless wife had made domestic happiness an impossibility for him from the beginning. He has meanwhile become, through force of circumstances, the warm friend of Kellinghausen, and sees in the painful restraint of the resulting Platonic relationship with Beate something of penance for his wrong. A sense of guilt oppresses him; but although she has struggled with him through to the purer relations of these later years, she rejoices in her love. Her chief aim in life is to be his counsellor and stay, to further his political career, and to awaken in him the ambition for that great future for which she thinks him fitted. His ability as an orator had won for him a commanding place in his party, but the favor of his constituency was fickle and he had lost his seat in Parliament. Although fanatical in his devotion to his party, Kellinghausen has no real aptitude or fondness for public life, and gives up his own candidacy in favor of his friend. Such is the situation at the beginning of the first act. The election returns are just coming in. As we wait for their favorable outcome, we learn from the conversation of Beate and Völkerlingk the history of their past. The premonitions that fill his soul prepare us for the impending disaster. The coming and going incident to the reception of the news from the polls introduces us to nearly all the persons who appear in the play. From the start the poet begins to interweave the love affair of Beate's daughter and Völkerlingk's son with the chief action.

The second and third acts are also in the house of Kellinghausen. An evening gathering brings together the leading lights of the Conservative party. Most of them carry in their pockets a copy of the Social-Democratic paper containing a report of a campaign speech by Völkerlingk's former secretary, Meixner, in which pretty clear allusions to a scandal in the house of the host are made. A copy of the paper, still in its wrapper, lies upon the writing-desk. Völkerlingk's wife, in possibly the poorest scene of the play, sees to it that Beate reads the critical passage. The leaders of the party find occasion to draw from Völkerlingk, who has also received the newspaper, a promise to speak in the next session of the Reichstag upon the burning question of the modern marriage. His honor has been publicly attacked, they argue, and he can silence his opponents and do his party a service in no better way than by becoming their spokesman on this important occasion. In short, everybody knows of the matter except Kellinghausen. But Völkerlingk's son has just issued a pamphlet in which he holds the unorthodox view that the nobility should not fight duels to defend their honor. On this evening the men present, and especially Kellinghausen, combat his theories. In the course of his argumentation he mentions the attack in the newspaper, and so even Kellinghausen is at last informed.

The next day ushers in the third act. Fully convinced of the innocence of his wife and his friend, Kellinghausen goes to institute legal proceedings for slander against Meixner, but the Conservative leaders urge that such public action would only stir up a scandal and injure the party. Without in reality giving up his purpose, he agrees to postpone action for a time. On his return home he asks his friend and his wife, as a matter of form, to give their word of honor that the charges are false. The man is ready, but the woman comes out with the truth, for she is convinced that Völkerlingk's lie would necessarily be followed by his death at his own hands. From that moment her course is clear to her; she must end her life that he may live and fulfil his high destiny. In the short time that yet remains to her she must accomplish three things: save appearances, insure the happiness of her daughter and

Völkerlingk's son, and keep both men in total ignorance of her intention. Left to themselves, they agree that a duel is impossible out of regard to the interests of their party and their families, and that Völkerlingk is in this case the one who must quietly leave this world.

The fourth act brings us to Völkerlingk's house. He has meanwhile delivered his speech on the marriage question and scored a great triumph. It is whispered along the line that the Emperor thinks he can use such a man in his Cabinet. Meixner appears, for reasons which do not concern us here, and surrenders the letters which are the sole proof of his charges. Everything beckons the doomed man back into life at the very time that he must end it. Then Beate comes and secures his promise that he will not carry out his purpose immediately. Her husband has determined to do one thing more to save appearances, and plans a breakfast for the orator at which the leaders of the party will also be present. After that, Völkerlingk may steal out of the world as quietly as he will.

On the morrow the breakfast really takes place. Kellinghausen intends that his wife shall leave his house that day for ever. She plans it too, but not as he means. The guests come, the quondam friends drink to each other's health. Beate also has her toast to offer. She reminds them how she has struggled with death for many years, and has yet found existence so beautiful and desirable that she can fitly propose today a toast to life. As the glasses clink in response to her little speech, she is seized by a spasm of pain and weakness and totters out of the room to die. When the two men stand later alone in the breakfast-room and read the letter which she has left for them, her purpose is clear. Her physician had given her a powerful medicine to be taken in the smallest quantities. An overdose meant death, but the uninitiated could not suspect her of suicide. To avert scandal, Völkerlingk would now have to live. Without him her life would really have been at an end, for he was all of life to her. And so by her act she drove him back from the grave into that career for which she had striven to fit him.

Such a bald account of this long and intricate drama must necessarily leave unmentioned all minor action and minor characters. It can still less do justice to the technical skill and the workmanship which seem to promise great success for the play upon the stage. Whether the reading public will welcome it is another question. The number of dramas which are effective both on the stage and in the closet is so small that the chances are decidedly against every new claimant for that high honor. It may be that Sudermann will have to be content this time with the more transient approval of the theatre-goer. For, to pass over all other considerations, the drama is, when you come to read it and think about it, full of improbabilities. The whole basis is improbable. It is improbable that a woman so pure of heart as Beate, so high-minded, so discreet, so tactful, would enter into such a relationship. It is improbable that two people who have lived a lie for fifteen years would hesitate to tell one, especially if they thought they could not be caught. It is improbable that a Prussian nobleman of to-day would permit party considerations to hold him back from a duel when he thought the honor of his family at stake. It is improbable that the breakfast scene could take place. In fact, the whole is a tissue of improbabilities, which the skill of poet and actor makes for a brief season seem most real.

CHARLES HARRIS.

Correspondence.

DEAN COLET AND MR. CARNEGIE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent article on "Perpetual Educational Trusts," I read with interest the praise of the discretion, the wisdom, and the humor of Mr. Carnegie in empowering the trustees of his magnificent institution "to modify the conditions and regulations under which the funds may be dispensed." "It is strange," your critic continues, "that so simple and sensible an attitude should be *unique* among great benefactors. . . . In this matter, Mr. C. has set most gracefully an example which is worthy of general imitation." An example decidedly worthy of imitation, but *not set for the first time* by Mr. Carnegie.

In the history of English education, this example was set by no less a man than Dean Colet in 1509, in the Statutes given to his then newly founded School of St. Paul's, originally planned for 153 boys. The tremendous growth and future importance of this school could never have been foreseen by its founder, but was made possible by the addition to the Statutes of a final paragraph, which has the title, "Liberte to Declare the Statutes," and which reads in part as follows:

"And notwithstanding These statutis and ordinancis before writen in whiche I haue declarid my mynde and will yet (because in tyme to cum many thyngis *may and shall* surwyne [supervene] and grow by many occasions and causis which at the makyng of this boke was not possible to come to mynde: In considering the assurid truyth and sircumspect wisdome and faithfull goodnesse of the most honest and substanciall feloshipp of the mercery of london to whome I haue committid all the cure of the scole. . . . I leve it hooly to theyr dyscrecion and charite. . . . They to adde and diminish vnto this boke [viz., of Statutes] and to supply in it every defaute, &c."

I have often been astonished that these golden words seem to be utterly unknown. I have never seen them even alluded to in our popular histories of education, which are so busy about defining the pedagogical "methods" of the different ages from the Assyrians down to Horace Mann. I have been astonished, further, that Colet's noble example has scarcely (if at all?) been imitated, and that our modern educational statute-makers have gone on making decrees to last "for ever and ever." In this respect, Mr. Carnegie's tact and example are, indeed, not only praiseworthy, but epoch-making.

As a practical man I am particularly pleased that Mr. Carnegie did not restrict the endowment fund to his (first?) magnificent gift of ten millions.

Yours respectfully, EWALD FLÜGEL.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., February 12, 1902.

AN EDUCATIONAL CABINET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 13th inst., while discussing the feature of the revised New York charter which *allows* the head of any administrative department to occupy a seat in the Board of Aldermen and to participate in its discussions, you are pleased to say that, " so far as we can recall, this is the first time that the principle of giving department heads the right to speak in a legislative body has been applied in this country," etc.

Allow me to say that the St. Louis Board of Education, ever since, five years ago, it ceased to be a political body, has *required*, under its adopted rules, the chiefs of its departments, as created under its charter, to wit, the Superintendent of Instruction, the Building Commissioner, the Supply Commissioner, the Auditor, and the Secretary and Treasurer, to be present at all sessions of the Board, to answer all inquiries made of them by members, to explain and state their views, pro and con, upon any proposition that may be under discussion, and to be ready, with their professional knowledge, to assist in the educational and administrative work that may be on hand. They have their permanent desks within the area occupied by the Board, and there is not a session where one or more of them are not called upon to give their expert opinion upon whatever matter of importance, touching their respective department, is under consideration.

The system works admirably, facilitates legislation, and brings about a harmonious method of operation between the legislative and executive forces of the Board such as no other system could.

Respectfully, W. T.

ST. LOUIS, February 17, 1902.

EARL DURHAM'S CANADIAN REPORT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reference, on page 132, to Durham's interesting Report on Canadian matters in 1839, suggests the query, Can a local legend be confirmed, viz., that the writing of the Report was in the main by Christopher Dunkin, a teacher of Greek at Harvard in 1837? It is thought that the original draft by Dunkin was probably amended and polished by Charles Buller and the other official secretary that the Earl brought out with him, but that it is substantially Dunkin's work.

Is this historical? And what, if any, is the evidence sustaining it?

J. DAVIS BARNETT.

STRATFORD, ONT., CANADA, February 17, 1902.

Notes.

Herbert S. Stone & Co. are to bring out a Dictionary of Art, beginning with the Renaissance, and including the great painters and sculptors down to the present time. It will be illustrated.

The Autobiography of the late Lieut.-Gen. Sir Harry Smith will be published shortly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

From John Lane's spring announcements we select 'Dante and the Divine Comedy;

Studies and Notes,' by W. J. Payling Wright; 'Persian Children of the Royal Family,' the narrative of an English tutor, Wilfrid Sparroy; 'With Napoleon at St. Helena,' from the Memoirs of Dr. John Stokoe, Naval Surgeon; 'Terrors of the Law,' portraits of three lawyers, by Francis Watt; 'New Poems,' by Theodore Watts-Dunton; 'India's Love Lyrics,' collected by Laurence Hope; a series of illustrated books on gardening—'In a Tuscan Garden,' 'In a Vicarage Garden and Elsewhere,' by the Rev. Canon Ellacombe, 'A Garden in the Suburbs,' by Mrs. Leslie Williams, 'Stray Leaves from a Border Garden,' by Mary Pamela Milne-Holme, and a new edition of Forbes Watson's 'Flowers and Gardens'; 'Modern British Domestic Architecture and Decoration' and 'Modern Pen-Drawing—European and American,' both edited by Charles Holme; finally, 'Modern Design in Jewelry and Fans.'

Additional announcements from Charles Scribner's Sons are a 'History of English Literature,' by William Vaughn Moody and Robert Morss Lovett of the University of Chicago; Paulsen's 'Immanuel Kant,' translated by Professors Creighton and Lefevre of the same university; 'American Citizenship,' by Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court, first of a series of annual publications of the Dodge lectureship at Yale on the Responsibilities of Citizenship; and 'Letters from Egypt and Palestine,' by the late Maltbie D. Babcock, D.D.

McClure, Phillips & Co. announce for publication in the spring 'Political Portraits,' by William Allen White; Unpublished Letters of Daniel Webster; 'Wireless Telegraphy,' by Guglielmo Marconi; 'The Making of a Statesman,' a novelette and other Georgia stories, by Joel Chandler Harris; 'The Madness of Philip, and Other Stories of Childhood,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam; 'A Musical Guide,' by Rupert Hughes; and a facsimile of Charles Lamb's 'King and Queen of Hearts,' published in 1806.

President Sharpless's meritorious work, 'A Quaker Experiment in Government,' has met with sufficient approval to warrant a popular edition in a single volume. This is now brought out very attractively by Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia; but we could wish the index had been enlarged and modernized—and made veracious, for several references (beginning with the very first!) are to pages no longer to be found in volume ii., and betray an extensive abridgment not acknowledged on the title-page.

A third edition of Dr. John C. Thresh's manual of 'Water and Water Supplies' has recently been issued (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.). The book has been brought up to date, and now includes additional chapters on the protection of water supplies. Its main object is to place within the reach of all persons interested in public health the information requisite for forming an opinion as to whether any proposed supply is sufficiently wholesome and abundant, and whether the cost can be considered reasonable. It does not in the least pretend to be a treatise on engineering. Dr. Thresh's manner is lucid, and imparts an interest to such questions as the composition and properties of water, that one would scarcely suppose could be put into them. Although he always has the English public in mind, the larger part of his book is applicable to our own affairs without modification.

Under the somewhat invidious title 'The American Immortals,' G. P. Putnam's Sons publish a large and very ponderous quarto, resplendent in red and gilt binding, containing accounts of the twenty-nine persons whose names are now emblazoned in the "Hall of Fame." These accounts have been prepared by George Cary Eggleston, with the purpose of presenting critical estimates, "with so much of biography in each case as is necessary to a due comprehension of the subjects." Since the respective claims to immortality must be presented on an average within the compass of 14 pages of large print, and Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, and Adams take 95 pages, Webster and Clay occupying 75 more, the remaining heroes have but a slender chance for an "intelligent account of their character, achievements, and history." To this some of them might be reconciled, could they read the damning estimate of the morals of certain of the glorified—notably Webster—and think of their own shortcomings. Truly, not merely the feet but much of the frame of these idols was clay. But we all know that Zeus and Apollo had human frailties, and it would not do to set the standard of American immortality too high. The portraits are hardly worthy of so gorgeous a volume, many of them being hard and coarse; but, on the whole, the book may be commended as carrying out in an appropriate manner the purposes for which the "Hall of Fame" was founded.

A special feature of Prof. Edward Capps's 'Manual of Greek Literature from Homer to Theocritus' (Charles Scribner's Sons) is the endeavor to illustrate each author, as far as possible, by copious selections from the best English translations. Naturally this mode of illustration is carried further for the poets than for prose writers. The selections are well chosen, and will prove most useful to students who, through force of circumstances, have been obliged to confine themselves to a hasty or superficial acquaintance with the Greek language. As compared with Jevons's excellent manual, with its freshness, its detail, and its discussion of technical points, Professor Capps's work may be called popular; but there is nothing sketchy or second-hand in its mode of treatment. The style is easy and interesting, the proportion and perspective well preserved, the scholarship thorough and accurate. The chapters on Tragedy and Comedy are particularly strong, as might be expected from a scholar who has made special researches in the history of the Drama and the question of the Stage. Very useful, also, and informing is the treatise on the lost literature of the fourth century B. C., as well as the bibliographical appendix. The book will commend itself to a wide class of readers as well as to the learner in Greek literature; it should also be kept in mind by instructors in general literature.

To David Nutt's excellent little series, "The Ancient East," Professor Zimmern of Leipzig has added a brochure, 'The Babylonian and the Hebrew Genesis.' It is clear, readable, and careful in an eminent degree. The treatment of the Tehom myth, often so obscure, is especially good. Professor Zimmern holds that these Babylonian stories entered Palestine in the middle of the second millennium B. C., and that the Israelites found them there. That they could have been transferred as late as the exile, he cannot believe.

To the International Theological Library Principal Rainy of Edinburgh has contributed a very racy volume on 'The Ancient Catholic Church' (Charles Scribner's Sons). It covers the period from 98-451 A. D., is most excellently and clearly arranged, with a well-marked order, and is written in a downright style, simple and unpretentious. Simplicity, indeed, and perspicuity are the keynotes, and too great burden of detail is avoided. The bibliography is tolerably full, but wider and more exact references to sources and discussions, especially modern, might have been looked for. Dr. Rainy apparently did not write, at least in the first instance, for the student who desires to work out his own historical salvation, but for those who can be fed with a spoon. As a criticism of detail, the description of thought and feeling in the Roman world into which Christianity came is hardly adequate. Of the manifold Oriental influences and the changes which they had wrought, little account is taken. Such a phenomenon, for example, as Apuleius, is passed with a word, and Apollonius of Tyana, an even more significant figure, has scant attention. Yet, to the onlooker of the time, Christianity could have seemed only one wave in the Oriental flood which was rising so fast. Some similar exceptions might be taken by the student of history and philosophy in the large; but to lay stress on them would be unfair towards a very fresh and able book.

Dr. Rodkinson has added to his translation of the Babylonian Talmud the first half, chapters one to five, of the tractate 'Baba Bathra.' Strictly, the tractate deals with the law of occupancy, and is mainly derived from the Roman law of *usucapio*, but its chief interest will probably be found in its incidental and Haggadic elements. Thus, the first chapter contains the celebrated passage giving the Talmudic view of the canon, order and authorship of the Old Testament, and the fifth has a string of Haggadas like nothing so much as the "biggest lie" stories known to folk-lorists. Throughout the whole volume we are kept facing the question of jest or earnest. Whether these venerable doctors always had straight faces, or have been playing a series of gigantic jokes on generations of dutiful students and interpreters, each reader must settle for himself. Much will depend on his own sense of humor.

The Italians have a graceful custom of printing as a wedding offering an essay, or inedited rarity, in literature or history, which might elsewhere appear in the less attractive form of thesis or appendix. A fine specimen of this is shown in 'Cenni Storici sulle Imprese scientifiche, marittime e coloniali di Ferdinando I.,' Grand Duke of Tuscany, 1587-1609 (Florence: Press of G. Spinelli). The author, Gustavo Uzielli, after an address to the bride, in which he traces the genealogy of the Uberti, gives an account of the Grand Duke Ferdinand, who continued in an unpropitious time the Tuscan reputation for culture. Besides this essay, there are a list of works printed at the Medicean Press; reprints of old pictures of a naval battle in 1602, and of the capture of Bona in 1607, with contemporary accounts of the latter exploit and of the capture of a naval convoy in 1608; and, finally, nine letters—among them one in which the Grand Duke asks the General of the Jes-

uits for credentials for four of his subjects, who are going to the East Indies to hunt for precious stones to adorn the Medicean Chapel at S. Lorenzo. The material is generally entertaining, and the paper and presswork are worthy of a bridal gift.

The yearly volume of Transactions and Proceedings of the American Philological Association, for 1901, has made its appearance. It contains the proceedings of the regular annual meeting, held at Cambridge in July, the special meeting held in Philadelphia the preceding December, and the meeting of the Pacific Coast branch, in session at San Francisco at the same time. Twelve papers are presented in full, but one of which is of general importance—the "Causes of Uniformity in Phonetic Change," by President Benjamin Ide Wheeler. It is impossible to summarize here the line of argument by which he sets aside the theory of Paul, explaining phonetic change as due to a gradual, insensible shifting of the memory image, making itself felt in equal measure and at an even level throughout the entire like-conditioned material of the speech of a community, and substitutes for it his own belief that sound-change "eats its way into language and passes from word to word." In addition to the twelve papers given in full, abstracts of about fourscore more are presented, many of which have already found publication through other channels. The Association is financially on a good footing, and has shown a commendable spirit in voting a subvention of £40 per year for three years to the Plato-Lexicon in preparation under the editorial supervision of the veteran Professor Campbell. It has also shown a wise spirit in dropping from further consideration the request of the Director of the United States Geological Survey for aid in the formation of certain new scientific terms. A committee was appointed at the special December session to take the request under consideration, but the committee conservatively expressed its lack of conviction that the contemplated overthrow of the old nomenclature is either practicable or desirable, presented a few newly created terms merely as specimens (horrible examples?), declared that the Geologists must be responsible for their own linguistic ventures, and asked to be discharged—a request which was unanimously granted.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number one, is by Dr. A. Stübel, on the principal centres of volcanic action in South America, and the distinguishing characteristics of the active volcanoes, 117 of which are shown on the accompanying map. Prof. P. Langhans tells of the richness in pure copper and iron of the region on the western shore of Lake Tanganyika, and E. Berdau describes the giant trees of California, whose imminent destruction by forty-two lumber companies he deplores. Their age he estimates at from 5,000 to 9,000 years, and asserts that "they could, judging from their condition, grow indefinitely without ever succumbing to old age."

Dr. Stein, the well-known archæologist, late of Punjab and now of Calcutta University, has recently published a preliminary report of his last excavations in Chinese Turkestan. Sanskrit scholars will welcome the unexpected proofs of early Hindu occupation of this remote region, north of Kashmere, and classical scholars may be surprised to find in the very beautiful plates which accompany the report ocular evidence of the fact that Greek art was known and imitated as far east as Khotan in the first centuries of our era.

Among the liberal innovations of the present French Ministry one deserves to be widely known to scholars. The Minister of Public Instruction last November created a special section in the libraries of Sainte-Geneviève in Paris, and the university libraries of Besançon, Dijon, Lille, Montpellier, Nancy, Poitiers, Rennes, and Toulouse, for long-term loans of books needful for the prosecution of studies extending over a considerable period of time. The publications in question are such as have been made by or under the auspices of the above-named department. Under proper guarantees as to intended use, responsibility, liability for loss and for cost of transportation, such publications may be kept not longer than five years.

—Macmillan's new series of Guides seems fairly well adapted for the flying tourist who must read as he flies, and be told what to look for on his flights and what to think when he looks. In three little volumes of about 250 pages each the western Mediterranean, the eastern Mediterranean, and Palestine and Egypt are covered, and covered with adequacy. Of course, there can be in them nothing of that detail and scientific precision which make a Baedeker a book of reference as well as a guide-book, but they will undoubtedly have a sphere of their own beside their larger and more ambitious brethren. Yet it is a pity that advertisements have been admitted, and also that the contributions of specialists are anonymous. The veil, however, is transparent, and betraying idiosyncrasies sometimes appear. The general editors should see to it that these do not become too rampant. The learned writer on Damascus, for example, might with advantage drop attempts at derivations for that name and for ash-Sham, and he of Constantinople need not give the technicalities of Muslim prayers in Persian. Probably, too, only one Orientalist ever had the unhappy idea of spelling Koran with a "Kh." Over the anonymity of Morocco the veil is peculiarly thin; the writer in this last case, however, whatever his technical scholarship, knows the ground well. But, above all, a guide-book should not sanction such "private interpretations" as that of John xx, 3-10, given on pages 43 ff. of 'Palestine and Egypt,' etc. The editors might well abate the didactic loquacity of this writer. It takes up much space, is not to edification, and will move many to unseemly mirth. It is also somewhat strange that a professedly small and cheap series should make a special feature of a careful and evidently excellent account of the different harbors of the Mediterranean. Yachtsmen will surely not be so limited in point of purse, time, or weight. There are numerous maps and plans which are mostly clear, full, and good. The series can in general be commended; some parts of it are excellent.

—Two years ago, under instruction from the Russian Ministry of Ways and Communication, A. I. Dmítrieff-Mámonoff and A. F. Zdziárski prepared a 'Guide to the Great Siberian Railway' upon a monumental plan. It is a large octavo of 520 pages, illustrated by two phototypes, 360 photogravures, four maps, and three plans of towns. A French translation was made for use in the Paris Exposition of 1900, and now we have an English translation, by Miss L. Kúkol-Yasnopólsky (revised by John Marshall), which is on sale by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The work is crowded with information of every sort, and is an invaluable handbook for the increasing number of travellers who will choose the Siberian route to the Orient. It will serve also for the general reader to give a new idea of the remarkable resources opened up by this railroad for Russian settlement and business enterprise. Tributary to the railroad, and connected by the numerous lines of water communication which it crosses, there is an area of rich, arable land equal in size to the States of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, and Nebraska, and very similar in material resources. The vast plains of the Obi Valley correspond closely to the prairie region of the upper Mississippi, with the climate of northern Minnesota and Manitoba. The geological explorations in connection with the construction of the railway have brought to light extensive deposits of coal and iron in widely distributed areas, so that home manufactures are likely, in the immediate future, to supply the wants of the rapidly increasing population, which already numbers more than 7,000,000. Now that the last rails have been laid upon the Chinese Eastern road, it is possible to go without changing cars from Moscow to Vladivostok or Port Arthur in less than twenty days, which eventually will be reduced to ten or twelve days. From the tourist's point of view, the trip of nearly 6,000 miles will ever continue to be one of the most varied and interesting anywhere to be found in the world, while the cost of a first-class ticket, including sleeping accommodations, will be only $60, and second-class, with similar accommodations, only $40. In general, the English translation is very good, and the illustrations, mostly from photographs, are exceedingly instructive. The reader will be confused by the failure of the translator to indicate the standard of measurement used in estimating areas. Evidently the square mile used is the German geographical square mile, which is sixteen times the English square mile. But of this the reader is not duly warned.

—The little volume on 'Edwin Booth,' by Charles Townsend Copeland (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), in the series of the "Boston Biographies," is a model of its kind, being at once compact and comprehensive. Mr. Copeland, of course, has nothing new to tell concerning the salient facts in the private life or professional career of Edwin Booth, and purposely omits the minor details with which some of the larger biographies are clogged; but he has furnished a most intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the actor and the man, in which cordial recognition of his genius and his virtues is mingled with judicious criticism. As a contribution to theatrical literature it is of infinitely greater value than many more pretentious works of a similar character, and it may be commended especially to younger students of the stage, as a notably just and vivid summary of Booth's accomplishments and the part which he played in the theatrical history of his time. Not everybody, presumably, will

agree with all of Mr. Copeland's conclusions with regard to the merits of individual performances, but few will deny the critical sagacity which he displays, his knowledge of the subject, his sense of proportion, or his admirable consistency. A particularly interesting feature of the book is some hitherto unpublished correspondence of the actor, which brings into strong relief some of his most charming natural traits, his courage in affliction, the vein of playful humor that lightened his habitual melancholy, his capacity for deep affection, his true patriotism, his patience, his modesty, and his entire freedom from professional jealousy—qualities which account fully for the tender and reverent esteem in which he was held by his friends and associates. In a word, this is an essay well worth the reading, for its style, which is exceedingly good, its justice, its continence, and its mastery of its subject.

—The small octavo entitled 'Modern Greece,' by Sir Richard C. Jebb (Macmillan), a reissue after some years, condenses in four essays a general view of the Greek Kingdom and the Greek question, historically, politically, and socially. The first paper is a masterly outline of the story of the Greek people from Alexander to our own time, presenting the transitions from Roman to Byzantine and Turkish rule with accuracy, vivacity, and eloquence. In spite of its brevity, it is full of color and picturesque detail. The second paper supplements this sketch with a picture of the general aspect and social conditions of the country as observed in a brief tour in 1878, containing many striking observations which the traveller will find true to his own recollections. The chapter on the progress of Greece, though written twenty years ago, contains very few pages that are now superseded. The recent war has of course, wrought some changes, particularly in Thessaly. The manufactories of which Professor Jebb speaks have been closed, in many places, on account of the high price of coal; and an active emigration has set in to the United States, which no one dreamed of in 1890. Agricultural conditions and appliances, however, have improved since the war, and agriculture must remain, as Professor Jebb concludes, the mainstay of the country. Another kind of harvest—that of Switzerland and the State of Maine—may be reaped every year, we believe, when the roads are improved and extended, if judicious Greek investors will plant and multiply convenient inns at suitable coigns of vantage. This would be no desecration of a region teeming with natural beauties and historic memories. The author's general view of the people and their institutions is penetrating, just, and hopeful, without being too optimistic. The chapter on Lord Byron at Mesolonghi completes this *aperçu* by giving a section out of the most critical period of the War of Independence. Byron had no prejudices against the Turks and no illusions with regard to the Greek people and character; yet he measured with accuracy and sobriety their political possibilities and their weight in the diplomacy of the Levant.

—Parts x., xi. of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) conclude the first volume with the letter D, and contain the preface, which succinctly sets forth the aim of the work, its inclusions and exclusions, its rules of entry. The fourth of these rules has especial reference to the current instalments, and reads thus: "In the case of surnames preceded by the particles *da, de, di* (simple or conjoined), *du, von, van*, etc., if Italian, these prefixes are generally prefixed as they occur; if foreign, they are postfixed—still generally." One cannot quarrel with a method adopted by a foreigner to meet the needs of his countrymen, using his book of reference, but it seems strange to find here De Magny, De Maulde la Clavière, but not De Musset (and, of course, a host besides of French writers). English names are sometimes mishandled, as we have heretofore had occasion to point out, and in Part eleven "Dudley-Field" anticipates his natural appearance among the F's (with the prompt Italian translation in 1874 of his bulky 'Outlines of an International Code'). Before leaving the subject of entries, we remark that, by the omission of the son's name, the works of the elder and the younger Dumas are run together under a single rubric. The point of cleavage is discernible only from the alphabetization. Dumas *père* fills three pages, or six columns, and there is no cessation of Italian editions of his works, from 1851 to 1899. Dickens, on the other hand, with his minor works thrown in, claims but a single column, though going back to 1852. 'The Cricket on the Hearth' ('Il grillo del focolare') has been quite the most popular, numbering five editions, the latest in 1883. 'David Copperfield' has had two (1859, 1869); 'Oliver Twist' (1857), 'Our Mutual Friend' (1869), 'Hard Times' ('Tempi difficili,' 1877), 'Little Dorrit' (1878), 'Bleak House' ('La Casa triste,' 1885), one each. Nor has Dickens's 'Pictures from Italy' gone beyond a first translation. On the whole, while Dumas's 'Three Musketeers' was reissued in 1899, it would appear that the English novelist has passed his climax in Italy. Among Italian authors here exhibited, De Gubernatis is as fecund as any, filling a page. Much space is demanded for Deliberazioni, Disposizioni, Documenti, Dialoghi; Descrizione, Diario, Dizionario. One cannot praise too highly the industry, skill in condensation, and self-effacing modesty of the anonymous editors of this Catalogue.

GREEN'S LIFE OF CHATHAM.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, and the Growth and Division of the British Empire, 1708-1778. By Walford Davis Green, M.P. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901. Pp. xiii, 391.

Mr. Green in his excellent book tells us much, but not at all too much, of William Pitt's personal characteristics; for the peculiarities of Pitt's genius, and, above all, the extraordinary combination of matchless eloquence with equally unrivalled administrative ability, are the causes of his eminence among the long roll of English statesmen. But Mr. Green does not tell us much about the special conditions which at once enabled Pitt to display the marvellous powers conferred upon him by nature, and also, in the later part of his life, made it impossible for him to spend his talents in the service of his country. To imagine, indeed, with some pedants who call themselves philosophers, that genius is created by the requirements of a particular time, is to fall a victim to one of the idols of the cave. But, on the other hand, to fancy with the crowd that the effect of originality is independent of the conditions necessary for its operation, is to be misled by one of the commonest idols of the market-place; and it is the more necessary to note the intimate connection between Pitt's career and the special features of public life in England during the eighteenth century, because on this subject readers may be misled by a singularity of English constitutionalism. The forms of the English Constitution are in 1902 much the same as they were towards the end of the reign of George II. At the beginning of the twentieth century, as at the middle of the eighteenth century, we find in England a King, a Parliament which meets year by year, a Cabinet, a Government party, an Opposition, Tories and Whigs, and all the well-known paraphernalia of constitutional monarchy; and we are tempted to draw the inference that the Constitution of to-day is substantially the Constitution which existed during the lifetime of William Pitt. Every student, of course, knows that this idea is a delusion, and that the real continuity of English public life masks great changes in English institutions. Few, however, realize that innovations which have been gradual have amounted in the aggregate to a revolution; and that Pitt's career, in its triumph and in its failure, was determined by political circumstances which are now things of a past age.

The Parliament of the eighteenth century was an aristocratic Parliament. This one fact alone was in itself of immense advantage to Pitt. Under an aristocratic régime his position and his genius alike favored his rise to power. He was known, indeed, as the Great Commoner; but his connection with families such as the Stanhopes, the Grenvilles, and the Lyttletons sufficiently shows how closely linked he was with the nobility. The "Cobham cousinhood" might be described as an aristocratic clique. Pitt in a sense represented, but he did not in spirit belong to, the middle classes. When a commoner, no less than when an earl, he belonged to the nobility. He was able to avail himself of an advantage which is now not possessed by any Englishman. Without any special effort he could and did enter Parliament in early youth. He took his seat (one can hardly say he was "elected") for Old Sarum at the age of twenty-seven, or, to use the language of Mr. Green, there "occurred that paradoxical conjunction of the most famous representative of the people with the most notorious of rotten boroughs." There was, in truth, no paradox at all. Pitt entered Parliament as the representative, not of the people, who had not a word to say in the matter, but of the owner of the borough, in this case his brother. He became a leader of the people. But so also did many a man who sat for a rotten borough; indeed, in Pitt's case it was the possibility of entering Parliament without any real election which enabled him to become a popular leader. He began public life young—in itself an immense gain; and he began it unhampered by pledges to electors or by subscription to any party programme. If the anomalies, not to say the abuses, of the British Constitution opened for Pitt the doors of the House

of Commons, his special gifts exactly qualified him for eminence in the Parliament of his day. His eloquence, his appearance, his oratorical action, his crushing sarcasm—all the traits handed down mainly by tradition—are the characteristics of a man framed by nature to impress and lead an assembly where his audience delighted in rhetorical conflicts, where persons and personal influence told for much, and where, to speak plainly, rhetoric and personalities which were not spoilt by being reported in every morning newspaper, told for more than their real worth. A commanding presence, a grandiose imagination, combined with fiery passion and what has often been lacking to consummate orators—imperious strength of will—naturally marked out Pitt as the leader or the despot (he does not appear to have been ever the favorite) of a body such as was the House of Commons of 1757.

The parliaments, again, of the eighteenth century were far more political than legislative assemblies; they were concerned far less than the parliaments of to-day with law-making; they were much more vehemently concerned with policy. The fame of a Minister depended not upon carrying through acts of Parliament (with which, indeed, he might have very little to do), for few acts of a general character were passed, and the Government of the day was scarcely held responsible for such few as were carried. In truth, the course of events and an immense change in the current of opinion have during the nineteenth century carried the English Parliament from one extreme to another. In Chatham's time, and for more than fifty years later, English parliaments cared too little for legislation (whence arose the mass of abuses which had accumulated for generations, and in 1832 required at all costs to be removed), and cared, it may be, too much for policy. In 1902 the Parliament of the United Kingdom concerns itself, in appearance at least, very much with legislation, and, it may be argued, pays too little heed to policy. Whether this be so or not, it is certain that the preoccupation of Parliament and of England with policy, and especially with foreign policy, was most favorable to the authority of Pitt. His oratory was exactly suited for vehement party conflicts, and even more for keeping alive the high spirit of the country during a period of warfare. His resolution and his insight as an administrator then made him the creator of victory. His foes asserted—it may well have been a slander—that he purposely prolonged the conflict with France in order to keep up his own reputation. What is certainly true is, that times of warfare provided the best opportunity for the display of his genius. That he was the greatest of war ministers is certain; that he could have become, like his son, a great peace minister, is open to doubt.

The British Parliament was, further, in the age of Pitt, an emphatically English Parliament, and this in a sense in which the modern Parliament of the United Kingdom never can be a purely English assembly. For the British Parliament, though, since the union with Scotland, it had contained forty Scotch representatives, whose presence at Westminster added to the influence of the Crown, was for all essential purposes an English assembly, representing English feeling alone. The Reform Acts of the nineteenth century (accompanied, as they have been, by the rise of Nationalism) have done much more than lessen, it may be unduly, the representation of England at Westminster. They have created a complicated state of general opinion. A modern Minister must consider not only the opinion of England, but also the opinions of Scotland, of Ireland, and of Wales. England is, it is true, the "predominant partner," but a partnership is a different thing from a business belonging to one owner alone. The agent of a firm may find his action enfeebled because he must consult the wishes of more than one master. From this source of weakness Pitt was free; his wide views of public good made him throughout life resist the popular prejudice which desired to exclude Scotchmen from office and power, and he, more than any other statesman, welded England and Scotland into one nation. But the opinion of Great Britain, in so far as it reached Parliament, was, in England and Scotland alike, in reality English opinion; or, to put the thing in different words, British opinion was one thing throughout the whole of Great Britain. Pitt, therefore, was, especially in matters of foreign policy, the representative of an undivided and unhesitating national sentiment.

Mr. Green points out, and with truth, that Pitt's oratory displayed just the kind of eloquence which in earlier ages might have swayed the citizens of Athens or of Rome. He does not insist upon an equally important point, that the body of men who took an effective share in English public life, and who, for practical purposes, constituted the nation, and to whom Pitt appealed, bore a considerable resemblance to the citizens of a classical state. They were, compared to the whole of the population, few in number. They belonged to a limited class. They were guided by a few leaders who held in their own hands a large amount of political power; and this "legal country," to use an expression borrowed from France, was far more keenly interested in politics, and especially in party conflicts, than are to-day the huge mass of modern English electors. To this it may be added that the House of Commons, which represented this English nation constituting but a portion of the people, was, in spite of the corruption and intrigue that degraded Parliamentary life, more easily affected by eloquence than are the much more respectable parliaments of the twentieth century. Partisanship was violent, but party lines were not very sharply drawn. It is almost impossible to read the account of the effect produced by Pitt's oratory and sarcasm without coming to the conclusion that votes were at times more easily turned by the force of rhetoric in Pitt's day, and even at a later date, than in our own time. This idea is confirmed by observation of the results produced alike by the diatribes of Junius and by the advocacy of Erskine. A rhetorical generation was singularly amenable to the charm of eloquence.

But, if the conditions of the time afforded a field for the exercise of Pitt's genius, they also went a great way towards rendering it useless to his country. Many, no doubt, of the calamities which in the later part of his career Pitt was doomed to witness, but was unable to avert, may be attributed to circumstances which he himself, had he remained in power, could not in the long run have controlled. The miserable breakdown of his health, in 1766, was itself one of those terrible accidents which frustrate human foresight. It is impossible to insist too much or too often upon the ills which flowed from the dull obstinacy of George III. and the culpable pliancy of Lord North. Still, when everything is allowed for, the question remains, Why was it that, at a supreme crisis of national peril, the statesman who was still worshipped as the national hero, who had proved himself the most capable war minister England had ever seen, and who, whatever his faults, was felt by the people to be the most ardent of patriots, was not recalled to power? The answer is not hard to find. The unreformed Parliament of Great Britain had some striking merits. It more nearly represented the wishes of the nation than any one would have expected who, without a general knowledge of history, had simply examined the mode in which members of Parliament were elected; but the unreformed Parliament exhibited one fatal defect. No minister could hold or attain power unless he was supported by the influence (to use the expression of the time) either of the Crown or of a compact party who, from the possession of nomination boroughs, could appoint a large number of Members of Parliament. At the time of Pitt's triumphs, the alliance with the Duke of Newcastle, and also, in the last years of George the Second, the good will of the Court, gave him that permanent support in the House of Commons without which it was impossible to govern. In the later years of his life he was not supported by the united body of Whig nobles, and he was hated by the King, who considered him a "trumpet of sedition." George III., too, had become the greatest borough-monger in his kingdom; and, being endowed with the cunning or astuteness sometimes connected with insanity, showed exactly the kind of gifts which have occasionally made men of no breadth of view or real capacity the "bosses" of some American cities.

The system of government, then, which revealed Chatham's genius to the world, was also the system which led to the failure and the tragedy of Chatham's last years.

PATON'S SYRIA AND PALESTINE.

The Early History of Syria and Palestine. By Lewis Bayles Paton, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. xxxvi, 302.

This is a remarkably sane and discriminating treatment of a subject which, unfortunately, "gets on the imagination" of most of those who try to deal with it. The available material for the early history of Palestine is rather meagre, derived chiefly from Egyptian, Babylonian, and Assyrian inscriptions and from the Bible. How to use the latter, especially for the earlier periods, is in any case a difficult question, and the difficulty is greatly enhanced by theological prejudices. For Syria we have the same material as for Palestine, less the Bible; but on the other hand we have no theological prejudices to deal with. Professor Paton seems to have used to the full all available material, and it is surprising how much information he is able to piece together about times and countries whose remains are practically unexplored.

The earliest inhabitants, whose remains consist of megalithic monuments of the

Stone Age, he supposes to have belonged to the "so-called Kelto-Libyan race, which once occupied the entire coast of the Mediterranean," and to have been "ethnologically allied to the ancient Libyans and to the modern Kabyles of the mountains of Algeria." The first Babylonian inscriptions which mention expeditions as far westward as the Mediterranean Sea, fall about 3200 B. C., according to Professor Paton's conservative dating. From that on for about 1,200 years, we have a series of inscriptions showing that Syria and Palestine belonged to the ancient world of the Babylonians, politically—that is, in so far that various Babylonian kings claimed supremacy, levied tribute, and brought cedar from the Lebanon and Amanus mountains. Professor Paton believes that ethnologically, also, Syria and Palestine constituted an integral part of the ancient Babylonian world from the beginning of this period—that is, that they were occupied by Semitic peoples of the same stock as the Babylonians; but of this he adduces no proof other than the analogy of later times. More definite information as to the ethnological and linguistic affinities, at least of the Palestinian population, we begin to obtain in the latter half of the third millennium. It seems to be established that at that period the same or kindred peoples, moving northward from Arabia, entered Babylonia on the east and Palestine on the west. After this, successive waves of northward migration of Semitic peoples from Arabia can be traced, from the fourteenth pre-Christian century to the commencement of our era speaking Aramaic; after that, Arabic. Somewhat fanciful is Professor Paton's suggestion that Arabia bubbles over periodically at intervals about 1,000 years apart.

His treatment of the Hebrew race traditions is fresh and suggestive. Under his handling, the story of the twelve tribes of Israel, descended from two different wives and two concubines, handmaids to those wives, acquires real historical significance. Asher is mentioned in Egyptian inscriptions, before the time of the Hebrews, as a tribe or people somewhere in the northern part of Palestine, and hence, apparently, Canaanitic. After the Hebrew occupation, this tribe was admitted into the Hebrew twelve, but its origin is commemorated in the statement that it is a daughter of a concubine, a handmaid of Leah. The somewhat startling discovery some years since that the Egyptians knew certain Palestinian localities by the names Jacob-el and Joseph-el, when there were as yet no Israelites in the land, finds its explanation in those same Hebrew race traditions. Joseph (or Joseph-el, which is the same name with the divine suffix) was the ancient designation of that part of Palestine afterwards occupied by Ephraim and Manasseh. It was because those tribes settled in the land of Joseph that they came to be regarded as the children of Joseph. Similarly, in the Egyptian inscriptions the land east of the Jordan is designated as Ruten, which, in Semitic form, would be Lotan. This is the land of Lot, and Moab and Ammon became children of Lot because they occupied that territory. Israel and Jacob-el, or Jacob, were identified in a somewhat different relation, namely, as one and the same person, not as father and son.

The Babylonian divine names found in connection with Palestinian towns, mountains, and the like, in the Egyptian inscriptions, the Tel el-Amarna letters, and later in the Hebrew records, show that the Babylonian religion took root in Palestine during the long period of Babylonian supremacy. This religion the Hebrews found localized among the peoples of Canaan at the time of their occupation. Hence the similarity and at the same time the difference between the Hebrew and Babylonian creation, flood, and other myths. Professor Paton treats these subjects rationally, without theological bias, and yet without leaning backward. Hence one is the more ready to accept his somewhat conservative treatment of the famous fourteenth chapter of Genesis, with its story of the Elamite conquest of the Dead Sea cities, and of Abram and Melchizedek. This has been not infrequently regarded as a late Jewish romance, founded, perhaps, on old Babylonian material. Professor Paton regards it as "derived from a Canaanitish source, and as the earliest extant native document for the history of Palestine."

He makes, of course, full use of the Tel el-Amarna letters. The Suti and Khabiri, mentioned in those letters as invaders of Palestine, were the vanguard of that great Aramæan immigration from Arabia which finally overwhelmed all Syria and Mesopotamia. The Khabiri were Hebrews, not in the narrower sense in which we ordinarily use the name, but in that broader sense which includes also Moabites, Ammonites, and Edomites. Israel had not yet come into being. Somewhat later those tribes known afterwards as Joseph and Benjamin entered Egypt. The Leah tribes, Reuben, Judah, Simeon, Levi, etc., occupied at that time the region between Egypt and Palestine, having their headquarters at Kadesh-Barnea. This would explain the perplexing inscription of Merneptah, discovered in 1896, the only Egyptian monument on which Israel is mentioned. Here Israel is numbered among the peoples of Palestine and neighboring regions, whom Merneptah claims to have conquered. As a corollary of this explanation it follows, so Professor Paton thinks, that Merneptah was not the Pharaoh of the Exodus, which took place shortly after the time of Ramses III., about 1200 B. C.

Most fascinating is the account of the race movements which led to the settlement of the Philistines on the coast of Palestine at about the same time that the Israelites occupied the interior of the country; of those migrations from the north which brought the Hittites into Syria, and of the final occupation of the Hittite country by the Aramæans. Naturally, the book is fuller in its treatment of Palestine than of Syria, because in the Bible we have for Palestine, after the time of the Hebrew conquest, a considerable amount of native material, whereas from Syria we have almost nothing. Only one serious excavation has ever been undertaken there, namely, by the Germans, at the small mound of Zinjirli, in the extreme northwest, where were found the remains of a Hittite city, conquered later by the Aramæans and then by the Assyrians. Here and in some neighboring villages were found the most ancient Aramæan inscriptions yet discovered.

In only one matter of considerable importance do we feel inclined seriously to criticise Professor Paton's conclusions. He has followed the extraordinary theory of Stade, developed more fully by Budde, that the ethical character of the Hebrew religion was due to the fact that Yahaweh was not the ancestral god of the Hebrews, but "was the god of Sinai and of Midian, who had come into connection with Israel only through his own free, moral choice." This, it seems to us, is almost an absurd proposition on the face of it. It is impossible to interpret such religious movements as those of Moses, or Zoroaster, or Buddha, or Mohammed without recognizing the supreme importance of the leader who towers above his people. It is in him and his conceptions that the historian must look for the introduction of that ethical element which differentiates all these religions from the religions of the peoples about, not in a free moral choice of a god who was not an ancestral god. Incidentally Professor Paton has adduced some curious monumental evidence to discredit his own theory. The Aramæan tribes who settled at Zinjirli and its neighborhood, belonged to the vanguard of the Aramæan invasion, as did the Hebrews. Hence it is that we find them speaking a language so closely allied to Hebrew that it is almost doubtful whether it should be classed as Aramæan or Hebrew. Now these north Syrian peoples, so closely allied to the Hebrews, worshipped a divinity of the name Yahu, as appears by their proper names, and even called themselves Ya'udi or Yahudi, as did the Jews. But Yahu is only another form of Yahaweh, the ineffable divine name of the Jews, whence it would appear that, in religion as in language, Jew and north Syrian were closely related from ancestral times.

There are valuable chronological lists at the beginning of this little book, and an extensive bibliography, extremely useful to the student. A few sketch maps here and there through the volume are useful for suggesting to the eye the distribution of peoples and nations at various periods, according to Egyptian, Babylonian, and Assyrian inscriptions. Such maps must, however, be regarded as mere suggestions. The book is eminently readable, as well as scientifically valuable. It belongs to the "Semitic Series," the general editor of which is Professor Craig of the University of Michigan. If the remaining volumes of this series shall approximate the standard set by this work, the series will be extremely valuable both to Bible scholars and to students of history in general.

LETTERS OF A LOYALIST.

Letters of James Murray, Loyalist. Edited by Nina Moore Tiffany, assisted by Susan I. Lesley. 1901. For sale by W. B. Clarke Co., Boston.

Though this volume is "privately printed," let us be forward to declare that the editors stand in no need of holding up a shield for protection. It is small praise to say, as it deserves to be said, that they have done their work exceptionally well. What they furnish as explanatory text is written in a clear and sprightly style, and pervaded by an air of refinement. It is because of a judicious treatment of material in itself not of literary worth, that these pages can be recommended to the general reader as an attractive narrative and a valuable contribution to our colonial history.

James Murray (1713-1782) was a Scotchman who, being, as Johnson would have it, "caught young," went to London to learn the mysteries of West India trade. Getting his patrimony in 1735, when only twenty-two years of age, he started with it and his sister Barbara, then eighteen, for America to seek his fortune. Upon arriving at Charleston, South Carolina, the good people there tried to dissuade him from pushing on to the Cape Fear region of the other Carolina, his point of destination; but Murray made his way to the newer settlement and cast in his lot there. He would have established himself at New Town (now Wilmington), only there was no house there, so he went to Brunswick for a while, and later, when New Town had taken on a visible shape, he transferred himself to that port. Young Murray had to do with land and negroes, together with pitch, tar, and turpentine, being the proprietor of a general store and keen at trading. Though not in love with his surroundings, he stuck to his calling, and, by the exercise of Scotch thrift, managed to make a living if not to prosper. He became Collector of the Port, and, during Gov. Johnston's term, was a member of the Board of Councillors. These public services, however, were not very exacting or important. There are several letters from North Carolina, which, though meagre in detail, cover a period in respect to which almost any original matter must be welcome to the local historian. Mr. Murray handles the pen after a business fashion. His letters are plain, simple compositions which reflect the life, rude and simple, of those early times.

Barbara, it seems, found a husband in less than two years after their arrival. James Murray had another sister, Elizabeth, a bright, energetic young woman, who came to North Carolina, then went back to Scotland, and in 1749 landed at Boston and began the business there of selling articles of female apparel—what would probably now be called millinery. Elizabeth Murray was married to three successive husbands, Campbell, Smith, and Inman. She may be called the heroine of the narrative. In 1765 James Murray removed from North Carolina to that "poor healthy place," as he had styled it, New England. James Smith, husband to Elizabeth, was then carrying on the business of a sugar baker, and had made a fortune at it. He lived on Queen Street, near his sugar house on Brattle Street. He also owned a mansion house at Brush Hill, Milton. Smith died in 1769. His widow, after tarrying a while in Scotland, returned to Boston, and was married to Ralph Inman, "who kept his coach and liveried servants," and owned a large house in Cambridge. James Murray we find later living on the farm at Brush Hill, and trying his hand at the sugar business, as a successor of his brother-in-law.

The year of this change from North Carolina to Boston was marked by the sacking of Gov. Hutchinson's house, and the loss of those precious manuscripts which the antiquarian takes so much to heart and never ceases to deplore. The agitation that finally culminated in the Revolution was stirring Boston. Murray sided with the King. He was a Tory, or, as the editors prefer to soften the term on the title-page, a Loyalist. His letters upon business and upon family matters necessarily speak, yet guardedly, of the political disturbances to which he was witness. The British regiment of which a portion took part in the Boston massacre, was quartered at Murray's sugar house. An account of the massacre is given in one of these letters.

Mr. Murray had two daughters, Dorothy (1745-1811), who married the Rev. John Forbes, from whom was descended an honored citizen of Milton, the late John Murray Forbes, her grandson. The other daughter was Elizabeth Murray (1756-1837), who was married to Edward Hutchinson Robbins. It was upon the decease of James Murray Robbins, grandson of Elizabeth, that these letters, found in the Brush Hill mansion, could be arranged for being put into print. Murray stayed in Boston until the evacuation by Howe, and sailed for Halifax in company with the troops. There are numerous letters that throw light upon the condition of affairs in the besieged city. One may read an expression of fear and anxiety on the part of loyal adherents to the King, and then, by turning to a letter of Abigail Adams, of identical date, written just outside of Boston, may share in a similar feeling that agitated the patriot women.

The following interesting extract is from a letter written by Elizabeth Murray to her sister Dorothy Forbes. The prisoners referred to were Highlanders, captured on a transport in Boston harbor:

"Boston June 11 1776 Tuesday afternoon, 5 o'clock, not Dressed.

"Dear sister—Fenwick carries you a Barrel of Rum, which is 26/ the Gallon. . . .

"We turned about, and what was [our] surprize to see four Officers with a gaurd. Prudence had told me the Duchess of Gordon's Brother (whose name I knew to be Maxwell) was a Prisoner. That, and the great anxiety I was in for our Uncle, occasioned a wish to speak to them. The first three I had not resolution to stop, but went up to the last and asked the favor of being answered one question, and with a faultering Voice asked if the first Battalion was come out to America. All the Gentlemen turned round when I stopt the last. They informed [me] that Regiment was in England, and to remain there. Joyful sound it was to me. Still trembling so as to be incapable of supporting without Prudence's assistance, I asked if either of them Gentlemen were Capt. Maxwell. A lovely Youth, who appeared to be about twenty, Bowed an acknowledgment of that Name. I enquired for his Mother and Sisters, who he told me he left well in Scotland six weeks ago. Here my voice failed, and we all remained in silence for the space of a minute, and parted without another word. 'Tis in vain to attempt a discription of my emotions, at that moment. We went on, and they went to the jail to take leave of their Men, who are to be sent back into the Country to work for their living and it is expected will join the American army" (page 242).

We remark that, in the eighteenth line of the above extract, the editors have inserted "[me]" as if supplying an accidental omission on the writer's part. But we have no doubt that "inform" was here used in the intransitive sense of 'report' current in the seventeenth century, and which we have found yet lingering colloquially in this country. The absence of the conjunction *that* corroborates this view. The sentence, properly punctuated, would read (as spoken, with a pause after the verb): "They informed: that Regiment was in England," etc.

Of manners and customs there are naturally many glimpses, and something may be gleaned in words and phrases for the Oxford Dictionary. The familiar Southern correlation of "hog and hominy" Dr. Murray quotes first from Bartlett, "about 1860"; but it was in vogue before the Revolution. For example, the patriot, William Hooper, in writing from Baltimore, April 2, 1776, to Dorothy Forbes, employs this American symbol of tranquil content in conjunction with the Scriptural (p. 239). We copy literally, though the sentence is rather disjointed:

"I wish for peace, that we may once more under our own Vines and Fig trees enjoy the blessing of domestick peace, that I might enjoy in my own Cabin, eat my Hogg & Hominee without anything to make me afraid."

James Murray, after leaving Boston, never saw his children again, though he ventured as near them as Newport and New York. A few letters written to them from his place of exile are to be found in this volume. He died at Halifax in 1782. While the female correspondents show (as is proverbial with their sex) a superiority in the art of letter-writing, this steadfast old gentleman remains the central figure of the history, of which these pages treat. The reader is likely to conclude from them and from his portrait, which faces the title-page, that he was a man of estimable qualities, and that his loyalty to his sovereign, viewed at this distance of time, may well be entitled to our respect.

We discharge an obvious duty to any reader of this volume by urging him to pursue the Murray family history, first in Mrs. Lesley's perennially charming 'Recollections of My Mother [Anne Jean (Robbins) Lyman, granddaughter of James Murray],' and Mrs. Hughes's inspiring Memoirs of her father, John Murray Forbes, great-grandson of James Murray. We do not recall, at this moment, any corresponding exhibition of a great family connection; in narratives, too, of quite unpremeditated interlacing, and which, finally, might be extended for other branches without diminishing the honorable esteem exacted by the lives already set before us.

English Coronation Records. Edited by Leopold G. Wickham Legg, New College, Oxford. Whitehall: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

As a premonitory symptom of King Edward's coronation, there comes to us a sumptuous volume which deals with royal crownings in the past. One need not expect to find in it any discussion of first principles—of *Dei gratia* versus parliamentary title—for it simply contains an account of the rites and ceremonies by which English sovereigns have been consecrated since the days of the Heptarchy. At least this is the main subject, and all else is accessory to it. Even with such a restricted scope the book contains a great deal of material. In the Middle Ages, when election meant far less than it does now and the formal consecration meant far more, the details of this important ceremony were studied with the utmost care. The *forma et modus* was not stereotyped, but underwent considerable change and development. As time went on, it naturally became more elaborate. Recension after recension was made, until, in the reign of Edward II., the *Liber regalis* appeared. When the short

rubrics of this ritual have been expanded into the long rubrics which were used at the coronation of Richard II., we get the mediæval coronation service in its perfection; and Mr. Legg, by publishing the full text, puts us in possession of a really important document.

A book of this kind appeals to three distinct classes of persons: to the historian, to the antiquary, and to the lover of pageants. The members of the latter class are numerous, whereas the historians and the antiquaries are comparatively few. Those who look upon the coronation service as a religious rite of high sanctity are fewer still, for, as Mr. Legg implies, the public attitude of mind was considerably affected by the Revolution of 1688. "Since the end of the seventeenth century the service has gradually fallen into neglect, so that even at the present day the great mass of people look forward to it rather as a pageant arranged for their amusement than as the solemn inauguration of their sovereign in the throne of his Government." The antiquary will find much in this volume about the panneter, who carried the salt-cellar and knives to the king's table; about the coronation spoon and the regalia; about the cap of maintenance, and about the King's champion, Dymock of Scrivelsby. The celebrated conservatism of England is still shown in many singular and interesting usages which accompany the solemn act of crowning.

But as the enthusiastic pageant lover will attend the coronation, and as professional antiquaries in America are few, we shall merely indicate one or two features of Mr. Legg's compilation which are likely to attract the notice of the historian. In the first place, there is a long and valuable introduction, wherein may be found a broad survey of English coronations as a whole. Then come the documents which, though largely liturgical in character, comprise some letters and inventories of general interest. Among these may be mentioned two letters from Pope Alexander III. to the Archbishop of York, forbidding him to crown a king of England without leave of the Church of Canterbury; a letter of Pope John XXII. to Edward II., relating the circumstances under which the sacred oil of coronation was given to Thomas Becket; the Court of Claims of Richard II.; and a long list of the articles which were deemed necessary for the coronation of Henry VII. To this inventory of Tudor magnificence is appended the cost of each article; and numerous statistics regarding the wages paid to workmen of all degrees are also furnished. If the approaching coronation is marked by the same splendor which attended that of the triumphant Lancastrian, the ambassadors and sight-seers in attendance will have no cause to grumble at their entertainment.

Although the interest of Mr. Legg's records is largely liturgical, the work deserves to have a place in the library of the historian. The illustrations are well executed, and, in fact, all the mechanical features respond to the dignity of the subject.

Jane Austen, her Homes and her Friends. By Constance Hill. London and New York: John Lane.

When Miss Austen's Elizabeth Bennet walked across country three miles to inquire for her sister Jane, her appearance in the breakfast parlor at Netherfield Park created polite consternation. Miss Bingley expressed her disapproval memorably:

"To walk three miles, or four miles, or five miles, or whatever it is, above her ankles in dirt, and alone, quite alone! What could she mean by it? It seems to me to show an abominable sort of conceited independence, a most country-town indifference to decorum."

Between the moment of Miss Bingley's censure and that of publication of Miss Hill's book, enterprising Elizabeths have won for their sex several inestimable privileges, among them that of going about alone, quite alone! And whether the object be to see a sick sister or to gather material for a book, the unattended maiden pursues her way; exciting neither suspicion nor reproach.

Poor Miss Bingley! The veil hanging between her and a scandalous future was fortunately opaque; she was borne with propriety to the family vault, undisturbed by visions of the dreadful things that maidens would be doing at the end of her century, and (irony of circumstance) doing even in the home of the author of her being. For it was the charm of Jane Austen's rendering of that society of which Miss Bingley was an ornament, that impelled the Misses Hill (unattended) to wander over several counties of England, exploring lovely lanes and secluded parks, putting up at wayside inns, talking eagerly to any sort of person who might furnish a scrap of information about the famous novelist.

In addition to a "determination to find out all that could be known of her life and its surroundings," the ladies wished to "trace the connection between the author's individual experience and that of the personages in her novels." They have succeeded, not only in connecting the real and the fictitious, but in occasionally confounding them, so that a reader not very familiar with Miss Austen's works is not unlikely to be more puzzled than enlightened by some parts of the narration. Nothing of importance is added to the facts about Miss Austen already known; but, by combining with descriptions of places where she lived well-chosen excerpts from her novels and letters, from family papers and published memoirs, her life and character have been presented distinctly, and on the whole vividly. It was at Steventon that the ladies came nearest to personal contact with their idol, when they talked to an old man, named Littlewart, whose mother had been "Miss Jane's" goddaughter. Littlewart pointed out a pump standing over a well from which the Austens used to draw water, and the sight moved the pilgrims to exclamatory delight.

Frankly taking the attitude of an adorer, Miss Hill offers no critical comment, nor does she cite any that is not eulogistic. But she rather skilfully contrives to assure us that, if Miss Austen did not put all she knew about life into her books, she never put anything that she did not know. Her own life even in detail was the foundation for all that she wrote. She moved in a society well ordered and refined, a society that did not encourage violent emotion, and was scrupulous about making calls. By no merit of its own has this society survived itself and remained perhaps more intimately and exactly known than that of any period of our history, but because there happened to be born in its sacred centre a woman with genius perfectly adapted to give to its actual transient existence literary perpetuity. The sketches made by Miss Ellen Hill and reproductions of family portraits add to the value and attractiveness of her sister's text.

A Selection from the Comedies of Marivaux. Edited, with an introduction and notes, by Everett Ward Olmsted, Professor in Cornell University. The Macmillan Co.

Marivaux had to wait until the latter part of the nineteenth century to receive from his own country the full recognition to which he was entitled. Although the subject of many an interesting chapter of literary criticism, he remained one of those minor writers whom the average reader feels content with knowing only by name. About 1880 a reaction set in, and Marivaux began to be better appreciated. In that very year the French Academy proposed his name for one of its literary contests known as the Prizes of Eloquence. In 1882, a huge thesis for the doctorate was presented to the Sorbonne by Mr. Gustave Larroumet, the now famous professor and critic, who deemed 640 pages not too many to exhaust the subject. This was the signal for a revival of interest in Marivaux. All the representative critics fell into line. The theatres gave more attention than heretofore to his plays, and some of his comedies, which belonged to the repertory of the Comédie-Française, have never since disappeared from its boards. Not many weeks ago the Odéon was giving his "L'École des Mères," and Marivaux, whom M. Faguet considers "the most original of the French comic authors" after Molière and Beaumarchais, has come to be to-day as popular as either one of them.

It was about time that the American public should be enabled to know something of so charming and so representative a dramatist, who not merely created a new *genre*, but whose very name gave birth to a new word in the French language, *marivaudage*, defining a thing Marivaux did not invent, but to which he gave a delicacy of form nobody ever equalled, either before or after him. Strangely enough, Marivaux has been until now unedited in this country, and, one may say, practically unknown. Therefore, this selection which Professor Olmsted presents to all students of French supplies a long-felt need.

In many respects it is one of the most satisfactory editions of French classics that have been published for a long time. The choice of the three plays, which are all printed without abridgment, is both judicious and happy. They are the three most famous and characteristic of Marivaux's comedies: "Le Jeu de l'Amour et du Hasard," "Le Legs," and "Les Fausses Confidences." In all three the reader will find all the traits, good and bad, of the author's peculiar style, his sparkling wit, subtle badinage, and also his often far-fetched and odd preciosities. Of course, such a style constitutes a text not always very easy to understand, even for natives, although it is in the main of the best eighteenth-century clearness and purity. The editor has taken pains to ex-

plain all the passages which are obscure and would be even unintelligible with a mere knowledge of modern French. The notes are not content to explain what the teacher in the class-room might have made clear himself. Perhaps some of Mr. Olmsted's interpretations are open to discussion, as was likely to be the case with an author so fond of queer expressions, and whose vocabulary is half classical and half modern. Thus, for instance, we do not see any reason for giving a seventeenth-century meaning to the word *impertinence* in so simple a sentence as this one: "Allez répondre vos impertinences ailleurs" (p. 3). Nevertheless, the notes, as a whole, will be found to be both helpful for the understanding of the text and instructive in regard to the customs and manners of the society which Marivaux depicts.

The last and not least feature of this edition is the long introduction of 80 pages (it could have been shortened by 20 without loss) in which the editor gives an interesting and complete sketch of Marivaux, not merely as an author of comedies, but as a novelist, a moralist, and a newspaper-writer as well. These latter qualifications, being less known, were well worth dwelling upon, although his 'Marianne' and 'Paysan Parvenu' are no longer read, and his journalistic activity in *Le Spectateur Français* is quite forgotten. For this study Mr. Olmsted has made abundant, intelligent, and discriminating use of all the works published on his author by contemporary writers like Palissot and D'Alembert, or by critics of to-day like Larroumet, Faguet, and Deschamps. His essay is a most fitting introduction to an edition whose conscientious and scholarly qualities will no doubt receive from all lovers of French literature the reward which they deserve.

Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. Edited by James Mark Baldwin. Volume I. The Macmillan Co. Pp. xxiv, 644.

This volume is the first fruits of more than seven years' generous labor on the part of what the editor terms aptly "an international committee." When complete, it will consist of two volumes of definitions and one volume of bibliography, the last including not only a list of the recognized books under each article, but also a list of the best contributions to technical periodicals. In the first two volumes the articles are of three sorts: first, concise definitions; second, such definitions, with the addition of historical and expository matter running to several hundred words; third, special articles, of from one to five thousand words, which one would more naturally expect to find in an encyclopædia than in a dictionary.

The articles of the last two classes, which make up the bulk of the book, are of great value, and are admirably well done. Not only the beginner but the serious student in philosophy and psychology may well be glad to have at hand a book that contains the history of current philosophical and psychological terms. Philosophy and psychology are, quite as much as law, if not, indeed, as biology, written in a language apart, and the absence of a lexicon has been an anomaly. The present work deals also, or is to deal, with "many of the principal conceptions of ethics, logic, æsthetics, philosophy of religion, mental pathology, anthropology, biology, neurology, physiology, economics, political and social philosophy, philology, physical science, and education," giving technical equivalents of the English terms in French, German, and Italian, and supplementing the text with woodcuts and bibliographies. The limitation of the book lies on the side of the technical terms of Greek and scholastic philosophy. These the editor and his staff have reluctantly refrained from any attempt to deal with exhaustively, though considerable information is given in the text about Greek and scholastic philosophy and its terminology.

The present volume includes articles from *A* to *Law*. The only adverse criticism in general to be made on it is, that it gives the definition of many words which are not technical, and to the definition of which special sciences have as yet no precision to lend. It is out of place to set down in a lexicon of technical terms that Joy is "a pleasurable emotional state accompanying consciousness of gain or advantage to oneself or another." Joy, says Dr. Johnson, is "the passion produced by any happy accident; gladness, exultation"—which, by the way, less strictly than the previous definition, excludes *la joie de vivre*.

An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England. By Edward P. Cheyney, Professor of European History in the University of Pennsylvania. The Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. x, 317. Illustrated.

This is an excellent book for teaching purposes. If it is not marked by quite so vigorous and easily flowing a style as Mr. Townsend Warner's 'Landmarks in English Industrial History,' which is its only rival, it shows more independence and personal knowledge of the original sources. Moreover, as the work of an American teacher, it is better adapted to the average mental outfit of the American student; and it takes care to include about as much of the political history of England as is absolutely necessary for the understanding of the social development. The first half is much superior to the second. Here Mr. Cheyney is at home in his subject. Many teachers must have felt grateful for the convenient little collections of manorial and municipal documents which he prepared a few years ago for the use of his pupils in the University of Pennsylvania; and the question of mediæval agrarian history is one in which he has himself been keenly interested. He presents the conclusions of the best recent investigations; and where his opinions differ from those of the present reviewer there is doubtless a good deal to be said for Mr. Cheyney's views.

A few slips may be noticed in the interests of the next edition. At page 117, line 10, "town" should be "university." The reference on page 124 to the non-existence of villenage in Kent should be more guarded—see Vinogradoff (p. 205) and Trevelyan, 'Age of Wycliffe' (p. 219). The phrase on page 139 about the appointment of bishops countenances the common, but mistaken, notion that the Reformation introduced a great practical change in this respect; but see Stubbs, section 386. And on page 143, line 10 from bottom, Bryán C. J. should be Danby. Where the book is relatively weak is in the later chapters, especially the last two. The history of Factory Legislation, Trade Unionism, and Coöperation is important enough; but it is by no means the whole of the industrial history of England in the nineteenth century. This is a weakness not peculiar to Professor Cheyney's book, but marks a good deal of the teaching of industrial or economic history. But if the treatment of the post-mediæval centuries is to compare in thoroughness with the treatment of the mediæval, there must be far more attention given to the distribution of the great industries and to the effect of mechanical advances in transportation and production than has hitherto been usual.

The illustrations have been selected with judgment, and most of them have the great merit of illustrating. But the Hall at York, of which pictures are given on pages 60, 62, in the sections on the Gild Merchant, is the hall of the sixteenth century "Company of Merchants, Mercers, Grocers, Apothecaries and Ironmongers," which *may* indeed, be descended from an earlier gild merchant, though that remains to be proved. And in the Trade Routes map, on page 85, the absence of boundaries to Muscovy may cause some natural misapprehension; while the insertion of "German" before "Empire" and the total absence of Constantinople might give just offence to the soul of Mr. Freeman.

Classification, Theoretical and Practical. I. The Order of the Sciences; II. The Classification of Books. By Ernest Cushing Richardson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. 12mo, pp. 248.

We should hesitate to recommend this book to a beginner in the subject; but one who knows what is usually said about it will find Mr. Richardson's absolute independence of all that, refreshing. He does not argue much, but his dicta are dynamitic. For instance, he holds that, in order to be a subject of classification, a thing must have separate existence. This is sufficiently surprising; but upon this statement immediately follows another even more radical, to wit: "Ideas are therefore the subjects of classification just as much as anything else not only because they have a material as well as a spiritual substance but because they are individual separate things existing in a certain place at a certain time in a certain definable nature." (The non-punctuation is not ours.) Whether the man who writes so has read, may be doubted, but he has certainly thought. The same fact is evinced in his definitions. "*Likeness*, as the ground of the putting together of things in classification is, in brief terms, interchangeability." If this writer would only subject himself to some Socratic dialogues with a logical sharp, we do not doubt that his analytic powers would ultimately become very useful to his profession of librarian. But it cannot be that he should at present produce a good classification of subjects of books, because he would be governed by conceptions that not only are unfamiliar to those who would consult his catalogue, but are also untenable in themselves. As for his classification of sciences, we may possibly have seen worse ones.

It is, however, the Appendix to the book, which fills more than half again as many pages as the body of the text, that is the really useful part of it. This consists of

lists of references to systems of classification of sciences and of books. Of course, it cannot be complete. There is, for instance, no reference to the Century Dictionary under *Science*. The tables do not evince great learning, but they must prove highly useful.

The Elements of Architecture, Collected by Henry Wotton, Kt., from the best Authors and Examples. Springfield, Mass.: The F. A. Bassette Co. 1901.

At the instance of Mr. Guy Kirkham, Architect, there has been reprinted in facsimile, from the edition of 1651, that part of the 'Reliquiæ Wottonianæ' which relates to architecture. Preceding the special title quoted above, comes a facsimile of the quaint general title of the work, which reads, 'Reliquiæ Wottonianæ, or, A Collection of Lives, Letters, Poems; with Characters of Sundry Personages; and Other Incomparable Pieces of Language and Art. By the curious Pensil of the ever Memorial Sr. Henry Wotton, Kt., Late Provost of Eton Colledg. London, 1651.' The elements of architecture were, in the days of Wotton, a part of the education of a gentleman; and as a gentleman, and not as a practitioner of the art, he approaches his subject. He had travelled in Italy, he had read his Vitruvius; his equipment was complete. What he wrote, especially if read in its original setting of curious old type, with every noun capitalized and every important word italicised, is, at least for an architect, matter most diverting. His strange embodiment, in unfamiliar language, of ideas full of common sense, yet of singular inexactness, is the kind of thing one rarely comes upon nowadays. As an example of his style and matter, let us quote the opening sentences: "In *Architecture* as in all other *Operative* Arts, the *End* must direct the *Operation*. The *End* is to build well. *Wel-building* hath three Conditions, *Commodity*, *Firmnesse*, and *Delight*." He proceeds with a discourse upon "The *Seat* and the *Work*," and, in describing the construction of the work he reaches the most delightful heights of inconsequence.

Your bibliophile needs Sir Henry Wotton in an early edition, but the busy architect will be content to divert the tedium of a half-hour's enforced idleness by perusing his thoughts on architecture in so excellent a reprint as that of Mr. Guy Kirkham.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, R. M. Shakspere's Tragedy of Julius Cæsar. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. 25 cents.
Animal Experimentation. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Arber, Edward. The Pope Anthology. (Selections from the English Poets.) Henry Frowde.
Ashley, R. L. The American Federal State: A Text-Book in Civics. Macmillan. $2.
Avebury, Lord. The Scenery of England, and the Causes to Which It Is Due. Macmillan. $2.50.
Babbitt, Irving. Ernest Renan's Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Boutmy, Emile. Eléments d'une Psychologie Politique du Peuple Américain. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Bowdoin, W. G. James McNeill Whistler. M. F. Mansfield & Co.
Burton, T. E. Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression. D. Appleton & Co. $1.40.
Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899. Parts 10, 11: De Franceschi—Dziatzko. Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Colquhoun, A. R. The Mastery of the Pacific. Macmillan. $4.
Dequesne, S. A. A Serpent's Feast. The Manuscript Co.
Doyle, A. C. The War in South Africa: Its Cause and Conduct. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Finck, H. T. Romantic Love and Personal Beauty. New ed. Macmillan.
Flower, Elliott. Policeman Flynn. Century Co. $1.50.
Gullens, F. B. Where Magnolias Bloom. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Hammond, C. E. Outlines of Textual Criticism Applied to the New Testament. New ed. Henry Frowde.
Helmolt, H. F. The History of the World, Vol. I.: Pre-History—America and the Pacific Ocean. Dodd, Mead & Co. $6.
Huneker, James. Melomaniacs. Scribners. $1.50.
Ingres, Maxime. Cours Complet de la Langue Française, Vol. I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Jackson, D. C. and J. P. An Elementary Book on Electricity and Magnetism and their Applications. Macmillan. $1.40.
Johnston, Mary. Audrey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
King, Pauline. American Mural Painting. Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.
Long, J. L. Naughty Nan. Century Co. $1.50.
Marquis, G. H. Fairview's Mystery. Abbey Press. 75 cents.
Murray, Gilbert. Euripidis Fabulae. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Odenheimer, Cordelia P. The Phantom Caravan. Abbey Press. $1.
Patton, Abel. "Har Lampkins." Abbey Press. $1.
Paulsen, Friedrich. Immanuel Kant, his Life and Doctrine. Scribners. $2.50.
Payot, Jules. Die Erziehung des Willens. Leipzig: R. Voigtländer.
Phillips, Stephen. Ulysses. Macmillan. $1.25.
Piffard, H. The Giant's Gate. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Pinson, W. W. In White and Black. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.50.
Pratt, H. S. A Course in Invertebrate Zoölogy. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Priest, G. M. Riehl's Das Spielmannskind und der stumme Ratsherr. American Book Co. 35c.
Rigg, J. M. Select Pleas, Starrs, and Other Records from the Rolls of the Exchequer of the Jews. (Selden Society.) London: Bernard Quaritch.
Stechman, Otto. Unrequited Love. Abbey Press. $1.
Stechman, Otto. Whither Are We Drifting? Abbey Press. $1.
Thomas, W. Le Poète Edward Young. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Valdés, A. P. José. Brentano's. $1.25.
Wharton, Edith. The Valley of Decision. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.
Wilkins, A. S. M. Tulli Ciceronis Rhetorica. Henry Frowde. 3s.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 6, 1902.

The Week.

Whatever discredit—and it is undeniably great—attaches to the continued playing fast and loose with Cuba, must be, so far, charged up to the Republican party and its leaders in Washington. They have ostentatiously made it their own affair. It is the Republican members only of the Ways and Means Committee who meet to frame the bill which remains so distressingly unframed. The "continuous performance" of a caucus to settle the matter is wholly a Republican show. The Democrats, in fact, stand ready to do more than Cuba asks. They would vote for absolute free trade with the island. It is the Republican party which has, in all this Cuban quandary, got on a conspicuous stage to exhibit to the country a disheartening spectacle of vacillation, divided counsels, and feeble-minded leadership facing both ways. Could the immense talent for blundering which the Democratic party possesses have surpassed this display? We doubt it. Republican jeers used to be addressed, and with much reason, to the distracted Democracy, when it was wrestling with the Wilson tariff or the silver question. "Why don't the two wings of your party flap together?" That was a common taunt. But what are the Republican wings just now, and how are they flapping? How high can a party soar when one of its wings has beets in the place of feathers, and, even so, flaps hopelessly at variance with the other? These are the questions which political observers are beginning to ask, as they see the Republicans marking time at Washington while the country is crying out for action.

Unpleasant stories come from Havana of planters being forced to sell out to American capitalists, and of the agents of the latter boasting that they are "working" Congress so as to delay relief for Cuba and still further depress real estate in the island. It is not necessary to credit all these tales, yet they undoubtedly represent to the Cubans a very sinister side of the American occupation. Bargains in land secured by ruining the owners are not agreeable to think of, and we cannot wonder that the Cubans are angry and suspicious at the unaccountable procrastination of the House Republicans, or that they are almost inclined to despair of anything being done for them at all. But there is no real reason for them to despond utterly. The delay is vexatious, it is disgraceful to the House leaders responsible for it, but it will be ended, sooner or later. The President is firm, the Senate is ready to act. In the end, the reluctant and squabbling Republicans of the House will fall into line, hating to do so as they will. We only trust that deferred hope will not make the Cubans sick at heart, and that the bankers and merchants of Havana will have faith enough in the honesty of the American people to extend credits, and so avert that bankruptcy and misery which the dilatory House is doing its best to bring upon the island.

Express authority is by the Constitution given to each house of Congress to "punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member." Immediately after the controversy of Saturday week two-thirds of the Senators present (if a quorum) might have turned Tillman and McLaurin out of their seats, and the same proportion of the body may do this to-day or at any other time. That would end the service of each under his present commission. But the Constitution says nothing about suspending a Senator—that is, debarring him from service for a longer or shorter period. It is argued that suspension may be considered one form of that punishment for disorderly behavior which can be inflicted, and the contention seems a strong one at first thought; but it soon appears that the other party in issue—the State from which the Senator comes—has rights in the matter, which are denied by suspension. Mr. Bailey of Texas, on Monday, made an argument against the claim that the Senate may suspend its members, which not only demonstrated his ability as a reasoner, but also impressed the majority so strongly that Mr. Frye the next day ordered the names of Tillman and McLaurin restored to the roll, and it is evident that many Republicans now doubt whether the Senate, as a body, can legitimately exercise this power. Mr. Bailey stands upon the provision of the Constitution that "no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate." If Tillman and McLaurin are prevented by a majority of their colleagues from acting as Senators, South Carolina is obviously denied its proper share in the action of the upper branch.

But would not the expulsion of one or both also deprive their State of its equal suffrage in the Senate? Only until a successor or successors could be elected by the Legislature, or named by the Governor, if the Legislature were not in session. Moreover, expulsion is expressly authorized by the Constitution, and, therefore, the temporary loss of representation for the State which it may involve cannot be regarded as conflicting with the provision that it shall not be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate. Suspension, however, would prevent representation of the State by the member suspended, while the State would be denied an opportunity to send somebody else in his stead, as in the case of expulsion. The power of suspension, if it exists, is obviously unlimited. The practice of college faculties might be imitated—suspension for a fortnight, in case of a minor offence; for six weeks, if more serious; for the remainder of a long session of Congress, if the misdemeanor were especially flagrant. Meanwhile, the State would lie helpless at the mercy of a mere majority of the Senate – unable to speak or vote through the man of its original choice, and prevented from making a new choice. It is plain that this principle cannot be admitted. It would be very perilous in the quietest of times. In a period when party passion might run high, and when the dominant organization, perhaps with a bare majority by the Vice-President's casting vote, might be tempted to strengthen its forces in order to push through doubtful measures, it would be intolerable that it might suspend one, two, or, for that matter, any number of members, indefinitely "for disorderly behavior." There was nothing left for the Senate to do except what it did on Friday—censure both of the offenders, as the wiser members of the Committee on Privileges and Elections recommended.

For the first time since the construction of our modern naval vessels was undertaken, a table has been published showing the original cost of each vessel and the amount of the repairs upon it. The compilation, which is the work of Paymaster-General Kenny, is interesting, primarily, as showing the exact cost of the finished vessel—not the sum paid to the builder, but the total expenditure necessary to put the ship into commission as an armed and equipped vessel of war. From this it appears that the battle-ship *Oregon* cost the enormous sum of $6,575,032.76, which is half a million more than the price of the *Massachusetts* and *Indiana*, vessels of a similar type and size. But the *Oregon* has cost thus far only $70,000 in repairs, exclusive of those now going on, while the *Indiana* has had $282,000 spent upon her since completion, and the *Massachusetts* $223,000. The cruiser *Philadelphia* cost less than two millions, but the enormous sum of $514,000, or more than 25 per cent. of her original value, has been lavished upon her to make her serviceable, and this in about twelve years. Repairs to the *Olympia*

now amount to about $500,000, and the *Cincinnati*, a cruiser built by the Government for $2,371,904.52, has charged against it repairs costing $457,000. The little torpedo-boat *Ericsson*, built for $144,142.08, has actually needed $48,749.99, or one-third her cost, to keep her in service. Altogether, $9,346,235.16 has been expended on repairs since 1888, according to Paymaster-General Kenny's tables. When a prominent Senator was recently taken through the wonderful new Library of Congress, he could hardly express his astonishment on learning that it had cost only the price of one battle-ship. Beside the great civilizing and uplifting work the library is doing, the wasting of millions on ships of war is like throwing money into the sea. What humanitarian work could not have been accomplished with the one hundred and ten millions the navy has cost in construction and repairs alone since 1885!

The dignified protest of a group of well-known painters against the tariff on works of art should carry weight with Congress, as it certainly will with the more intelligent portion of the public. These gentlemen recall that this "tariff on civilization" was actually removed without any of the dire consequences which are supposed to attend upon tinkering with the tariff. The tax was once cut in two, and once, in the Wilson Law, actually done away with. It remained for the framers of the Dingley Law to reimpose the tax, and to apply it not only to modern works of art, but also to antiquities, which were formerly exempt. The artists who protest against this ignorant policy show a patience in the matter which we find it difficult to observe. If the tax on works of art is unnecessary for the purpose of raising revenue—and everybody knows that it is unnecessary; if the duty serves no protective purpose—and everybody knows that artists believe it does not; then there was never any reason for passing such a law, or for retaining it upon the statute-book if by any unhappy accident it had been passed. It will be difficult to make a protection-ridden Congress see so obvious a fact, and the painters who plead for a more hospitable attitude towards art see clearly that they have a long campaign of education before them. We believe that the time is opportune for such a movement, and that by skilful organization and agitation it may be possible to secure at least free entry for antiquities.

Collector Ivey of Sitka has been removed from office, but with him goes an Americanism of the elder, robust type. His clarion defiance of Great Britain, with his open refusal to obey the orders of a subservient and cowardly law-abiding Secretary of the Treasury, would have stirred all hearts a few years ago. To-day it passes unnoticed, or else is laughed at. The heroic Ivey had issued an eminently patriotic order closing the port of Unalaska to Canadian sealing vessels. From timid Washington came a telegram directing him to revoke his order. But little did the authorities know Ivey. He promptly replied, "My Americanism will not allow me to rescind the order." As for the British treaty rights which his superior officer had referred to, Ivey punctured that pretence finely by showing that the treaty was, in any case, "ancient," and by maintaining that "the sooner it is abrogated the better"—the readiest road to abrogation being, of course, a refusal to be bound by it. Nor did he let the frightened Secretary off on the score of possible trouble resulting. "You," he wrote scornfully, "may fear the shadow of international complications and rescind this order, but a Reed, an Olney, or a Blaine would not." That has the true ring, and once would have roused the country. In happier days Ivey's splendid defiance of treaties, in the name of Americanism, would have brought him a nomination for some good office within a week. Now he is put out of office, and none so poor to do him reverence. His official head is off, but his Americanism goes marching on.

The testimony given last week by Gen. Hughes, before the Committee on the Philippines, in reference to our hospital for lewd women in Manila, was to the effect that he was solely responsible for it, and that he did not regret his act, for "if the evil had not been checked, fully two regiments would have been disabled." He did not say how many men had been disabled, in spite of these admirable precautions. We do not join with those who consider Gen. Hughes's action censurable. On the contrary, we think that, considered merely as an act of humanity to the miserable women, it was praiseworthy. No doubt some of our soldiers were kept out of the hospital because the women were kept in it. But the affair has a wider aspect. It recalls the somewhat famous Atkinson pamphlet, which the wise men in Washington excluded from the mails to Manila, some two years ago. Among other things deemed important by Mr. Atkinson were sundry tables of statistics drawn from the medical records of the British army in tropical countries, showing the proportion of soldiers under treatment for the very same disease which Gen. Hughes was trying to ward off in Manila, and showing also how impossible it is, by the best sanitary arrangements, to do more than curtail in some small degree its ravages. Treatment, after the disease is contracted, is of great importance and has been increasingly successful, but attempts at prevention have been of only doubtful utility. If Mr. Atkinson's warning had been heeded, there would have been no American soldiers in the Philippines to contract and to convey these loathsome diseases. But what a flood of light Gen. Hughes has thrown upon the desirability of army service in the tropics as a career for young men!

After taking a second, but not a sober, thought on the proposition for a modified system of popular representation in the Connecticut House, the small-town delegates in the Constitutional Convention have rejected it, and the utter failure of this attempt at representative reform is probable. The little towns have nothing to lose by the failure, and, through their command of the Legislature, they can defeat any new attempt at reform through Constitutional methods. That they realize, however, the gathering political storm, is evidenced by their suggestion to make the Senate a larger and a popular body. This inversion of the natural order of legislative construction is offered as a sop to the aggrieved cities, but they are not likely to accept it. The demand for popularity in representation which forced the calling of the Convention, looked solely to a reconstruction of the House. Popularity in the make-up of the Senate was recognized in an amendment to the Constitution adopted last November, and there is no concession, therefore, in the present offer. But even were the cities disposed to exchange half their present membership in the House for a larger Senate, they would justly demand a Senate whose size would balance that of the House, and thus give effect to the popular will in the choice of United States Senators, or in the determination of important legislative questions. To that end a Senate of the size suggested by the rural delegates would be much too small.

Criticism of the Davis bill, which provides for an eligible list of city architects, takes the ground that the list is unduly small, or else that the Fine Arts Federation, whose nomination must in every case precede the Mayor's appointment to the list, is not the proper body to exercise that function. As for the length of the list, the Fine Arts Federation is to present before the 1st of June a list of not less than one hundred names of architects who in their judgment are competent to do work for the city. From this list the Mayor must appoint *at least* fifty architects, and may appoint up to a hundred. If, however, he appoints less than one hundred, he may increase the list by only five a year until the hundred is complete. Beyond one hundred he may appoint freely upon the nomination of the Fine Arts Federation. To recapitulate—the Mayor may fill the list gradually to a hundred or appoint a hun-

dred architects immediately, and enlarge the list as fast as the Fine Arts Federation sends him names. The Federation consists of eleven art societies, three of which are architectural. Its standing committee on city architects would presumably act more impartially than a committee from any one of the architectural societies. No committee chosen from the profession generally would command higher respect. Finally, the Federation, by the new charter, already nominates members for the Municipal Art Commission, and might very appropriately assume the cognate duty of selecting architects for the city. Any discrimination of this sort is bound to be the occasion of endless heartburnings. But somebody must assume this delicate task, or the way remains open for the Horgans and Slatterys.

Few men in the American financial world will be missed more genuinely, as time goes on, than Frederick D. Tappen, who died last week at Lakewood. It can be said of Mr. Tappen, as of very few other men in the walks of trade, that a grave financial crisis is the hour when the loss will be most strongly felt. Other men have done much more than he to direct the course of American finance in times of prosperous industrial progress and in times of gradual reconstruction after collapse. It is the peculiar fact of Mr. Tappen's history that he was called invariably to the wheel, by the unanimous voice of his colleagues, when the storm was at its worst and the ship showed signs of foundering. In the panic of 1893 Mr. Tappen was not even a member of the Clearing-house Committee, in whose hands control of the New York banking situation rested. Yet, without a dissenting word, he was placed at the head of a new emergency committee which virtually superseded all others. The banking community made no mistake; its assurance came, in fact, from abundant experience. With Wall Street as a whole completely bewildered, confounded, and, disheartened, the protective and remedial powers of practically the entire American banking system, committed really to the hands of this one man, were applied with a promptness, decision, and courage whose results were instantaneous. This occurred not once, but on at least five separate occasions. More remarkable still than this invariable success in mastering the crisis was the quiet and unassuming modesty with which Mr. Tappen, the emergency work once done, stepped back to his every-day duties in Wall Street. The personal notoriety and éclat which have often been made to follow such achievement were as distasteful to him as secret and underground banking practices would have been. The career of such a man means more to his generation, in our judgment, than the most dazzling achievement of mere financial wealth or power. It stands as an example of what is best in American citizenship—complete and unhesitating devotion to the public welfare, without asking other return than the consciousness of duty well done.

President Wheeler of the University of California deals football the wounds of a friend when he says that the game is becoming more and more restricted to the specialist, that it tends to exclude even the average healthy man, and that it, on the whole, encourages "rooting" rather than physical development. It is worth the while of college faculties and graduate committees on athletics to consider these things, with a view to possible reform of the playing rules. When a game becomes so complicated that the mastery of its elements requires long study and training, its general utility immediately decreases. No college, for example, would spend tens of thousands of dollars a year and send excited throngs to encourage its fencing team. And quite aside from the danger of the game, the growing complexity of signals and "formations" makes the game, year by year, more difficult even to follow intelligently, still more to play. We may yet come to the pass where up-to-date colleges will offer compulsory courses in the strategics of football, just as already the students in certain colleges rehearse the college yell before a great game. Every man can pull an oar in some fashion, and every man handle a bat and ball, but an uninitiated man in a football game is out of the question. Here the English Rugby game, with its open play, is far more available than the *Kriegsspiel* which we Americans have evolved therefrom.

Application by Europe of a "commercial Monroe Doctrine" against invasion by American merchandise is the latest suggestion, anent the American peril. We suppose the Hungarian Premier, in making this suggestion on Thursday to his Parliament, was inspired by indignation at America's growing exports to countries which have heretofore been Europe's particular commercial preserves. Introduction of an "American system" of low-price necessaries of life would presumably be pronounced intolerable, under the plan suggested. Europe, if the analogy were pursued, should warn the United States of its purpose to resist, by every means in its power, as a wilful aggression upon its rights and interests, all further expansion of American trade in such directions. But what would happen next? The Hungarian Premier appeared to have some misgiving on that point. Each of the European nations, too, he admitted, is fighting against the commercial interests of the others. What would be the use of a "commercial Monroe Doctrine," applied by Austria, for instance, against the United States, if Germany were straightway to rush into places left vacant by the retreating American manufacturer, and Austria were to be shut out precisely as before? We fear M. de Szell has been led astray by an alluring metaphor.

The truth is, the body of Europe's plaint lies undoubtedly against cheap merchandise in itself, and the interest of the situation is increased by the fact that these indignant statesmen are using against us the very protests employed by ourselves against them, only a decade ago. At present it is not our ox which is being gored; but if the average protectionist oracle had a sense of humor, he could not fail to enjoy the joke, even at his own expense. In the calendar year 1901 our merchants forced unhappy Europe to buy a million dollars more in wearing apparel than it took from us in 1899. Who cannot see beneath these cheap coats the cheap man that a protectionist Administration dreaded in 1888? We do not know that the ethical side of the campaign against American merchandise has yet been fully grasped by the foreign politician. The "British gold" argument, which did glorious service here in its time, has been used, with proper change of garments, by the foreigners, and American gold has been denounced and defied as it no doubt deserved. But the attack on cheapness itself was the more brilliant move of our own protectionists. Europe will find abundant material for the purpose in such standard works as the Home Market Club's occasional publications and the Republican campaign text-books of 1888 and 1892. It need only change the name of the hated adversary, corruptor, and oppressor from England to America.

If Lord Rosebery thought that his repudiation of Irish Home Rule would bring over to his standard the Liberal Unionists, he has already had a rude awakening. They are perfectly willing that he should come to them; they have not the slightest idea of going to him. This was made clear by the Duke of Devonshire's speech on Thursday. The case was forcibly put by the Duke of Leeds, immediately after Lord Rosebery's Liverpool speech in which he "wiped Home Rule off the slate." What did this show? Why, simply that Rosebery had taken sixteen years to discover what the Liberal Unionists perceived at once! "We know," said the Duke of Leeds, "that there is more joy over one sinner that repenteth, etc., but surely the ninety-and-nine did not immediately appoint their erring brother to be the one man to guide their destinies."

FINDING OUT HOW IT IS OURSELVES.

Mr. James Bryce, in the course of a letter to the *Nation* in 1881, made a striking prediction which is now in process of fulfilment as striking. He was writing of Gladstone's policy of moderation towards the Boers, after Majuba, and of the fact that it could be carried out only as a moral obligation; and he said that a "painful lesson" of those South African complications was "the extreme difficulty which any state, and especially a free state, where power changes hands from one party to another, finds in governing distant dependencies." With the prescient forecast of the true philosophic temper, he added: "This lesson may become significant to you *should the policy of annexation be ever resumed by the United States.*" And then he remarked, in the guise of moralist and historian combined: "We are beginning to judge the behavior of the Russians in Turkestan and of the French in Algeria—even, perhaps, the darker misdeeds of the Spanish conquerors of America—more leniently when we perceive from our own experience how hard it is to govern justly colonies of mixed population, even with the help of steam and the telegraph."

The past four years have made this a very sure word of prophecy for the United States. Our old easy condemnation of the blunders of other nations has expired on our lips as we have successively fallen into the same pitfalls. The vices of Spanish colonial policy which we used to hate on sight, we have, when seen too oft, grown unpleasantly familiar with, and have first endured, then pitied, then embraced. To exploit a dependency in the selfish interest of the home country; to ignore the urgent recommendations of our own governors of distant islands, and to shut our ears to the bitter cry of the natives whom we tax without representation—that policy, from being the object of our Fourth of July denunciations, has too nearly become an axiom of government with us. No more curious reversal of a nation's historic judgments was ever seen. To lift horrified cries against Gen. Weyler, only to have our own army officers admit a little later that "he knew his business"; and then to pay Spanish colonial methods the sincere compliment of imitation—truly we are bound, as Mr. Bryce said, to judge "more leniently" the nations which we rashly condemned before we found out how it is ourselves.

It is not necessary to do more than suggest the details. The present argument of the protectionists in Congress, who would squeeze the juice out of Cuba and the Philippines like an orange, and then fling the pulp away, declares its own origin. "Made in Spain," is stamped all over it. It is simply the old idea of the *Conquistadores*, to bleed the colony for the sake of the *metrópoli*. No grandee of Spain ever demanded in Madrid a right to a monopoly of colonial trade with greater insolence or a more hateful disregard of the interests of the colonists than the beet-sugar magnates have shown at Washington in their cool assertion that the sole duty of Congress is to legislate for the advantage of "our own people," and let the Cubans and Filipinos stew in their own fat.

Another graceful tribute to the more excellent way of Spain are we paying in our cynical disregard of the advice of our own colonial Governors. The Spanish Government was not without warnings from its local administrators. From Las Casas to Polavieja, it had men in its dependencies of intelligence enough and humanity enough to urge a policy of commercial justice and of consideration for the native. But selfish interests in the Peninsula usually were able to override all such recommendations. And our selfish interests are working for the same end. Congress passes a tariff bill for the Philippines in calm disregard of Gov. Taft's urgent advice. It stands facing both ways, as respects Cuba, though Gen. Wood is telegraphing that our indifference and delay are working havoc with the interests of the people under his rule. The Cortes of Spain ought to send Speaker Henderson and Chairman Payne a special vote of thanks for their delicate flattery in following its old and vicious example.

The disgraceful hesitation of Congress in coming to the relief of Cuba is all the more unaccountable in view of the fact that our Representatives have in Porto Rico a living object-lesson of what wise and healing legislation can accomplish. Healthy conditions of trade and industry are, after all, the main end of government. Oppressive taxation and strangled commerce are at the bottom of most revolutions; and the surest road to peace and contentment is to give trade a chance to expand freely. This has been done in Porto Rico, and the result is to remove that island from our list of vexed questions. Enabling the inhabitants to stand on their own feet has taken them off our corns. Impartial testimony to the present prosperity of Porto Rico is found in a recent issue of the Paris trade organ, the *Journal des Fabricants de Sucre.* It states that the situation of the island is greatly improved; that the sugar crop will reach 100,000 tons; that more money is in circulation; that new railroads and sugar factories are in course of construction, and that the development of Porto Rico is rapidly going on. And all is due to what? To "the establishment of free trade with the United States."

There stands the pertinent example for our timid and vacillating legislators at Washington. Like disease, like remedy. Do they not remember how the fight for justice towards Porto Rico was won? In that case, too, selfishness and cowardice swayed Congress at first. It took the pressure of an indignant public opinion to force it to the final act, whose happy consequences we now see. Why go through the same wearisome process with Cuba? Why be more stupid than the Spanish proverb says no man can be, and break our leg twice over the same stone? In the end, justice will be done. Eventually, as all admit, Cuban products must be given an entry into our market. The danger is that, while the House shivers on the brink, and fears to launch away, we shall poison Cuban public opinion, provoke those labor troubles in the island which Gen. Wood says he is afraid will soon break out, and make our abandonment of Spanish folly, which is bound to come at last, so slow and grudging as to rob it of all its grace and half of its conciliating effect.

ABOLITION OF SUGAR BOUNTIES.

It appears certain that the international sugar conference has agreed to abolish all bounties, direct and indirect, and to reduce the customs surtax to a rate at which the so-called *Cartel*, or Sugar Trust, of Germany cannot exist. The execution of this agreement will be placed under international control, but it will not go into effect till September, 1903. It is reasonably clear that this decision was hastened by intimations from the British Government that, unless the bounties on exportation were abolished, a countervailing duty would be imposed upon the bounty-fed product. Such a duty levied in Great Britain would take the entire profit out of the exports from the Continent.

Hitherto Great Britain has refused to take this step. Her consumers have enjoyed a free breakfast-table at the expense of the Continental taxpayers, and British manufacturers of preserves, jams, marmalade, and confectionery have been able to distance competition by the help of the same generous donors. It is not the custom of the British public to fear Germans when bearing gifts, but the wail of the West Indian colonies has at last touched the heart of the mother country. The sugar-growers of the Lesser Antilles and of British Guiana have suffered from the competition of the bounty-fed product of Europe till they are at the last gasp. They must either adopt some other means of earning a living, or the competition in sugar-growing must be put upon the normal basis. If, as is supposed, Great Britain intimated her purpose to adopt countervailing duties, she did so in pity for her West Indian colonists.

The German Government, too, will be glad to be rid of the bounties, which

have been a sore burden to the budget, but which could not be thrown off while other countries continued to pay them. If the sugar bounty were a new contrivance in the world, nobody would expect such a thing, any more than a bounty for shoemaking, or tailoring, or plumbing. But it started without design, and grew by slow degrees, until it became too strong for even the Government to control. It began half a century or more ago. The Government imposed a revenue tax on beets of so much per ton, and then quite properly allowed a drawback on that portion of the sugar which was exported to foreign countries. The drawback was computed on a certain rate of yield from a ton of beets, so that, if a manufacturer should buy one thousand tons of beets and export his entire product of sugar, the amount of his tax and of his drawback would be equal. But if, in the course of time, he should learn how to get double the quantity of sugar out of each ton of beets, then his drawback would be double the amount of the tax, and one-half of it would be a bounty on exportation.

It was in exactly this way that the bounty lifted its hydra head in the sugar trade of the world. If there had never been an internal tax on beet roots, or if the Government had advanced the tax in proportion as the yield of sugar increased, there never would have been any bounty on exportation. But the Government did not do so. The sugar-makers either had a "pull" which prevented an increase of the tax *pari passu* with the increasing yield of the beet, or, as is more likely, they persuaded the Government that it would be a great and glorious thing to make Germany the centre of the sugar trade of the world, as they have, in fact, done. The situation in which the sugar trade of Germany now finds itself is that of a hot-house industry, which is about to have its artificial shelter taken away, and to be exposed to the competition which was necessary to its health, and which it ought always to have met.

Statistics of the German sugar trade for 1901 show that the 395 sugar factories of the Empire produced 1,979,118 tons of raw sugar, and the 47 refineries turned out 1,033,446 tons of refined. All this, of course, was made from beets, now grown on about 1,100,000 acres of farm land. The total output was some 200,000 tons greater than in 1900, and the burden of the bounties correspondingly heavier. Yet domestic consumption actually fell off, showing how true it is that, as Professor Sumner has said, the bounty system works so that Germany has the manufacture, but other countries have the sugar. It appears to be the case that the more sugar Germany produces, the less she has to eat. While the total product increased 200,000 tons in 1901, the home consumption diminished by 78,000 tons.

What effect the abolition of bounties will have upon the world's price of sugar it is too soon to say. We observe that Mr. Oxnard jumps at once to the conclusion that the price will be restored to its 1899 level, and that, therefore, it is not necessary to reduce the tariff on Cuban sugar. He is said to have rushed to the White House on Saturday to lay this important truth before the President. But to this there are three things to say: (1) The abolition of bounties will not take place, if at all, till next year, and it is this year that starving Cuba is appealing for relief; (2) in any case, the German surplus overhanging the market is too great to admit of any speedy rise in price; and (3) if the price does go back to that of 1899, it will be just at the figure which led Mr. Oxnard to assert that American beet-sugar manufacturers could make money even if there were free trade with Cuba. We should therefore advise him to say nothing whatever about the abolition of sugar bounties. It will not give to the Cubans that relief for which they look to us alone, and which it is our solemn duty to grant.

THINKING IN HUNDRED MILLIONS.

The jests of a nation are often more significant of its intellectual and moral standards than formal treatises; and in the current witticisms about present-day notions of wealth in America we get a very real and vivid glimpse of what is essentially a new habit of thought. "It's hard on Algy! His father cut him off with only five millions." Poor Richard's Almanac brought down to date would read, "Take care of the millions, and the billions will take care of themselves." We have, in fact, insensibly adopted a new mental arithmetic in all matters of large finance, private or public. We think in nine figures. A hundred millions has become a sort of unit of measurement. Anything below that is a negligible quantity. When you get above it, we say, "Now you're talking!" We take the highest estimates of our fathers—their greatest fortunes, their largest capitals in banking or commerce, their most extravagant governmental expenditures—and sit down quickly to multiply them by 100. Instead of the almighty dollar we have made it the almighty $100,000,000.

Already we have grown so accustomed to the easy tossing about of huge capitalizations that the eye is not caught by a new incorporation unless it glares with a whole row of naughts and dollar-marks. Mere millions no longer attract notice—we hope you don't think we are in the retail business! The Steel Corporation, with its daring leap above $1,000,000,000 capitalization, not only frightened Europe, but permanently affected the American imagination. We have been transported into a large and lavish Asiatic atmosphere. The wealth of Ormus and of Ind is no longer too bright and good for our financial nature's daily food. We revel in the possibilities of wealth beyond the dreams of avarice, and have come to make Col. Sellers, with his beggarly millions, look like a mere curbstone operator. This new temper makes us credulous, it cannot be denied, and perhaps just a bit gullible. Promoters know that they will never seem so plausible as when they soar above the hundred-million mark. To talk confidently about floating $150,000,000 in new securities seems of itself almost to make the bonds gilt-edged. Such great capital must argue vast profits in sight! That dispatch the other day from North Dakota, quietly recording the chartering of a company with unknown directors and for unnamed purposes, with capital stock to the tune of $900,000,000, one hardly knew whether to take in jest or earnest. We have been so dazzled by big figures that we are astonished at the moderation of incorporators who let a little thing like $100,000,000 keep them from breaking the record.

One curious thing about this craze for immense capitalization is that it is defended and urged in the name of "economy." Thus, Mr. Schwab, on his return from Monte Carlo, grew almost dithyrambic in his praise of great combinations, precisely for the reason that they were so "economical." To a saving and thrifty New Englander of the old school, this would sound very like a contradiction in terms. It would seem like taking the most costly house in town in order to cut down your bills for fuel and servants. "In order to practise the strictest economy," Mr. Schwab appears to say, "let us neglect everything below $100,000,000." We are aware, of course, that he does not mean this, and have no doubt that there is a substantial argument for business consolidations in the economies, both of production and distribution, which they may effect. And we are also perfectly aware of the fact that it is only too possible for such a great combination as Mr. Schwab has in mind to exhaust its economies many times over in extravagant salaries, swollen fees, and especially in watered and wasted capital. But that is not to the present purpose. What we wish to ask is, how these two conceptions of enormous wealth and minute economy are going to be harmonized in the general mind. How does the thing work in private business? How does it affect the conduct of public affairs?

Every one knows what the instinctive feeling would be. Think of a rich man guilty of cheeseparing! Imagine a nation with overflowing coffers saying anything but "Hang the expense!" We know that, as a matter of fact, the consciousness of a plethora does not in-

duce parsimony. Walter Bagehot long ago laid down the general principle which governs public assemblies in these matters. "If you want to raise a certain cheer in the House of Commons, make a general panegyric on economy; if you want to invite a sure defeat, propose a particular saving." And what we say is, that the habit of thinking in hundred millions necessarily strengthens this native tendency to squander the public money. The careful scrutiny of details, the cruel analysis of a fair round estimate of, say, $10,000,000, into its constituent items, each of which can be cut so as to make the total required only $7,500,000—this sort of economical statesmanship inevitably passes into discredit and out of vogue when the scale of national revenue and of national outlay becomes so vast that to argue for petty saving, here and there, sounds like a Rothschild proposing to scrape up candle-ends for remelting. With such gorgeous Oriental notions of a fairyland of inexhaustible riches, we necessarily lose something of the old stern watch over expenditure and the unrelenting hostility to waste, while we are less and less disposed to provide betimes for the day when

> "——prosperity begins to mellow
> And drop into the rotten mouth of death."

Such being the extravagant tendency of our public finance, we ought to give all the more credit to the few resolute economists, like Gov. Odell and Gov. Crane and Congressman Cannon, who have not fallen victims to the glamour of the hundred-million fallacy. They have as keen an eye as Ricardo was said to have for the "commerce of the imperceptibles." A minute saving per man per day swells into a comforting total by the end of the year, and is as well worthy of being capitalized boastfully as any bubble company of them all. This, and the great truth that profit depends eventually upon the narrowest fraction of advantage over a competitor, are the essentials of that business management which alone, in the long run, is successful, and which, we fear, our recently acquired habit of thinking and talking in hundred millions tends to obscure and degrade in the public mind.

A CITY IN FLUX.

There is something of a parable in the present condition of New York, gashed by the subway trenches, pitted with excavations for new buildings, and littered with the débris of the old. That the parts of the city where business and pleasure are at their fiercest are torn down and rebuilt every few years is a commonplace of comment; but the fact that socially as well the city has refused to settle down has not been so frequently remarked. The sign of an established and durable social order in a city is the presence of clearly defined neighborhoods, where people of common tastes and similar resources find near at hand their natural associates and all those things which chiefly minister to the pleasures of life.

Now it is doubtful if any great number of New Yorkers, except those whom poverty or foreign origin has herded together, are in any such fortunate situation. You will find an Italian, a Chinese, a Hungarian quarter, but where will you find an aristocratic, an artistic, or a university quarter? In this, New York is unlike other great cities. In Paris, learning clings to the neighborhood of the schools, blood to the Faubourg St.-Germain, money to the vicinity of the Arc de l'Étoile, Bohemianism to the Butte of Montmartre, while art is grouped about one or the other of these centres. With us none of these things are as yet settled. The considerable inconveniences of a society in a state of flux need not be dwelt upon. Material disadvantages first present themselves—the time spent in coming and going; one's family physician almost as far away as Sheridan at Winchester; one's clergyman so remote that the pastoral relation is necessarily intermittent, or completely broken; one's favorite recreations miles from his residence, and his office leagues from either—this is the common lot of the well-to-do New Yorker.

All these things are and should be faced with fortitude. Even a home-keeping soul can learn to move, and to see friends move, with equanimity; and a stoical philosopher can persuade himself that the daily elbowings of the throng and daily torsion on a car strap are among "those things which do not concern a man," and hence are indifferent. It is not so easy to accept a condition which, while it renders even the casual contacts of society difficult, restricts even more the possibilities of intimacy. For, after all, a chief pleasure of life is to be so situated that you can get at the people whom you like. It is upon this desire that social neighborhoods are built. The quite forgotten poet, Shenstone, expresses this ideal of a community very entertainingly in one of his letters:

> "Had I a fortune of about eight or ten thousand pounds a year, I would, methinks, make myself a neighborhood. I would first build a village with a church, and people it with inhabitants of some branch of trade that was suitable to the country round. I would then, at proper distances, erect a number of genteel boxes of about a thousand pounds apiece, and amuse myself with giving them all the advantages they could receive from taste. These would I people with a select number of well-chosen friends, assigning to each annually the sum of two hundred pounds for life. The salary would be irrevocable, in order to give them independency. The house, of a more precarious tenure, that, in cases of ingratitude, I might introduce another inhabitant."

This prevision of the numerous suburban "parks" and clubs of to-day was never actually realized. It might conceivably have proved less delightful than Shenstone anticipated; such exclusive settlements often disappoint the ideals of their promoters. But this fancy of Shenstone's represents very faithfully an ideal of social life which is as valid for metropolitan as for rural conditions—an ideal of neighborliness which fares but badly in a city that has as yet found itself only on the side of its business activities. There is an evident incongruity in the fact that a city which supplies more generously than any other of the New World the expensive and difficult means of culture, should fall behind in those simpler conditions of culture—ease of social intercourse, and ready interchange of its best opinions and tastes.

The sense of this lack is expressed in perennial rumors that this, that, or the other woman of ability is about to start a salon. But a salon is never started, it grows; and it grows not wholly by reason of community of ideas, but also because its members are in some kind of frequent association which is an expression of the neighborhood idea; and until we have clearly defined neighborhoods, we do well to withhold our trust from coteries prematurely compelled into being. Heroic measures of a more individual sort have been proposed. "Cultivate your immediate vicinage," some say; "cut off rigorously all social relations which by reason of distance cannot judiciously be maintained." But this course requires more of the Spartan than there is in many of us, and it is fair to say that before a doctrinaire New Yorker of this stamp had gained his circle of friends within his one-mile or two-mile radius, most of those whom he most cherished would be scores of blocks away, with parks, if not rivers, between, and he himself stranded in that splendid isolation which Mr. Chamberlain and others profess to admire, but which no one really finds tolerable.

Readjustment and the formation of neighborhoods are in fact hardly practicable until business shall have worked its will upon this sorely entreated town. *Place aux affaires* is, confessedly or not, the motto of all of us, even of the most gallant. When business has staked out its claims—and this process is nearly finished—in the remaining portions of the city, people of like tastes and pursuits will gradually find each other, and seek the advantages of propinquity. What the final distribution will be it is impossible to predict—though Columbia University is clearly the centre for the academic quarter of the future—and matter of idle curiosity only; for few of us will be here to see the city shaped by a more humane idea than that of business. Meanwhile there is entertainment, if not much comfort, in the spectacle of a city in flux. In all the centuries so good an example has rarely occurred. No civilized society has, we believe, had so drastic a mixing; so that the well-to-

do classes of New York to-day are a singularly fascinating subject of speculation for the social philosopher. Finally, we are measurably sure at least of that immortality which appertains to transition types, and the cultivated New Zealander who excavates our sites and deciphers our records will, centuries hence, class us reverently with pithecoid man and the four-toed horse.

THE IRREPRESSIBLE CONFLICT IN THE EAST.

OBERLIN, February 24, 1902.

Sufficient attention does not seem to be given to the natural forces at work producing unrest in the Far East, and leading in the near future to an inevitable conflict which will mark one of the great epochs in human history. The forces bringing Russia, China, and Japan into conflict are neither superficial nor temporary, but deep-seated and permanent. They have at their foundation the Malthusian law that population naturally tends to increase faster than the means of sustenance. Of Japan's 146,000 square miles of territory scarcely more than one-tenth is capable of cultivation, the rest being so mountainous that even Japanese skill and industry have been unable to make it productive. The population, therefore, swarms about the margin of the island in numbers that seem almost incredible. Already on the average, if we except the comparatively inhospitable northern island, there are more than 2,000 people for every square mile of arable land in the kingdom. Nor is the population stationary, but the census shows that it is increasing at the rate of more than 500,000 annually. Ten years ago it was 38,000,000; at the present time, excluding the 3,000,000 annexed in Formosa, it is upwards of 43,000,000.

This rapid increase of population is partly the result of the progress of the kingdom in the application of sanitary arrangements and medical skill tending to reduce the death-rate, while the social customs controlling the birth-rate remain unchanged. The effect of science in diminishing contagious diseases and in reducing the death-rate among children is everywhere marked. At the same time the practical abolition of infanticide contributes to the same end. In all the ameliorating conditions every one must rejoice; but when these are coupled with the old-time lack of self-control leading to universal early marriages, a problem is rolling up before which Japanese statesmen are appalled. At the present rate of increase there will, before the middle of this century, be a hundred million people to provide for. It is this prospect which is leading Japanese statesmen to make such frantic efforts to secure opportunity for colonization. Being practically shut off from going to other foreign countries, and Formosa being already largely occupied, Japan would naturally look to Corea and Mantchuria; but of these places Corea would afford only partial relief, both because of its limited area and of its present population. The northern province of Mantchuria, however, is still almost as much in a state of nature as were the prairies of the Mississippi valley when the Indians roamed freely over them.

But, by the operation of equally irresistible natural forces, Russia and China are in the way of Japan's continental expansion. In Mantchuria, the very country which Japan needs, we have the spectacle so noted in mechanics, of an irresistible meeting an immovable object, for Russia's march towards the Pacific Ocean is the slow movement of the same deep-seated forces which are disturbing Japan. The Slavic race is increasing at the rate of nearly 2,000,000 a year. In 1859 the population of the Russian empire was only 74,000,000; in 1900 it was 135,000,000. The opening up of Siberia by the introduction of steam navigation, and later by the construction of the great Siberian Railroad, has drawn population eastward in the Russian empire very much as the same forces have operated to draw it westward in the United States; so that now there are between 6,000,000 and 7,000,000 Russians, mostly peasants, in Siberia. Mantchuria is already surrounded upon three sides by these Russian colonists, who are looking upon the fertile fields across the Argun, the Amur, and Usuri, much as our settlers in the West a few years ago looked upon the unoccupied territory of the Dakotas and Oklahoma.

The conditions in Mantchuria are peculiar. The Mantchus proper were not given to agriculture, like the Chinese, but were, and are, largely nomadic. The conquering of China, so far from changing their nature, rather intensified their characteristics, and they have since been subject to the deterioration which naturally takes place in a conquering race. The most enterprising members have been drawn into China to serve as military guards throughout the empire, and their descendants are everywhere partially supported by pensions just sufficient to demoralize them. The "Tartar" portions of the Chinese cities consist of these unenterprising and semi-dependent people, who are anything but an addition to the productive forces of the empire. Meanwhile, the Chinese, with their frugal and industrious habits, have been spreading into Mantchuria until the southern half of the territory is already densely populated by agriculturists of Chinese origin.

The main reason why the Chinese have not thus taken quiet possession of the whole of Mantchuria is the unsettled political conditions. From time immemorial, robber bands have had free range throughout Mantchuria, the Chinese Government being too weak to suppress them, so that practically the only security to commerce in Southern Mantchuria has been obtained by the authority of a "robber trust." The robber bands became so numerous that they were driving all commerce from the lines of traffic, and so were killing the goose that laid the golden egg. To such an extent were the robbers overdoing the matter that, in self-defence, the larger bands were organized to protect traffic from the depredations of the smaller bands, and then formed themselves into something analogous to an insurance company. It is a common thing in Mantchuria to see the little flag of what was formerly a mere band of robbers, flying over a loaded team as a badge of the protection which this now respectable organization has graciously extended to the merchants for a stated sum of money. Over the central and northern parts of Mantchuria, however, the beneficent influence of these organizations has not yet extended, so that there has been little inducement to fill it up with a settled farming population. As a result, this population has scarcely passed beyond the watershed of the Lao River, leaving the vast basin of the Sungari (which is comparable with that of the Ohio) pretty largely in the state of nature, and this is the region most coveted by the three nations whose interests now clash along its border.

In the natural progress of events, Russia has a decided advantage over the other contestants. The free navigation of the Amur and Usuri Rivers was something of a step in advance for Russian interests, but the building of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, which, from one end to the other, goes through the very centre of the region, direct from Kaidalova to Vladivostok, and which bisects the southern half from Harbin to Newchwang and Port Arthur, gives Russia a vantage-ground from which she cannot be dislodged by any attacks upon the maritime border. The relation of Russia to this region is not very different from that which fifty years ago it sustained to the region north of the Amur, and, indeed, which the United States sustained at one time to the unoccupied lands upon the border of Mexico. In 1855 Muravieff might well have claimed the Amur valley by right of discovery, so little was the country occupied by a settled population and so little was known about it. If now Russia should retain possession of northern Mantchuria, it would not be to drive a settled population out, but to open it for the first time to the industries of a regularly organized government. But even then it would still be a question whether the country would fill up with Slavs or with Chinamen, for, in a fair competition, or, indeed, with any sort of a chance, the frugal, industrious, hardy Chinese laborer is more than a match for the easy-going, improvident Russian peasant, while the Chinese possess an advantage in their vast numbers and in their proximity which cannot easily be overcome.

Four hundred millions of people already adjusted to a civilization which has endured for centuries, and with social customs which secure an abnormally high birth-rate, present an immovable obstruction to Russian colonization. The Chinese will conquer by their very numbers. It is impossible to dislodge them from the field they already cover, while they are spreading out like a rising tide over all the surrounding region. All along the Mongolian border, beyond the outer Great Wall, Chinese farmers are covering the country with their cultivated fields, substituting in this region oatmeal for rice as the staple staff of life, while around the Russian settlements in the vicinity of the Amur it is they who are depended upon to supply the cities and mining camps with agricultural products.

In China, also, as in Japan, contact with Western civilization and the establishment of Western standards of morality are likely to stimulate the growth of population. In China, as in Japan, marriage at the very earliest possible age is the inevitable result of the whole social organization. The population is kept within the means of subsistence by a high death-rate among the children due to unsanitary conditions, to the universal prevalence of smallpox, and to infanticide, while famine and pestilence every once in a few years sweep off the people by millions. An impressive index of the extent of infanticide I encountered two

years ago at Shiwantse, the centre of the Catholic missions in Mongolia, the former residence of the celebrated Abbé Huc. Here, in this out-of-the-way place in the country, far away from any city, were 400 Chinese girls in the Catholic mission school, and they were as interesting and attractive a body as could be found anywhere in any country; but we were told by the self-denying Belgian missionaries who had consecrated their lives to the work, that all these girls had as infants been exposed by their parents to death, from which they had been rescued and brought to the interesting state of development in which we saw them.

It requires but little reflection upon the facts here presented to impress one with the exceeding gravity of the problems confronting the statesmen of Russia, China, and Japan in the adjustment of their mutual relations upon the Pacific Coast. I do not know that any one has wisdom enough to say just what is best to be done. But whatever the temporary settlements may be, no permanent solution can take place that does not secure a radical modification of the social customs and the individual aims of the teeming populations of China and Japan now being permeated so rapidly by Western ideas. Western nations themselves can have little direct influence in determining the result. The alliance of England with Japan is of only passing significance.

G. Frederick Wright.

CARDINAL DUBOIS.

Paris, February 15, 1902.

It must be a subject of astonishment to see a Jesuit father, the Rev. P. Billard, put forth, in two octavo volumes, an apologia of the famous Cardinal Dubois, the minister of the Regent of Orleans. The name of Dubois is one that history has not spared, and has treated with the greatest severity. It is quite true that Father Billard does not attempt, in his 'Dubois Cardinal et Premier Ministre (1656-1723),' to rehabilitate Dubois, and to dispel all the accusations which have contrived to make his name synonymous with vice and corruption. He deals chiefly with Dubois as a statesman, a minister, and seeks to prove that, as such, he deserves more consideration than is generally paid him. The memory of Dubois has suffered much down to the present time from the judgment passed on him by Saint-Simon. The illustrious author of the 'Memoirs' hated Dubois with a perfect hatred; he could not forgive him for having risen so high from the lowest estate; he saw in the first minister an upstart, who had obtained, by his base intrigues, credit and influence which, in his opinion, belonged by right only to the princes of the blood and to the dukes and peers of the realm. His judgment was biassed in the case of Dubois as it was in the case of Colbert, in the case of Louvois.

Dubois was born in 1656 at Brive-la-Gaillarde, where his father was, some say, a doctor, others an apothecary. He got his early education at the establishment of the Doctrinaires at Brive, and finished in Paris at the Collège Saint-Michel. He remained in the capital, and made a living by giving lessons. His good fortune would have it that, after ten years spent in this way, he was appointed under-preceptor to the Duke de Chartres, the nephew of Louis XIV. He ingratiated himself with his pupil by his *esprit* and his manners, and, when the preceptor died, was appointed in his place. He secured for himself a permanent position in the Palais Royal.

Dubois used his influence with his pupil to make him consent to marry Mlle. de Blois, the illegitimate daughter of Louis XIV., a marriage which gave so much offence to the Princess Palatine, mother of the Duke d'Orléans. Dubois (who was commonly called the Abbé Dubois, though he was only tonsured and had no real ecclesiastical character) was, in the words of Saint-Simon,

"a thin little man, with a blond perruque, the expression of a ferret, a bright physiognomy, who was, to the full, what in bad French is called a *sacre*, which can hardly be expressed otherwise. All the vices strove in him for preëminence, and made a perpetual hubbub among themselves. Avarice, debauchery, ambition were his gods; perfidy, flattery, servility were his means; he rested in complete impiety and in the opinion that probity and honesty are chimeras — mere rags, which have no reality. To him all instrumentalities were good. He excelled in base intrigues, he lived in them, he could not do without them."

So Saint-Simon continues for pages, with his profuse and picturesque eloquence. He explains with equal eloquence how Dubois made himself master of the Duke of Orleans. "I confess," he says, "with bitterness, for everything must be sacrificed to the truth, the Duke d'Orléans brought into the world a yielding disposition (let us call things by their right names), a weakness, which constantly spoiled all his talents, and which was of marvellous use to his tutor during his whole life."

Having lost all hope on the side of the King, who would not even hear of Dubois being made a Cardinal, the Abbé thought only of flattering his young master. He led him into a life of pleasure, he amused him, he cultivated all his tastes, all his natural defects, his love of ease and of light conversation, his skepticism with regard to men and women alike. There is, in Father Billard's opinion, much exaggeration in Saint-Simon's accusations against Dubois. He does not believe that Dubois systematically corrupted his pupil; it is enough to know that he took no interest in his moral education, and merely thought of gaining personal advantage from his defects.

The political life of Dubois began when the Duke d'Orléans became Regent. The young King was in delicate health, and the Regent's enemies spread many rumors, which found expression in a famous pamphlet in verse, "Les Philippiques," by Lagrange-Chancel. The governor of the young King took the most jealous care of him, as if he himself suspected that the child's life was threatened. The Duke d'Anjou, who had become King of Spain under the name of Philip V., expected daily to hear of the death of Louis XV., and, notwithstanding the solemn renunciations of Utrecht, made little mystery of his intentions, and prepared to claim the throne of France. The rights of the Duke d'Orléans were threatened by these projects, which were constantly fostered by the ambition of his wife, who had absolute power over his mind. Dubois and the Regent looked for alliances against Spain, in view of certain eventualities. The Regent was very intelligent. He had a great leaning towards England. Dubois spent some time in England in 1698, and entered into relations with some of its political men. The Stuarts were the great stumbling-block for any *rapprochement* between France and England, as Louis XIV. had espoused their cause with great magnanimity, and had never abandoned them. The Regent understood that the cause of the Stuarts had become hopeless; he, however, took great precautions before declaring a new policy. He sent Dubois first, incognito, to The Hague, afterwards to Amsterdam; finally Dubois went to England, and there was signed the famous Treaty of Hanover, or the "Triple Alliance," which confirmed the stipulations that deprived Philip V. of all claim on the throne of France, and sanctioned the rights of succession of the House of Orleans. The Regent was obliged to sacrifice the Pretender and to expel him from France, as well as to destroy the works which had been begun for the creation of a port at Mardick, near Dunkirk.

The treaty negotiated by Dubois was exceedingly unpopular in France. An alliance with England, a country viewed as an hereditary enemy, a Protestant country, seemed to be a complete rupture with the traditional policy of France. People forgot all the incidents of the long struggle of France against the ambition of Spain, and did not know what dangers France incurred in consequence of the inordinate and mad ambitions of Philip V.; they did not understand that Dubois was acting the part of a real statesman, and contented themselves with saying that he had been bought by the English Government. When the character of the Spanish policy became more inimical to France and more provoking, Dubois returned to England; this time he made the journey quite officially, and negotiated the treaty of the Quadruple Alliance, between France, Holland, England, and Austria. From this time he became the real inspirer of the French policy. The post of Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs was reëstablished for him. His ties with England were such that he thanked the King of England for his promotion, writing these lines, which were significant enough: "If I followed only the impulse of my gratitude, and was not kept back by respect, I should take the liberty to write to his Britannic Majesty to thank him for the place with which Monseigneur the Regent has gratified me."

Madame, on the day when her son became Regent, asked him never to employ "ce coquin de Dubois"; and it was not till Dubois was sixty years old that he became Under-Secretary of State. He had become the master of his master. It cannot be denied that he was intelligent. "All the work of his diplomacy," says Michelet, "the purpose of his treaties of the Triple and Quadruple Alliances, was to exclude the candidates of Rome—the Pretender and the Spaniard—from the thrones of France and of England; it was to affirm or to found the Protestant dynasty and the *libertine* dynasty—the House of Hanover, the House of Orléans." He meant, however, to become a Cardinal like Mazarin; so he first asked for the Archbishopric of Cambrai, which the Regent did not dare to refuse him. Cardinal Noailles, Archbishop of Paris, was bold enough to refuse Dubois permission to receive holy orders in his

diocese. Dubois found a more willing instrument in the Archbishop of Rouen, and was ordained at Pontoise. The ceremony of the enthronization took place with great pomp at the Church of the Val-de-Grâce, in the presence of the Regent and of all the courts. One of the priests present at the ceremony was the famous preacher Massillon, who ranks, with Bossuet and Bourdaloue, among the greatest preachers of the Catholic Church. Saint-Simon tells us that "Massillon, driven to the wall, without help, felt the indignity of what was proposed to him, stammered, did not dare to refuse. But what could a man so unimportant, after the fashion of the age, have done against the Regent, his Minister, and the Cardinal de Rohan? . . . The most reasonable, who were in great numbers, contented themselves with pitying him, and it was agreed rather generally that it was in a way impossible for him to avoid the task and to refuse."

As soon as he found himself a Bishop, Dubois began to work for a Cardinal's hat. It would not be very interesting to follow him in all his intrigues. He made all sorts of promises to the Court of Rome, which he did not intend to keep. Clement XI. made him wait some time, but he was among the first cardinals created by Innocent XIII. He could now walk in the footsteps of Richelieu and Mazarin. He was declared Prime Minister in August, 1722, and, when Louis XV. attained his majority, confirmed as such. It is hardly necessary to say that he was elected a member of the French Academy. He did not enjoy all his honors, and died after great suffering on the 10th of August, 1723.

Correspondence.

THE WAR WITH SPAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article, "The Preventable War with Spain," in the *Nation* of February 20, does the world a service. It should be read and pondered by every American citizen.

I confidently predict that, in the near future, thinking men will agree to call the butchery in the Philippines the greatest crime in history down to this time. But it began with the attack on Spain. The Anti-Imperialists began too late; they let the fire become a conflagration before they made a move to put on water. They should have got in their work in the early months of 1898. If the attack on Spain was not wrong, nothing was ever wrong; the moral law does not exist—let the grabbers grab, and the killers kill.

Nor did it need the concessions offered by Spain to make it unjustifiable. No attempt was ever made, and for a very good reason, to justify the proposed homicide by arguments addressed to the reason and conscience of mankind. The attempt to cure wrong by doing wrong, to punish murder by unlawfully killing men, can never be justified.

The "strange anomaly" to which you allude on page 141 is this, as I understand it: that, in the nation's direst need, a *man* was wanting in the Presidential office; that the logical leader of the forces willing to work for peace and civilization proved to be acephalous and invertebrate. As a contribution to the explanation of this tremendous phenomenon I offer the following: The fatal defect in Mr. McKinley's intellectual and moral make-up was the almost total lack of the love of truth. His whole career illustrates this. He was a protectionist because he cared nothing for truth. He was a silverling as long as silver was popular; when doubts arose, he became a straddle-bug; when the party leaders assured him that only yellow wings would carry him to the White House, he promptly became a gold bug. "He who finds what he wants or makes what he wants is a god," it has been said. What Mr. McKinley wanted, first, last, and all the time, was votes; and he got them, and they filled and satisfied his soul.

But lack of the love of truth involves, it would seem, incapacity to distinguish between truth and falsehood, and therefore between right and wrong. If I am correct, then Mr. McKinley chose the wrong in a tremendous crisis, not wilfully, but blindly, and became the chief architect of the moral ruin that has fallen upon the world, not because he deliberately aspired to that bad eminence, but because he never thought, and was unable to think, of anything but votes and how to get them.

It is holy Scripture that "God is not the author of confusion, but of peace"; but President McKinley, professing all the time to desire peace, flung away without knowing it the grandest opportunity ever offered to a man, and became the author, not of peace, but of confusion.

A. F. Hamilton.

SHARPLESS'S QUAKER EXPERIMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your notice of our new popular edition of President Sharpless's work, 'A Quaker Experiment in Government,' in your issue of February 27, is such a keen demonstration that reviewing is more than an empty form in your office, that we could almost find heart to join in the laugh on ourselves, and then subside. But your reviewer has amplified his discovery that we had used an old index into what is almost a charge of fraud. He says the redundant lines in the index "betray an extensive abridgment not acknowledged on the title-page." The facts are these: There has been no abridgment of the original work whatever; the one-volume edition is an exact reprint (barring a few corrections) of the two original volumes issued in 1899 and 1900. But about a year ago we amplified the original work into the Haverford Edition, a somewhat expensive subscription work, in which were added a preface and a concluding chapter, extraneous to the proper scope of the history, but of special interest to members of the Society of Friends (to whom, almost exclusively, this edition was sold). This is the matter that was omitted in the popular edition. The said edition was advertised repeatedly in your columns, and each time it was plainly stated that the special matter of the Haverford edition was *not* included. A "reviewer's inspiration" slip inserted in the review copy sent to you conveyed the same information. We submit, therefore, that we had made no pretence that the present edition was a reprint of the Haverford edition, and we do assert positively that it is a full reprint of the original edition. Under the circumstances the imputation of fraud is hardly borne out.—Yours very truly,

Ferris & Leach.

Philadelphia, February 28, 1902.

[Our words were not intended to charge fraud, but simply to state a fact, conditioned upon the index being that of the work which we originally reviewed, but which we no longer had at hand for comparison.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

In addition to many works of fiction by well-known writers, Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s spring list includes 'New France and New England,' by John Fiske, the last link in the chain of his historical series down to the adoption of the Constitution; 'Lee at Appomattox, and Other Papers,' by Charles Francis Adams; 'Charles Eliot,' a biography of this lamented landscape architect, with some exemplification of his art; 'The Life of John Ruskin,' by W. G. Collingwood; 'Daniel Webster,' by Samuel W. McCall; 'The Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic,' by Henry Austin Clapp; 'An American at Oxford,' by John Corbin; 'Molière,' by Leon H. Vincent; 'Nature and Human Nature,' by Ellen Russell Emerson; a revised edition of Professor Norton's prose translation of the Divine Comedy; a metrical translation of the first six books of Virgil's Æneid, by Harlan H. Ballard; 'The Argive Heræum,' edited by Dr. Charles Waldstein; 'Social Salvation,' by Washington Gladden; 'The Physiological Aspects of the Liquor Problem,' edited by Dr. J. S. Billings; 'A Guide to the Literature of American History,' by J. N. Learned; and the two concluding volumes (xii., xiv.) of Prof. C. S. Sargent's 'Silva of North America.'

Spring announcements of Henry Holt & Co. embrace Seignobos's 'Narrative and Critical History of the Roman People'; Prof. Auguste Fournier's 'Napoleon I.'; the second volume of Prof. J. P. Gordy's 'Political History of the United States'; Tarde's 'The Laws of Imitation,' translated by Mrs. Herbert Parsons, Ph.D.; 'Outlines of Ethics,' by Profs. John Dewey and J. M. Tufts; 'A Manual of Logic,' by Prof. Herbert A. Aikins; a volume of 'Standard English Prose,' by Henry S. Pancoast; 'Public Exposition and Argumentation,' by Prof. George P. Baker; 'Variations in Animals and Plants,' by Dr. H. M. Vernon; and, last but not least, if a real need is supplied, 'An Italian and English Dictionary,' by Prof. Hjalmar Erdgren, Dr. G. Bico, and J. L. Gerig.

A volume of short stories, 'In the Gates of Israel,' by Herman Bernstein, is in the press of J. F. Taylor & Co.

'Nestlings of Forest and Marsh,' by Irene Grosvenor Wheelock; 'Alabama Sketches,' by Dr. Samuel Minturn Peck; and Mary Cowden Clarke's correspondence with Robert Balmanno, 'Letters to an Enthusiast,' will soon be published by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

A popular volume, with illustrations, 'Practical Talks by an Astronomer,' by Prof. Harold Jacoby of Columbia, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Government Printing-Office in Paris

is engaged in the production of a work that will be a masterpiece of the printer's art, namely, 'L'Histoire de l'Imprimerie en France,' intended as a present to the Emperor of Russia. Copies are to be sent also to the King of Portugal and to the King of Belgium, both of whom have for years been in close relations with the Imprimerie Nationale. The first two volumes treat of the Paris publications of the fifteenth century, while the third, now in preparation, takes up those of Lyons for the same period; the fourth recurs to Paris in the sixteenth century, and the fifth and last of the series will cover the publications in the provinces during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

A further addition to the series "Our European Neighbors" (Putnams) is most welcome. In a volume of about two hundred and seventy pages, Mr. Alfred T. Story has collected his ample knowledge of 'Swiss Life in Town and Country.' The little republic is, in his eyes, not the playground of Europe, but one of the chosen homes of toil, thrift, and general earnestness of purpose. We do not know a single compact book on the same subject in which Swiss character in all its variety finds so sympathetic and yet thorough treatment; the reason of this being that the author has enjoyed privileges of unusual intimacy with all classes, which prevented his lumping the people as a whole without distinction of racial and cantonal feeling. He has perceived, for example, that, in French Switzerland alone, Genevese and Vaudois (not to mention their neighbors) are distinct types, though really of the same race, speech, and faith. In the chapter on public education, at least one paragraph should have given full credit to Swiss teachers not only for their intensity of application, but for the unusually high average of intellectual equipment in their professional training. The Swiss peasant, often slower of speech than the Frenchman, is nevertheless capable of writing a letter which testifies to the quality of methodically accurate teaching in the primary school.

From the press of Ch. Dunod, Paris, we have 'L'Achèvement du Canal de Panama,' by the engineer, C. Sonderbegger. It is a work which should be of great practical importance to our Government, if, as now seems probable, it decides to acquire the Panama property; for the author, out of an experience of eight years in actual work on the Panama route, describes and discusses in great detail the main problems which confront any contractor there—such as the climate and hygiene, rainfall, the most desirable class of laborers, and the whole question of methods of work, with all the workshops and machinery involved. M. Sonderbegger's final summing up is strongly favorable to the feasibility of the revised engineering plans.

The vexed question, worthy of an international commission, of "Transliteration from the Russian," was discussed in the *New Englander* last May by Mr. J. S. Sumner of Yale. It is largely a critique of the American Library Association's scheme. For the convenience of those interested, Mr. Sumner has had the article reprinted by itself, and it may be had for ten cents on application to the Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Press, New Haven. Well would it be if Russia were to enter the confraternity of Western nations by adopting the Roman alphabet. Her chosen system would then perforce be ours.

The newly published Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin catalogues in detail the art collection presented by Dr. and Mrs. Charles Kendall Adams, and records the creation of the Mary M. Adams Art Fund through the sale of Mrs. Adams's personal jewels (amounting to $3,850). It appears that the limitations in space of the fine new Library building are already beginning to be felt, and that the completion of the north wing will put off the evil day hardly more than a quarter of a century. The volume closes with brief papers on the foreign population of Wisconsin, and a chapter on Wisconsin's contributions to American inventions—most notable being C. Latham Sholes's typewriter, parent of the Remington.

The account by Major P. M. Sykes of his work in Eastern Persia, which forms the principal article in the *Geographical Journal* for February, is a remarkable illustration of what an intelligent and zealous consul can accomplish. His definite mission was to assist and protect commerce in the wild region in which he was stationed, and in the discharge of it he travelled ten thousand miles in eight years, acquainting himself with the people and their industries. In one district, for instance, he exerted his influence to induce the weavers, who were using aniline dyes with deplorable results, to return to the old vegetable dyes, to which the lovely colors of their carpets are due. He secured the punishment of robbers and murderers, established post-routes, and succeeded in opening a caravan trade with India—"the first person," said Sir H. Howorth, "who, since the time of the followers of Alexander, has united India and Persia by trade and commerce." In addition to this work, with the aid of an Indian topographer he surveyed the unexplored regions through which he passed, examined ruins, traced the route of Alexander. In this account of his fourth journey he gives the most interesting historical facts connected with the places visited. The general impression left is of a country sinking into barbarism, the decay being hastened by opium-smoking, which has "every likelihood of ruining the whole nation, for the vice spreads by leaps and bounds." Yet everywhere are the signs of former prosperity and a teeming population. Among the illustrations is a striking picture of a high brick tower, the last of a series built 300 paces apart across a desert to guide the caravans and travellers. In a notice of the Waldseemüller map of 1507 on which is the name America, some account is given of a map discovered by Henry N. Stevens and sold to an American library, "one of the richest in cornerstones of American history," which may prove to be an earlier draught of the map just discovered in Wirtemberg.

The Consular Reports for February opens with a strong plea for the establishment of a direct steamship service to Africa. The United States has scarcely 5 per cent. of the great import trade of the West Coast, and even this is endangered. "I see scores of European steamers coming and going," writes our Consul at Goree, "loading and discharging almost every week; but, during a residence of more than twenty years in the country, I have never yet seen an American merchant steamer in African waters." In last-century slave-trade days, Americans from Rhode Island were familiar sights at Goree. It is rather singular to turn to a report on the commercial conditions of Swatow, the port of one of the richest provinces of China, whose trade is increasing to such an extent that the Germans purpose doubling the number of their ships calling at it, and read: "One of the old men, who remembered the time when fourteen or sixteen sail of our ships was no uncommon sight in this port, asked why the 'Flowery Starry Flag' was never seen now." Minister Choate gives the result of an investigation into the complaint that certain American goods suffer detriment from the London dock charges. He does not undertake to form a judicial opinion as to the merits of the question involved, but simply sets forth the facts and the claims of the respective parties. There is an interesting account of the linen industry in Bohemia, in which attention is directed to the great decline in the cultivation of flax in all Europe outside of Russia. A significant fact is reported by the Consul at Sierra Leone, who states that the superintendent of Mohammedan education for British West Africa had requested from "American publishers catalogues and specimen pages of common-school text-books in the English language for his examination, with a view to their introduction and use in the schools under his supervision, if satisfactory."

Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft (Munich) contains illustrated articles, running through the January and February numbers, on "Dante's Portrait" in the pictorial art of his time, by Dr. Ingo Krauss, and on "Japanese Humor," by Günther Koch. The January number also contains an excellent reproduction of Auguste B. Glaize's interesting lithograph, "The Pillory," with seventeen figures of famous men and women persecuted by their contemporaries for their services to mankind, and two groups representing "Hypocrisy and Violence" and "Ignorance and Misery." In the accompanying text Dr. Stettner breaks a lance for lithographic art as a means of transmitting artists' works to posterity "in their own handwriting."

The German Orientgesellschaft is evidently doing thorough work in its excavations on the site of ancient Babylon. In the ninth issue of its *Mittheilungen*, the leader of the expedition, Dr. Koldewey, reports, among other things, the finding of some four hundred inscribed tablets in the Black Hill, in the centre of the field. Only two have been deciphered, and these valuable. One is a word-list, giving columns of Sumeric equivalents of the Babylonian cuneiform on the left, and of Semitic on the right. The other is a famous litany used in the processional services of Marduk. Dr. Koldewey states that the externals of the city, its streets, its temples, the public parks and places, walls, etc., as also the social, intellectual, and religious life of the inhabitants have now been fairly revealed to the investigator.

Dr. Schubart, of the Egyptian section of the Royal Museum in Berlin, has discovered in papyri recently added to its collection several entirely unknown poems from the

fifth book of Sappho. The *Reichsanzeiger* states that the manuscript dates from the sixth or seventh century, and is not in good shape. The discoverer has been able, however, to decipher two of these poems, one of which describes the poetess of Mytilene comforting a departing pupil, and another is addressed to a former pupil, who had removed to Lydia. The poems show new metrical combinations.

An important contribution to the solution of the South African problem is to be found in the report of Mr. Willcocks, the original designer of the great Nile reservoir at Assuan. In a preliminary reference to the stationary condition of the country, apart from the development of its mineral wealth, he makes the striking statement that "half a century ago it needed a farm of 5,000 acres to keep a family in decent comfort; to-day it needs the same farm of 5,000 acres to keep a single family in comfort." This condition he ascribes to the fact that to a temperate climate is joined a tropical rainfall. "When rain is wanted it is generally not there; when it is not wanted it is invariably present." A system of storage reservoirs and irrigation canals is accordingly essential for the permanent prosperity of the country. He advocates the proclaiming all rivers and torrents to be public property, and the undertaking of all important irrigation by the state alone. The suggestion is further made that the mining companies should be required to devote a part of their profits to such works. His personal observations lead him to the conclusion that three millions of acres can be perennially irrigated, and, on ten millions more, crops depending on rainfall can be raised by intelligent cultivation, thus adding one thousand million dollars to the country's wealth. The development of agriculture will solve the poor-white problem, which promises to become more acute than ever when the war is over, for "there is one kind of manual labor which the poor white considers becoming, and that is agricultural labor."

In the forbidden land of Tibet, the city of Lassa (the Mecca of Northern Buddhism) has long lured adventurous travellers. The recent attempt of Walter Savage Landor to penetrate its mysteries, and the cruelties and tortures to which he was made to submit, are quite fresh in memory. Since the visit of the French missionaries Gabet and Huc in 1846, the Swedish traveller Sven Hedin, during the years 1900-'01, in the disguise of a pilgrim, sought to enter the city, but was turned back when within a few miles of Lassa. He had good treatment, and met with no opposition in the coming or going with the caravans of pilgrims, but early last month came tidings that he had fallen into the hands of fanatical natives and been murdered, whereas from Cashmere, alive and well, he has sent a long telegram to King Oscar, telling of his adventures, and received a congratulatory reply from his Majesty. The India pundit Chandra Das in 1881-'82 remained some months in Lassa, taking photographs of the palace of the Dalai Lama and of the oval-shaped city itself. The photographs, now in the possession of the Royal Geographical Society of London, and recently published, show the imposing character of the Grand Lama's residence and of the palace in the centre of the city in which official functions are fulfilled. The wide streets, houses built in the form of a hollow square, several stories high, and whitewashed, as well as edifices constructed largely of sheep- and ox-bones laid in cement, confirm the descriptions of previous writers, and will but whet the appetite of explorers who thirst to conquer the unknown.

The Danish Minister of Transportation Hörup died at Copenhagen on February 15, in his sixty-first year. After studying law and acting as a tutor he entered journalism, and in 1876 was elected to the Folkething, where he soon won recognition as a brilliant speaker, succeeding Berg as leader of the Radical branch of the party of the Left. In 1878 he made the declaration, which sums up the views of the Danish Radicals: "The Folkething is the highest authority; there is no one above it, or by the side of it." Hörup was twice an Auditor of Public Accounts, and from 1883-'88 was Second Vice-President of the Folkething. In 1884, together with Edvard Brandes, he established *Politiken*, which became, almost from the start, the most influential Radical paper published in Denmark. *Politiken* is no less distinguished for the brilliancy of its literary columns than for the fierceness of its attacks upon the Conservative party. Indeed, few daily papers in Europe can boast of so remarkable a collection of special contributors. In the summer of 1901, after having been for a quarter of a century identified with the Opposition, Hörup became a member of the first Liberal Ministry, but was prevented by the illness that has now ended his life from performing the duties of his position.

Dubious enterprises based on human vanity and credulity are constantly brought to our attention in the domain of bookmaking. To expose them by name is to advertise them; to keep up with the number of them is difficult. The latest type is one of the literary "Libraries," conceived in a Western city, with a "Bureau" which "has elected that from five to fifty pages of your literary productions be preserved in permanent form" in said Library, and begs you "to submit such material as you may desire, which will be passed upon by the editors, and you will be duly notified of its acceptance." The dear public, seeing the *selection*, is naturally made to believe in the reality of the *election*. In the circulars before us, there is no reference to any expectation of pay in cash or by subscription to the trumpery work. First catch your hare.

—H. W. Hoare gives in the March *Harper's* a detailed account of the "Lineage of the English Bible," from the efforts of the venerable monk of Jarrow, through the various intervening partial or complete translations, down to the King's Bible of 1611. Joseph Fitzgerald contributes a paper on "Anarchism in Language," with which one is tempted to stop for a friendly quarrel, notwithstanding a bias in favor of its general tendency. The examples of English speech which he holds up for reprobation are in most cases justly subject to question, but it is equally true that in most cases they are clearly marked illustrations of fundamental processes of linguistic growth—the very processes to which are due a multitude of meanings and constructions employed without question by the most careful and accomplished speakers and writers who have ever used the English tongue. Language will doubtless continue to grow along the lines which it has followed in the past. Conscious effort may contribute to its clearness and euphony, but cannot impose upon it the straitjacket of a logico-etymological consistency. Prof. Henry F. Osborn gives a sketch of the marine-laboratory movement inaugurated by Vogt, Agassiz, Huxley, and others, which has contributed so much to the science of biology through its discoveries in the lower forms of life. The Easy Chair, apropos of Professor Lounsbury's volume on 'Shakspere as a Literary Artist,' considers at some length the present position of poetry, and invites the confidence of readers as to whether they really enjoy it, promising not to divulge names, and assuring the timid who at heart hate it, that there never was a safer time to say so than the present.

—Dr. Gilman's reminiscences, to which many readers of *Scribner's* have been looking forward with special interest, naturally begin with the opening of the university to which he has given the choice quarter-century of his life with such excellent results. In reading the details of his efforts to secure his original corps of teachers, and in recollection of his eminent success, as attested by the history of Johns Hopkins University, one realizes just why it is that he was the natural choice for the headship of the new Carnegie foundation, in which the fruition of the donor's intentions hangs so largely upon the selection of the right men as recipients of its assistance. Twenty-five years is not long, and yet it seems like a tale out of a remote past to be told of the commotion aroused by the invitation to Professor Huxley to deliver a lecture on occasion of the opening of the University. The lecture was seriously marred, it appears, by the determination of the newspapers to make a sensation out of it. Huxley was forced by the imperious reporters to the alternative of furnishing a copy in advance, or running the risk of serious misrepresentation in reports taken as the lecture was delivered. He accordingly dictated his intended remarks to a stenographer the day before, and was provided with a copy on thin translucent paper, with white sheets between to make it legible. These he thoughtlessly removed, to lessen the bulk, and consequently found himself unable, when before his audience, to read a word of what was written. The embarrassment of being thrown back upon his memory and general knowledge of his subject, after giving the speech to the press in a definite form, may easily be imagined. Mr. Vanderlip's second paper on our "commercial invasion" of Europe deals chiefly with England, showing an enormous increase in our ability to compete with the mother country, first in markets equally remote from both, and then even in England itself. England's relative loss of late years he attributes largely to the perverted development of a trades-unionism actuated by the fallacy that there is a given amount of work to be done, and that the laborer's profit out of it may be enhanced by decreasing his individual output in a given unit of time. The only point of advantage which Mr. Vanderlip feels sure that America can permanently retain, is her superior endowment in natural resources.

—No reader of the *Century* should pass over the account of the late Bishop Whipple of Minnesota, contributed to the March number by the Rev. H. P. Nichols. A frontier bishopric would not naturally be regarded as the best stage from which to secure the attention of the civilized world, and had Mr. Whipple been seeking the distinction which came to him, he would doubtless have striven for a different locality. In the Northwest, however, he found the stimulus of a great cause—the downtrodden Indian—and responded to the call with a degree of vigor and consecrated common sense that accomplished large results. He believed in the inherent worth of the Indian, treated him with absolute sincerity, and had the rare gift of ability to put himself in the Indian's place. It should be needless to say that it is no credit to our Government that he was never drafted into service as conspicuously the fittest man in the whole country to take official charge of Indian affairs. The imminent admission of New Mexico as a State of the Union gives an added interest to Albert E. Hyde's account of "The Old Régime in the Southwest," when a Colt's 45-calibre was circulating-medium in New Mexico, good for its cost as a stake in any game or over the bar. The career of "Billy the Kid," shot down by an officer at the age of twenty-one, and yet credited with twenty-one murders committed by his own hand, furnished a fitting climax to the lawlessness which had reigned in the Territory down to the early eighties, and by its very violence started a reaction which has made New Mexico a fairly safe place for any man who knows how to conduct himself. Two papers of scientific interest deal with Marconi's achievements in wireless telegraphy and the much (but unintelligently) discussed researches of Professors Loeb and Mathews, on the "Nature of the Nerve Impulse." The results of these researches, probable and possible, are too technical for any valuable recapitulation here. They are set forth by Professor Mathews with due modesty in the main, but one is somewhat staggered by a prima-facie promise of eternal physical life, in the statement that "there is apparently no inherent reason why a man should die, except our ignorance of the conditions governing the reaction going on in his protoplasm."

—For a second time, *Mélusine*, that learned "repository of mythology, popular literature, traditions, and usages," founded in 1877 by Henri Gaidoz and E. Rolland, has been obliged to suspend publication, "pour une période indéterminée." So we read with sincere regret on the cover of the December number, concluding the tenth volume. Folk-lore in the widest sense was certainly never edited in more scholarly or *spirituel* fashion than by M. Gaidoz, who stays his pen now not because of exhaustion of material or his own delightful gift of treatment, but, we may be sure, in consequence of a too limited and precarious support. He has at least the satisfaction of having amassed in the files of *Mélusine* a treasure available for all time to the curious. The closing number well exemplifies the range of this periodical. It opens with a discussion of a Breton custom of giving satirical puppets, supported on a crotch, to the victim of an engagement broken in favor of another lover. The illustration shows a handkerchief in the man's hand, symbolical of tears; and, in analogous customs noted, onions are employed with the same significance, hung upon a bouquet of willow. M. Camélat continues his animal fables from the valley of the Lavedan (Hautes-Pyrénées); one, in contrast with the fable of the fox and the crow, telling of the cock's escape from the fox's jaws by the happy device, as the bell announced high mass, of saying, "Let us pray; they are elevating the host." "Yes," said the witless fox, "let us pray God," and lost his hold in the act. M. Gaidoz chases the rainbow (we remember he began the pursuit in 1884 in the first number of the revived *Mélusine*) to the 43d chapter, and gives his 25th illustration of popular etymology and folk-lore, and his 10th of "Little Red Riding-hood," with a parting word on the nomenclature of the Devil, this time in English. Breton proverbs and sayings and the lark's song are other rubrics, and finally we read the last of the invaluable critical reviews bearing the authoritative initials, H. G. *Encore une étoile qui file.*

—Mr. M. Morison's 'Time-Table of Modern History' (Macmillan) is a series of synoptic charts which embraces the years 400-1870. In some respects the work resembles Professor Nichol's 'Tables,' but its scope is on the whole less comprehensive. Literature and art are left out in order to provide more space for politics and war. There is a further difference, which is equally noticeable. While Professor Nichol uses almost every line, Mr. Morison does not fill up anything like the whole of his space. For example, at the outset Scotland is allotted one-third of a large page, receiving equal prominence with the Eastern Empire and the Western Empire. However, as the annals of the Picts and Scots are somewhat meagre until the ninth century, the Scottish column remains almost void for eighteen pages. It is likewise with the entries under India, when a column comes to be assigned to that country. For page after page the history of India is apparently a complete blank. In such a work economy of space is a prime consideration, and we cannot altogether praise an arrangement which leaves vacant so large a part of so many columns. Where the historical records are defective or the events too trivial for notice, it is surely not the part of good judgment to lavish space upon the countries in question. They may be kept in the background until they have become important.

—The difficulties of preparing a date-book on parallel columns are obvious. Accordingly, we shall not dwell alone upon what may be termed the shortcomings of Mr. Morison's scheme. He certainly brings together a great many historical facts in such wise as to show their chronological relations. His pages are large, and towards the close of the work he divides each into seven columns, representing seven countries, with columns devoted to seven other countries facing them on the opposite page. This compilation will have its use, but, quite apart from one's conception of how a comparative synopsis should proceed, its merit would be enhanced had more pains been taken to render it accurate. While we cannot pretend that we have read the whole work, the part which we have read discloses an unnecessarily large number of slips. *E. g.*, p. 7, Albion, three times instead of Alboin, and the Empress Theodore for Theodora; p. 12, Eudo for Eudes; p. 13, Omayyad in one column and Ommeyad in another; p. 19, "Nicholas I. publishes the False Decretals, including the Donatim of Constantine" (apart from the misprint, the statement would not be altogether easy to prove); p. 20, under France and the year 910, "Foundation of the Abbey of Cluny"; p. 22, under Germany and 960, "Foundation of the Abbey of Clugny"; p. 24, Otto I. is crowned by the Pope and deposes the Pope (what Pope?); p. 26, the degree of the millennial excitement is exaggerated, and, p. 28, there is a misstatement regarding the day of the week on which the Truce of God began. We need not accumulate examples. The book is by no means impeccable. At the same time its weaknesses are largely those which are incidental to compilations of its class, and we can see no reason why it should not be of considerable value as a work of reference.

PASTEUR.

The Life of Pasteur. By René Vallery-Radot. Translated by Mrs. R. L. Devonshire. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902. Two volumes. 8vo, pp. 301, 304.

Pasteur was heartily a Frenchman, but not after the fashionable light-hearted pattern. A heart more completely unsullied by all there is in its world to sully it—egotism, chiefly, in *his* world—is not to be found in what land or age you will. It happened that his discoveries shone brilliant to those who regarded them from the side of utility—to wit, his improvements of wine and beer, his cures of the silk-worm trouble, the chicken cholera, the swine fever, anthrax, diphtheria, hydrophobia, etc. Nor was it accidental that his discoveries had that character. Still, it was not that which made him the great man he was, but his strength in research, which cracked every nut, however redoubtable, with such surprising promptitude that one really cannot think that it was ever fully tested. When we wish to remind ourselves what scientific logic really is, we may think of Pasteur, his investigations, and his life, and ponder them well on every side, without overlooking the intimate vital link between the intellectual and moral parts of him.

He may be said to have commenced business on a certain day early in 1847, when Auguste Laurent, another chemist of clairvoyant eye—a poet, too—at that time his co-assistant in Balard's laboratory, showed him, under a microscope, some tungstate of soda, and made him remark that it was a mixture of three distinct kinds of crystals. That was enough. Pasteur forthwith set to work crystallizing tartrates and racemates. It is a pity that the biographer has not seen fit to set forth the motives which determined this momentous selection of a subject for such experiments, for it not only would have explained just what Pasteur's feat was, which is often misstated, but would also have afforded an instructive illustration of how science gets gradually built up. Tartaric acid had been one of the numberless discoveries of that muse-visited apothecary Scheele, made apparently in 1769 or 1770. In 1809 Weiss had first set forth the crystallographic systems, but it seems to have been some ten years before his work attracted much attention. In 1811 Arago had

discovered some of the phenomena of circular polarization, which Biot, beginning in 1813, had explained as a rotation of the plane of polarization. Biot had shown, too, that not merely certain crystals, but also certain solutions and even certain vapors, exhibited this phenomenon. He had found that some slates of quartz cut perpendicular to the axis turn the ray to the right, while other specimens turn it to the left. In 1821 John Herschel had remarked that, of the three kinds of quartz crystals that Haüy had noticed (namely, first, those which can be held vertically so that, of two prismatic faces to the right and left, the former has two small facets impinging upon it below to the left, the latter two similar facets above at the right; second, those which are exactly like the first except that right and left are interchanged; and third, those which are tolerably regular dipyramids), the first invariably rotate the plane of polarization to the left, the second to the right, and the third neither way. This was strong evidence, though far short of proof, that the rotation of the ray was somehow due to some molecular structure of the general nature of a right-handed or left-handed screw; and, what fired scientific imaginations, dynamics was utterly baffled to suggest what sort of force it could be that should regularly produce such an arrangement.

The year (1822) of the publication of Herschel's discovery had been that of another discovery, made two or three years previously, which no single mortal then dreamed had the remotest connection with Herschel's. The manufacture of tartaric acid is a somewhat delicate business, not unlike sugar-refining. Among other places where it was then carried on was the pretty town of Thann in Alsace, which no tourist will have forgotten, if he has been there, on account of its church. A Mr. Kestner was conducting the manufacture there by a regular routine when he one day found, to his surprise, that a certain batch of his acid, made by the regular process, had hardly any tartaric acid in it, but consisted of a new acid, less soluble than the tartaric, though closely similar. He at first mistook this for oxalic acid, but, after having been set right on this point by the Hollander John, he named it after the little town that so well merited fame, *thannic* acid. But when he tried to make more of it he failed, and so did other manufacturers, although some of them found that, when tartaric acid was wanted, this thannic acid was very apt to put in a distinctly uninvited appearance. Before 1826, Gay-Lussac had compared the new acid, which he (we think first) called by its now usual name of *racemic*, with the tartaric, and had found that their chemical behavior was identical, except toward certain bodies with which one or the other seemed to have some underhand relations, where strong contrasts appeared. By 1830 Gay-Lussac and Berzelius had severally proved that the composition of the two acids was one and the same; in Berzelius's phrase, they were *metamers*—the third or fourth instance of this phenomenon to become known. In 1835 Biot contributed the information (destined to prove so important) that tartaric acid and the less complex tartrates rotate the ray to the right.

In 1842, Eilhard Mitscherlich had published the fact that sodium-ammonium racemate is seen under the microscope to crystallize in the same shapes precisely as sodium-ammonium tartrate, although the latter rotates the ray, while the former does not. The following year, his amanuensis, Werther, took for the subject of his dissertation for the doctorate the crystal forms of the tartrates, and this dissertation was frequently used by contemporary French chemists. Although it appears that Mitscherlich had overlooked the unsymmetrical facets of the sodium-ammonium tartrate, which are certainly small, we can hardly believe that they escaped the careful study of Werther. At any rate, the crysfals are geometrically just like those of ordinary Rochelle salts, which must have come under the eye of Pasteur himself, so few things escaped it. Thus, in one way or another, it is altogether probable that Pasteur had been for some time already aware of the unsymmetrical forms of the tartrate. Indeed, we find it recorded that in a conversation held in 1844 with his bosom friend Chappuis, Pasteur repeated *verbatim* a paragraph of Mitscherlich's 1843 paper, to the effect that, although the two salts in question formed crystals geometrically indistinguishable, yet the tartrate rotated the ray, while the racemate did not. Now there would hardly be anything in this so impressive as to cause Pasteur to carry the very words in his mind, if the tartrate crystals were symmetrical. If, however, he was aware that they presented a screw-like configuration, there would be a hope of resuscitating the theory of Herschel to which Mitscherlich's observation would otherwise deal the deathblow. It is evident that he must have cherished the wish to examine the racemates—salts not easily obtainable—to see whether they were not destitute of the unsymmetrical facets. This idea, then, had been in his mind since 1844; and, accordingly, when Auguste Laurent showed him that soda tungstate under the microscope, and he saw that it consisted of three kinds of crystals mingled, we can now understand why he at once set to work making crystals of tartrates and racemates. It had evidently struck him as one of the possibilities that the racemates likewise were mixtures.

Upon how many men's backs was Pasteur mounted when he attained to the making of this memorable experiment. which marks the opening of a scientific era to the close of which our great-grandchildren may not be able to look forward! The novelty of the discovery may, for aught one can clearly discern, be attributable to Pasteur's good fortune rather than to his merit. Yet it certainly illustrates his mysterious faculty of rightly guessing at Nature's ways (a privilege upon which he never presumed); and what at any rate was a property of the man alone, and is truly surprising, was his prompt recognition of all the importance of the thing, even to its remoter consequences. We are told that the moment he first got the fact solidly in his grasp, he sprang up quite wild, and ran out, embracing the janitor in the corridor, and, though no man ever more economized minutes, betook himself to the garden of the Luxembourg, where he occupied the rest of that day in setting his disordered ideas to rights. Before long, we find him writing to his beloved Chappuis that this discovery of right-handed and left-handed tartaric acid is destined to lead to the conquest of the most dreadful diseases! What a marvel of clairvoyance! For we now know that, without being aware of it, he had set foot upon the territory of that Unsymmetrical Carbon Atom which sets the pretensions to supremacy of attractions and repulsions at defiance, and carries one of the chemical keys of life.

When Pasteur first exhibited the experiment to Biot, who had been appointed by the Academy of Sciences to report upon the matter—the aged Biot, who, though reared in and sternly attached to the materialistic school of Lavoisier and Lagrange, of Laplace, Carnot, Monge, and Berthollet, had yet never ceased to be Catholic, and in his old age was become even *dévot*—at the critical moment, the old man exclaimed: "Hold a moment, my boy. I have so loved science that this makes me feel faint." Pasteur likewise was Catholic; and if he had not been possessed of that accurate logic which caused him to be as exact as Biot himself in scientific matters, but yet to make room for spiritualistic views of life, it is safe to say that not one of his great discoveries could have fallen to him. Somebody at the Academy of Medicine was one day urging the importance of a certain hypothesis. "Oh," exclaimed Pasteur, "as for hypotheses, we fetch them into our laboratories by the armful." Mind, he did not absurdly pretend to keep them out, as some do; nor want them only in homœopathic quantities, like many more. No, he would order large supplies of them; he would consume them in armfuls. And what would he do with his armful of hypotheses, when it was fetched? He would begin by sorting them over, with unwearied industry, as he had done his right-handed and left-handed crystals. First, those that could be shown upon consideration to involve something in conflict with known facts were weeded out. Then, by a skilful alternation of excogitation and experimentation, the mass of the others would be successively bisected until all but one were discredited, while that one was made gradually luminous with apparent truth. To a less cautious man it would have seemed demonstrated. But now began the main work of the investigation. This one hypothesis which had been winning favor until it was become prime favorite, had now to be treated as an enemy, and ingenuity had to be racked in trying to find something which the hypothesis would require to be true, but which experiment should refute. This fight was always an obstinate one—it sometimes lasted for years; and it was not until every device that could be thought of for bringing the theory to grief had been tried and had been found to avail only to put its truth into stronger light, that at length Pasteur would bring it before the world. Then his scientific friends always urged upon him the view that here the business of the man of science ended, and that he should now pass to another problem; and Pasteur himself might assent to this, in his head, but his heart always overruled such counsels. He *must* see the thing accepted and acted upon, so that here would begin those struggles with all the agencies of conservatism and of night that brought Pasteur to his comparatively early death.

As an illustration of Pasteur's style of dealing with such controversialists, a little

episode that concerned Colin may be recounted. Colin wished to impress people with the belief that he knew much more about anthrax than did Pasteur. So, one day when, in a paper before the Academy of Medicine, Pasteur incidentally mentioned that fowls do not take anthrax, Colin jumped up and said that nothing was easier than to give a hen this disease. Thereupon Pasteur said that in two days he should be sending Professor Colin some specimens that he had demanded of him, and, since it was so very easy to give a hen anthrax (which develops almost immediately), he would be very much obliged to him if, in exchange, he would send him a hen dying of anthrax. "You shall have it," said Colin. At the next meeting Pasteur remarked that he had not received that hen, and Colin made some excuse, promising to send it in a few days. But at every meeting, Pasteur recurred to the hen, which was never forthcoming, though always promised. At length, after this had been going on for months, Colin rose and said that he had found that he had fallen into an error, and that it was impossible to inoculate a hen with anthrax. Upon that, Pasteur remarked that his colleague was now going much further than he had ever done, for he had only said that hens *do not take* anthrax; but that it was possible to give it to them, he would demonstrate by experiment. So the following week he brought to the Academy three hens—one dead of anthrax, a second dying of it, a third recovering from it. Colin was silenced for the moment, but at a subsequent meeting he said, with an air of insolence: "I wish we could have seen the bacteridia of that dead hen, which M. Pasteur took away with him without showing us the necropsy and microscopical examination." Thereupon, Pasteur demanded a committee of investigation, of whom Colin should be a member, so that the skeptic was thus obliged to sign his own refutation. The secret of the matter was that Pasteur had ascertained by experiment what temperature was the highest at which the bacillus of anthrax could live; and, since this had been found to be two or three degrees below the temperature of the blood of fowls, they could not under ordinary circumstances contract the fever, and he was confident that Colin, looking at the matter from quite another point of view, would never light upon the proper way of giving chickens anthrax, which was simply to immerse them in a cold bath until the disease was developed.

This book will serve to correct many a misapprehension. It shows us clearly, for example, that Pasteur was not at all, as he has so often been represented, the exponent of a certain philosophy. The extreme simplicity of his heart, the childlike single-mindedness of his gaze at truth, at one with a childlike insight into things, seem to have prevented the intense concentration of his observational and intellectual energies from becoming a source of fallacy to him. His simple peasant's religion probably did aid him to keep clear of metaphysical entanglements which might very probably have prevented his researches into spontaneous generation; but, except in this alexipharmic way, they did not influence his scientific work in the least degree. He considered the logic of science to be one thing, and the logic of life to be another, and quite independent, matter. Another mistaken notion which has been current among those who busy themselves with Borioboolah-Gha, and which was perhaps fostered by Pasteur's severity of countenance, has been that he was a monster of cruelty, whose treatment of animals and children ought to have been restrained by law. The fact we find to have been that his susceptibility and tenderness of heart were quite excessive. Again, those histories of chemistry that are written with the German determination to concatenate events, albeit at the expense of spinning threads from the substance of the writer's being, tell us that "it was his work upon optically active compounds which led him on to the treatment of biological questions." This is certainly a most rational view, and is open to no criticism whatever, except that it happens to run counter to the facts. Those facts are to the effect that, with a single partial exception, every one of his incursions into biology resulted, not from any inward leading, but against the passionate longings of his heart, from external propulsion and the compulsion of that sense of duty to which his too emotional nature was all his life enslaved.

The whole of this noble life is laid open in these pages. It is a relatively small book, and its greatest fault of which the reader will be sensible is that there is not more of it. In such limits it could not be a Boswellian mirror; nor would the life of Pasteur, who was no show-specimen of a man, lend itself to such treatment. But we rise from Boswell's volumes knowing indeed perfectly what Johnson was, or, at least, how he appeared in society and in intimate conversation, but still perplexed to imagine how he came to be the man he was; whereas, here, Pasteur is not only exhibited but explained. The whole evolution of him from his seventeenth-century ancestors, the nurture and formation of mind and heart, are made comprehensible. The father, especially, stands out distinct as an old acquaintance, no character in novel sharper lined—a veritable contribution to our knowledge of men.

The scientific world in which Pasteur lived is veraciously and vividly portrayed, and this is one of the most valuable features of the work. Many portraits are hit off with as much truth as *chic*. One of them is Biot's. Happy would be the reader who was not familiar with the 'Causeries du Lundi,' since he would have one of the joys of life still to taste; but probably the reader does know that second of two articles in the second volume of the 'Nouveaux Lundis' which describe Biot. Of course, Sainte-Beuve, as he himself confesses, could not estimate Biot. The writer was too sophisticated and fine-drawn for his subject. All that he says is true; but what rating is to be placed upon the different features as elements in the make-up of a scientific man is quite another question. The portrait, on the whole, is not agreeable; in this book, on the other hand, Biot appears in the most charming light, and, since the whole man is viewed, in a much truer light. There are points of interest that both avoid. Gay-Lussac, too, Thénard, Balard, J. B. Dumas, E. Mitscherlich, Liebig, Henri Ste.-Claire Deville, Bertrand, Lister, Virchow, Vulpian, all come upon the scene, with many a younger man. We know not where to point to so truthful and useful a picture of the world of science. If you want to understand the typical man of science, you will find the creature here veraciously expounded. Behind the chief figures there is a life-like and animated background, where Napoleon III., the Emperor Friedrich, Dom Pedro, Littré, Sainte-Beuve, Renan, Alexander Dumas *fils* (very charmingly), Henri Regnault, and other painters will be noticed. Verily, the French still maintain their clear supremacy in the art of making a book, especially a characterism.

The translation is in excellent English. Only rarely have we come across a sentence which, we are persuaded, cannot have been quite rightly rendered, or a word not just the usual scientific expression; and on the whole the translator's work has been done with so much care, and has to so high a degree the rare virtue in a translation of making agreeable reading, that we cannot help feeling particularly grateful to her. The index is excellent, notwithstanding a few misprints. The photographic portrait is a likeness. The get-up of the book is extremely beautiful, with black type and uncalendered paper; the volumes are light to hold; the linen covers, simple and in good taste. In short, the book is an unalloyed delight—the clothing to the senses, the contents to the heart and spirit.

THE MOHAWK VALLEY "AS SHE IS ROMANCED."

The Mohawk Valley: Its Legends and its History. By W. Max Reid. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

Cardigan: A Novel. By Robert W. Chambers. Harper & Bros. 1901.

The Backwoodsman: The Autobiography of a Continental on the New York Frontier during the Revolution. By H. A. Stanley. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

The valley of the Mohawk, "the Flanders of America," the theatre of uncounted wars, the floor on which many races were threshed, the pathway of empire, the granary of the Revolution, has not been quite so "sadly neglected by historians and writers of fiction" as Mr. Reid, in his preface, would have us believe. Among local accounts of our Revolutionary struggle it is hard to match Campbell's 'Annals of Tryon County' or Stone's 'Life of Brant.' To the history of the valley in the Seven Years' War is devoted another valuable work, 'The Life of Sir William Johnson,' begun by the elder William L. Stone, and completed by his son and namesake. The pen of Francis Parkman himself has described not only that war, but also the wonderful earlier struggle with France, when for a century and a half the magnificent schemes of the first Power in Europe were foiled, and its armies held in check, as at another Thermopylæ, by the three hundred Mohawks and the few Dutch and English settlers who at length joined with them; and within a year the history of the valley for three centuries has been faithfully recounted in one of the most satisfactory of recent historical writings, Halsey's 'The Old New York Frontier.' Cooper's muse, it is true, walks only on the borders of the valley, avoiding its soil as it were quarantined; but even in those early days we had Hoffman's 'Greyslaer' to match the vigorous description and omit the wearisome dialogue of the choleric

Otsegan. The best of the Mohawk novels, Harold Frederic's 'In the Valley,' is too recent and too good to be forgotten; and the present market for historical novels—by which is understood novels that mention persons who are also mentioned in histories—has called from the press just ahead of Mr. Reid's more weighty tome two tales of the valley, Mr. Chambers's 'Cardigan' and Mr. Stanley's 'The Backwoodsman.' When Mr. Reid has read these efforts, he will perceive that there are sadder things than neglect.

He who runs, and, still more readily, he who walks on lower Broadway, may read that in 'Cardigan' we behold that phœnix of literature, "the great American novel." Mr. Cardigan, the hero, like all Mohawk Valley heroes, is a youth raised in the shadow of Sir William Johnson, getting into trouble just before the beginning of the Revolution, which is conveniently brought about for his deliverance, and deeply in love with a young lady, also in trouble. Unity of time the author strives for, so that within a year the hero of sixteen reaches, through perils enough for a lifetime, the matrimonial goal. The action takes place in Johnstown, Pittsburgh, Boston, and their suburbs. To verify dates and statements is drudgery; easier it is to say in a preface: "Those who read this romance for the sake of what history it may contain, will find the histories from which I have helped myself more profitable." Thus, we may not inquire too closely into dates, nor ask when Brant was "chief of the Six Nations," nor whether stage-coaches ran through from Philadelphia to Boston. But there were many strange things in those days. Trout and pickerel dwelt happily in the same stream, and "the hoof of countless deer herds made the forest runways hard" instead of making them soft as it does at this day. Cardigan was "a very Mohawk in the woods," and travelled from Johnstown to Pittsburgh in only three weeks; but from Pittsburgh a message is dispatched to Sir William Johnson on Monday, and Cardigan receives an answer on Thursday. No doubt, but for economy's sake, he had telephoned. We pass many such marvels to note that Mr. Chambers's greatest feats are done with the moon. At the full when Cardigan reaches Cresap, the obliging satellite some nine days afterwards sets at two A. M., to rise again some twenty-four hours later. Well might the moral highwayman of the tale exclaim: "She was always a friend to us, the moon." Yea, verily, for, like the compass of Nephi, she did work whither they desired her.

'Cardigan' was evidently written in the expectation that it would be melodramatized, for it contains not only an impossible hero, but a genuine old-fashioned villain. All the people are either very good, like Molly Brant, or very wicked, like Governor Dunmore; but Walter Butler was the wickedest of all. Since the author is not bound by the facts of history, it was a mistake to spare Butler when Cardigan had him at his mercy. Butler's language in February, 1775, fully justified homicide. " 'Yes,' he continued thoughtfully, 'I ride this night to Lexington. She's a sweet little thing, a trifle skinny, perhaps; but if she pleases me not to-night, I may change my mind and take her for my mistress.' " Yet Butler's fate was terrible: he was spared but to become the villain of Mr. Stanley's novel, and to say on April 26, 1776, still in pursuit of the *Ewig-Weibliche*, "I want a good squaw. Gimme this girl." Molly Brant also grows careless of her speech between the two novels. To Cardigan in May, 1774, she remarked: "A sin confessed is half-redressed. I had meant to release Felicity some time since; but, Michael, remember in future to ask permission when you desire to play with Felicity." Only two months later the same lady observed to Mr. Stanley's hero: "He bad man! He mean, wicked, wicked wretch! Him coward too. Me see him you beat one time. Sir Willum not no say, me hire Injun beat him." Mr. Stanley also introduces Dutch, Irish, and Quaker dialect. They can be recognized by the labels. For good measure there is lugged in from time to time an irrelevant Tuscarora of many winters and supernatural attributes, hight Tamalaqua, a word which no Tuscarora could pronounce. St. Mark had his lion, St. Tammany his tiger, and St. Tamalaqua is accompanied by a "tiger cat" called by the characteristic Tuscarora name of Midgard. Aside from these strivings and strainings, Mr. Stanley has given us a vigorous, readable tale, promising better things when the author has found himself. The other book, a negligent piece of work from a practised hand, is a more serious disappointment. The author of 'The Conspirators' probably could not write an entirely dull story if he tried, and even 'Cardigan' is readable. It might be much improved by being cut to three hundred pages.

Mr. Reid's more serious and more entertaining work is also a disappointment. The author, by long residence among the scenes described and long study of the events recounted, is well able to write an accurate and valuable history of the Mohawk Valley, but has preferred to make a scrap-book for his own entertainment. Accordingly, he has given us a volume replete with interesting and valuable material, much of it new to the general reader and some for the first time printed, of which half the value is destroyed by triviality, by lack of the sense of proportion, and by gross negligence of statement. So heedless is the author of the requirements of accuracy that it will not be safe to quote, as authority on any subject, 'The Mohawk Valley: Its Legends and its History.' The book can only be used to suggest inquiry, and independent verification of every statement will be necessary. We have space for but a few examples, gathered at random.

Like both our novelists, Mr. Reid makes Brant the great chief of the Six Nations and speaks of "Brant and his Senecas," saying also that Brant's father was, like Brant himself, a Wolf. The Andastes, it seems, lived in the Valley and belonged to "the Algonquin Nation." The Mohawks are "known" to have been at Hochelaga in 1535. Such spellings as "Abenaka," "Anticosta," "Recolect," "Tracey," are, in this book, hardly worth noting. The Anormée Berge theory of the name Norumbega is mentioned with approbation, and the somewhat dubious credit of its origination is given not to the author, Mr. Reid's neighbor, Mr. Weise, but to one who later quoted it (with full credit to Weise) in what Mr. Reid calls Fiske's "very excellent book, 'The Dutch and Quaker Colonies of [*sic*] America.' " Mr. Reid and the two novelists are all aware that the Mohawks could not say Peter, and, like so many evangelists, they confirm the fact by making it Quiddar (Reid), Queedar (Stanley), and, correctly, Quider (Chambers). In the history of the Valley the most important event save Oriskany seems to have been, in Mr. Reid's estimation, the massacre which took place at Glencoe in Scotland in 1690, the relevancy being that in later times there were Scotchmen in the Valley. This author thinks the twentieth century began in 1900, but is not quite sure. The word "Mohawk" he says is not Indian. Examples of Mr. Reid's moderation in statement are to be found in his remarks that there is no financial profit in archæology, that the Utica Fort Schuyler was built "after 1709," and that Visscher's men at Oriskany "retreated rapidly." So they did, very rapidly.

Yet for one who loves the quiet curves of the Mohawk and the old homesteads nestled along its borders, this book, with its gossipy chapters on old times, the wickedness of poor, overworked Walter Butler, and the author's pilgrimages among historic scenes—all illustrated by excellent plates of natural scenery and venerable dwellings—is full of charm. We are sure the author is a pleasant companion in such wanderings, and will only pray that he may some day have leisure to present us with a new edition, with half the paper and all the errors and trivialities omitted.

TWO BOOKS ON THE JESUITS.

The History of the Jesuits in England, 1580-1773. By Ethelred L. Taunton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1901.

A Relation of the Conference between William Laud and Mr. Fisher, the Jesuit. Edited by C. H. Simpkinson, M.A. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

We associate here two recent books which bear more or less directly upon the subject of the Jesuits. The connection between them is one of title rather than of essence, but, despite important differences, they both recall the vigor and prominence of the Society during the early years of the seventeenth century. Father Taunton's work is a general history of the English Jesuits from the reign of Elizabeth to the pontificate of Clement XIV., by whose brief the Jesuits everywhere were suppressed. Laud's 'Conference with Fisher,' on the contrary, has an Anglican flavor—that is to say, it is less important as an exposition of Jesuit doctrine than as the tractate of a High Churchman against the supremacy of the Pope. However, the circumstances under which the meeting took place are not devoid of interest to the student of Jesuit history. The text of the 'Conference' was printed during Laud's lifetime, and has since then been reprinted more than once. Not improbably we have it now in its final form, as Mr. Simpkinson's edition is a very scholarly one.

There is much in Father Taunton's treatment of Jesuit annals to catch the attention. He is a Roman Catholic but not a Jesuit. Indeed, so far as the Jesuits are concerned, he seems the candid friend. True friendship does not always consist in flattery. "We profess to want Truth; and Truth is not served by party spirit." It is Father Taunton's belief that the cause of the Jesuits has been but poorly served by the special pleading of their own writers, by the blindness of More and Plowden,

of Jouvency and Bartoli to the logic of facts:

"Domestic affection and a certain timidity in judging their superiors are, perhaps, in themselves admirable qualities in the Society; but they are not such in historians. Indeed, one of these writers naïvely remarks that 'a too keen feeling of that natural partiality which attaches individuals to their own Society . . . always compensates by a thousand advantages a transitory diminution of good which it sometimes occasions.' In view of such writers one is reminded of the saying that while few bodies of men have met with such opposition and hatred as the Jesuits, few have suffered more from the adulation of friends."

Father Taunton is a Romanist who sees that the Jesuits were guilty of serious mistakes, as is to be inferred from the outcome of their efforts. His point of departure is recognition of their failure, and, in seeking for the causes thereof, he does not hesitate to accentuate shortcomings when he finds them.

We are inclined to think that Father Taunton would disclaim the charge of being hostile to the Jesuits. In his concluding sentences he describes the prosperity of the English Jesuits at the present day—represented as it is by colleges at Stonyhurst, Beaumont, Chesterfield, St. Beuno's, Liverpool, London, Roehampton, and by numerous churches. "It is given to few bodies of men to have had such a golden opportunity of reforming themselves." Nor, he would seem to imply, has the lesson been in vain. But while we do not see in this book a diatribe against the Jesuits, its judgment of their policy before 1773 is decidedly unfavorable. If examples are needed, the reader may turn to the notice of Robert Parsons, to the account of the Gunpowder Plot, to the narrative of the Society's action during the reign of James II., and to the general observations about *libido dominandi*.

Of necessity Parsons is made the central figure, and in him Father Taunton sees the evil genius of the English Jesuits. He had the commanding spirit; the rest, for generations, were hardly more than his imitators. Or, better, it may be said that the English Jesuits fall into a large majority and a small minority. In the latter class are Campion, Southwell, and Thomas Garnett, who form a group of enthusiasts and sufferers, but whose heroism counts for little. Outshining them in reputation and outrunning them in influence is Parsons, surrounded by many followers and full of projects for bringing England back to Rome. We feel sure that Father Taunton has done well to distinguish between Jesuits purely religious and Jesuits largely political; nor could he avoid giving Parsons prominence above all other leaders. At the same time, he seems inclined to overestimate the importance of the Parsons tradition, and to press too far a theory that the key to Parsons's character is found in his leaning towards Puritanism.

Regarding the other points already referred to, we may observe that Father Taunton accepts the main plea of Mr. S. R. Gardiner against Father John Gerard, namely, that there was a genuine Gunpowder Plot. While he can find no evidence which shows the Jesuits to have been the instigators of it, he implicates them in earlier plots of the same conspirators; and he also points out that recent attempts to secure the beatification of Henry Garnett have been resisted at Rome. Furthermore, in discussing the relations of Father Edward Petre with James II., Father Taunton throws the whole blame for the Catholic catastrophe of 1688 upon the shoulders of the Jesuits. According to his view, they were carried by love of power beyond all reasonable bounds. "The *libido dominandi* eats into a society as well as into persons, and more easily where the individual gives up all personal ambition and makes the society his all in all."

Altogether, Father Taunton's history of the English Jesuits is an unusual performance. Besides being a work of learning, it represents an outlook upon the events of the later Reformation which is by no means common. His sharp criticism of Jesuit policy in the past seems traceable to the spirit of historical candor rather than to any feeling of professional rivalry. He does not touch at all upon the incident of Laud's conference with Fisher, but none the less it deserves to have some place in a history of the English Jesuits. The occasion was Fisher's attempt to bring over the Countess of Buckingham, the mother of King James's favorite. The date was 1622. Fisher, whose true name was Percy, had been educated at Reims and then at Rome. His presence in England, under terms which made it possible for him to hold disputation with an Anglican bishop, is accounted for by the pro-Spanish policy of James I. in those days when the marriage of Prince Charles with the Infanta was under discussion. But the King felt unwilling that Buckingham and his mother should become Romanists, and so brought forward Laud as a champion against Fisher in a formal argument.

The present text of the 'Conference' is really a report of Laud's pleading. It forms a volume in the English Theological Library, a series which started out under the patronage of Dr. Creighton, the late Bishop of London. Concerning this edition we shall say no more than that it has been prepared with great thoroughness by Mr. Simpkinson, Laud's biographer. The notes are extensive, and embody the fruit of deep research in patristic literature. But concerning the treatise itself there are two points which we should like to emphasize. It marks more clearly than anything else Laud's theoretical attitude towards Rome, and it is also a milestone in the Archbishop's own career.

The argument hinged on the issue of personal salvation, leading up to the double question, "Can I be saved in the Roman Church? Can I be saved in the English Church?" Laud stiffly maintained the superiority of Anglicanism and denied the infallibility of the Pope, but when he was asked whether or not the Roman Church was the right Church before Luther's time, he took a position which greatly exasperated the Puritans. Where they were for utter denunciation he was, to say the least, moderate. The Conference enabled him to put on record his sentiments regarding Rome, and in the course of his trial he pointed confidently to the position that he had then adopted. In maintaining the purity of his Anglicanism he urged among his proofs: "The book which I have written against Mr. Fisher the Jesuit must of necessity either acquit me of this calumny or proclaim me a villain to the world."

Ruskin and the English Lakes. By the Rev. H. D. Rawnsley. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons. 1901.

John Ruskin was a child of five when he first saw the English lakes, and the words in which he described the experience are graven on the Ruskin memorial at Friars' Crag, Keswick. "The first thing that I remember as an event in life was being taken by my nurse to the brow of Friars' Crag, Derwentwater." That event was, as he elsewhere says, "the creation of the world" for him. After that, he often visited the lakes and derived thus early those impressions which he was later to use in such essays as "The Poetry of Architecture," where he discusses the question of the effect of houses on the Westmorland mountain scenery. He wrote some poetry, poor verse but sincere, on the impressive beauties of the district; and was no less moved by them than was Wordsworth in his early youth. When he married, in 1848, it was to Keswick that he brought his bride, and it was among the mountains of which he wrote that "they are as a great and noble architecture, first giving shelter, comfort, and rest," that he found consolation for the disappointment of his married life. Then came a gap of twenty years, in which much of his work was written, and in 1867 Keswick saw him again. But it was not till 1871 that he bought from Linton, the engraver, his fellside cottage on the shore of Coniston Lake, "Brantwood," or the "steep wood," where he was to spend the last years of his life.

Ruskin's relations with the peasantry and his sympathy with the life of the dalesmen are described by Canon Rawnsley in a special chapter. His description of the Ruskin drawings in the Coniston Institute is one of the best chapters in this slight sketch, and will be a revelation to many of the enormous amount of work that Ruskin accomplished with his pencil. The drawings are arranged chronologically, and so form a sort of pictorial biography. It was to carry out Ruskin's teaching of the need of "the joy of the eye and hand-skill in the cottage home" that spinning-wheels began to hum once more in the Lake cottages for the manufacture of the now famous "Langdale linen." So, too, arose the "Keswick School of Industrial Arts," where the dalesmen learn wood-carving, and work in copper and brass and iron. The sale of the work brings in annually the sum of £1,700, and it is in great demand in all parts of England. The chief good accomplished is the effect on the home lives of these men, who now have a resource other than the public-house for their dull evenings. Ruskin lamented that they should work in brass, mere "base alloy," but was consoled by reminiscences of the Homeric heroes, and admitted that at any rate the result was good. The renaissance of the spinning-wheel has achieved even more for the happiness of the cottage homes. Wordsworth keenly regretted its disappearance, as may be seen from his sonnet which begins:

"Grief, thou hast lost an ever-ready friend
Now that the cottage spinning-wheel is mute."

Canon Rawnsley tells us that Miss Twelve, who began the work of restoring the spinning industry, put the pieces of an old hand-loom together from the photographs of panels on Giotto's Campanile, the secret of the con-

struction having faded from the memory of the oldest inhabitant. Thus not only is produced the Langdale linen, with its beautiful tones for art needlework, but even Greek and Sicilian embroidery has been developed in the district from these humble beginnings—the whole inspired by John Ruskin.

In his chapter on Ruskin and Wordsworth, Canon Rawnsley tries to effect a reconciliation between the art critic and the poet. The fact was, that Ruskin could not tolerate in Wordsworth a dogmatism that almost matched his own, and his admiration for him, which never seems to have been enthusiastic, became decidedly cool in later life, as may be seen from his article in the *Nineteenth Century* for 1881. It is futile to try and explain this away as Canon Rawnsley would do. He writes, on his knees, as it were, about both men, and throughout the volume displays that lack of perspective which seems inevitable to those writers who have come into even superficial contact with the lives and surroundings of the "Lakers." There is no need to speak of Wordsworth (or any other man) with bated breath because he had an estimable if not endearing character, and wrote some poetry of peculiar excellence together with a great deal that is less than prose. The spirit in which some of his admirers retail every trivial incident of his uneventful life is not likely to convert the outsider, and would estrange all but the most blinded devotees. We regret to meet again this strained pitch in Canon Rawnsley's sketch of Ruskin. There is too much talk of "the Master," too obvious an apotheosis of a man who was perfectly human. To speak of Ruskin as "God's Knight," and the "last great gladiator," even if one does so under cover of Canon Rawnsley's colorless verse, is to invite derision.

The illustrations, from photographs of Ruskin's study, bedroom, cottage, etc., will appeal to Ruskinites who have not been able to see the originals. The book is no more than an "in memoriam" sketch, and does not profess to be a biography.

Renaissance Types. By William Samuel Lilly. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

There is a type of book in which our English brethren have always had a certain preëminence, as to which the best that can be said is, that "no gentleman's library should be without it." The elements that go to make up such a book are: a certain fund of curious learning, a careful reading of a few special works on the subject in hand, a style in which seriousness is judiciously mingled with lightness, and in which quotations from all literature play a not unimportant part.

Such a book is this of Mr. Lilly. He uses the word "Renaissance" in a conventional sense, as denoting a period of time in which the greatest achievements of the modern mind were taking form. He selects from this period certain figures as illustrating several phases of this great movement, and attempts to characterize each in turn as a contributor to the vast result. The plan is an attractive one, and it is easy to imagine it carried out in such a fashion that our understanding of the period and its meaning for all later time should have been greatly widened. Unfortunately, Mr. Lilly has had the fear of the gentleman's library before his eyes. He has spent his energy in detail, without showing us how this detail bears upon his result. He has made a readable book, but we doubt whether any one will be much the wiser for it. The selection of persons is in itself not specially instructive. Michael Angelo, Erasmus, Reuchlin, Luther, and More are unquestionably the great figures of the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries, but only in this sense can they be called types of the Renaissance. It has been found necessary, in order to make the connection obvious, to characterize them still further: the artist, the man of letters, the savant—though it is a little hard to see wherein the difference between these two precisely lies—the revolutionist, and the saint.

It might have helped if Mr. Lilly had been willing to credit his readers with a general knowledge of the lives of at least four of his heroes, but he has thought it necessary to give rather a detailed biography of each, derived in every case from good modern sources, and in itself not uninteresting, but occupying too much of his space, and tending to interrupt the course of his argument. Indeed, it is almost too much to speak of an argument in this book at all. The reader must work that out for himself, aided, perhaps, by the author's summing up in the last chapter. So far as we can discern it, it is that the Renaissance was a time of vast intellectual stimulus, the starting-point of a multitude of ideas which were long in finding their realization—many of which, in fact, have not yet been realized. That this is a contribution worth the while of the thoughtful or moderately well-informed reader may be doubted.

We cannot refrain from calling attention to a practice (partly, perhaps, the fault of the publisher) of placing, at the top of the right-hand page, headings more worthy of a cheap newspaper than of a serious work of scholarship. It can add nothing whatever to one's understanding of the subject to meet at every turn such headings as these: "Dismay and Disgust," "What Might Have Been," "Good Advice," "A Dark Picture," and so on. Detail headings, to be valuable, should stand in a definite relation to the running heading on the opposite page, and give also some useful idea of the contents of the page beneath. If they are not worth the time necessary to show these connections, they are much better omitted.

Essays Theological and Literary. By Charles Carroll Everett, late Professor of Theology in Harvard University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

These essays have been chosen by Prof. C. H. Toy of the Harvard Divinity School from out an embarrassment of riches left by Professor Everett scattered about in various reviews and magazines. A large proportion of the round dozen appeared in the *New World*, which would have justified itself as a vehicle for Professor Everett's thought if on no other ground. No man was ever less a dogmatist, and his influence upon the young theologians of the Divinity School must have been such as to liberate them from the bondage of all special sects, and secure to them the freedom of the different world-religions; equally that of the wide range of philosophic thought. It is not that he was eclectic, but that he was independent, and pounced upon his own wherever he found it. It is remarkable that, with a mind so metaphysical in its dominant stress, he was perfectly at home in scientific studies, and in these not merely at second hand. The "Instinct and Reason" essay shows that his personal observation was extremely nice, and other essays contribute to this impression. He is the realistic, concrete idealist at every turn. At the same time he is a poet and a humorist, his humor always delicate—a fitful gleam which will bring back to many the voice and manner associated with those happy moments which relieved the strain of his most serious discourse.

Two essays deal with certain aspects of Christianity, "The Historic and the Ideal Christ" and "The Distinctive Mark of Christianity." The contention in the former is that the idealization of Jesus has been a process of abstraction rather than one of accretion; that the historic Christ has been formative of the ideal Christ to a very great extent. Where even the progressive orthodox dogmatize as to the sinlessness of Jesus, professor Everett, always inclining to the relative, pleads for abstention from dogma. "When we take a rule with which to draw a line, we do not ask whether under a microscope it would still show an unbroken edge." In the second of these essays the distinctive mark of Christianity is found to be the absence of any such, through its inclusion of those elements which appear in other great religions in a more isolated if not exaggerated form. "Naturalism and its Results" is remarkable for the frankness with which it discloses Professor Everett's views on matters of first-rate importance, as where, accepting the higher criticism of the Bible, he says that "to the mass of men much of the interest which formerly attached to it [the Bible] will more and more disappear." One of his most humorous illustrations is that where, speaking of heresy trials, he says, "It is as if a snow-bank in the spring should fancy that it could remain in undisturbed peace as soon as it could get rid of the few drops of water that are oozing out of it." The Devil has a chapter to himself, which does not seem too much. His evolution is set forth with great perspicuity. We do not seem to be getting far away from him when we come to Fr. Nietzsche, of whose philosophy there is a careful study. This has an excellent "improvement," as the Puritan preachers called the sting in the tail of a discourse. Professor Everett thinks Nietzsche ought to be a favorite philosopher with us, so many act upon the hard and brutal doctrine on which he unblushingly insists. "If we look at our politics—but I would rather not look at them."

In conclusion, there are four purely literary essays which are not inferior to the others. That upon Emerson's poems has particular felicities even more admirable than the generalizations. The essay upon Goethe's "Faust" is not inferior to the best of the many essays that have been written on this fruitful theme. The praise allotted to the second part of "Faust" is, however, cancelled by the account of it as at once a social and a personal allegory. In the eleventh essay Tennyson and Browning are compared; and in the twelfth ("Browning's Philosophy") the criticism of Henry Jones's treatment of the same subject is the more inter-

esting because it is the criticism of one Hegelian by another. So many have read Henry Jones's Browning book with interest and approval that Professor Everett's counter-criticism is a valuable contribution to the understanding of the poet.

It remains to say that Professor Everett's book is far less valuable for its particular opinions than for the opportunity which it affords to watch the play of an extremely beautiful and agile mind upon a range of subjects every one of which is suggestive and important. It is seldom that we find a book the reading of which gives so much pure delight as we have received from this.

Plant Life of Alabama: An Account of the Distribution, Modes of Association, and Adaptations of the Flora of Alabama. Together with a Systematic Catalogue of the Plants Growing in the State. By Charles Mohr, Ph.D. [Reprint of Vol. VI., "Contributions from the U. S. National Herbarium," published July 31, 1901, by the U. S. Department of Agriculture. "Alabama Edition," with Portrait and Biography of the Author. October, 1901.]

This interesting work was not issued until a week or two after the death of its lamented author, but it had received his anxious and loving care up to the very last. It embodies the chief results of a long life spent in earnest work divided between vocation and avocation. Dr. Mohr was a striking instance of the advantage to be derived from change of occupation along definite lines of energy. Professionally, he was a chemist, pharmacist, and botanist, but he had an excellent acquaintance with mineralogy, metallurgy, and mining. In short, he was an all-round naturalist, attracted by every phase of nature to its thorough and accurate investigation. When he was somewhat wearied by his too great assiduity in one line of research, he could turn to another line of activity for wholesome refreshment. It was natural, therefore, that he should become most deeply interested in the examination of the environment of plants, in the study of the relations of plants to their surroundings. He knew plants well; he knew their demands and caprices; and he knew also the climate, the soils, and the animals which must enter into every problem. Hand in hand with such studies would naturally go an investigation of the uses of plants to man, but this work, though carried far by him, he did not live to finish. That which he has left us in this volume is a suggestive guide for investigators in many fields, and will be sure to stimulate activity in a safe way. At the present time, when certain departments of botany are breaking with the old traditions, a work like this contribution by Mohr will be of great service in directing research along new lines and with methods which are not likely to mislead.

As every traveller and explorer knows, there are some guides to whom one becomes personally deeply attached. Mohr was one of these. His quiet life did not suggest romance, and yet there was in it a large share of what a less modest man would have viewed as extremely interesting adventure. At the age of twenty-one Mohr made a voyage to Surinam, where disappointment after disappointment met him. Then, as a Forty-niner, he found fresh disappointments in the Sacramento valley. He tried next his fortunes in the fickle Isthmus of Panama, and here, after a brief period of successful collecting and study, he was stripped of all his belongings by theft, and left well-nigh dead from Chagres fever. After various unpleasant experiences in the North, he found himself after a while in Mexico, from which he was ousted by a political revolution. In Mobile he found at last a pleasant home and such quiet as was obtainable in a civil war. His function now was to aid the Confederates by the manufacture of drugs from the native sources, and by testing the medicinal preparations which were smuggled into the country from Europe. His wide knowledge of the resources of Alabama made his services of great value during the war and the dreary period of reconstruction. Through all his discouragements he had a cheerful heart and a happy smile. When things at last settled down into something like quiet in the State, Mohr was able to devote much of his time and thought to the examination of botanical questions of the first order, and the results of these researches met with prompt recognition. His last years were fruitful and were crowded with happiness in his studies, so that, when the end came suddenly, he was able to say, in the midst of his intense suffering, "How beautiful is the world."

Erinnerungen aus meinem Leben. Von Ferdinand von Strantz. Hamburg: Aktien-Gesellschaft. 1901. Pp. 272.

This volume of reminiscences is a highly entertaining and very valuable contribution to the history of the dramatic and operatic stage in Germany during the last century. The author, now more than eighty years of age, records in the introductory chapter of his autobiography some interesting recollections of his father, who, as Prussian major and aide-de-camp of Blücher, took an active part in the decisive campaign of 1814. Many comical and characteristic incidents are narrated of this energetic and impetuous warrior, popularly known as "Marschall Vorwärts," who, although endowed with noble feeling and a lively sense of humor, was extremely gruff in his manners, and so utterly destitute of literary culture that he could not write his mother tongue correctly. After the battle of Waterloo, Blücher visited England, where his presence excited immense enthusiasm, especially among the women, who wished to welcome him as the American ladies did Hobson on his return from Cuba, surrounding his carriage to kiss his hand as he drove through the streets of London. But the blunt old soldier was not sufficiently sentimental to enjoy this sort of "lip-service," and ordered his adjutant to put his hand out of the carriage window and receive the osculations intended for himself. He could not even walk out without having bits of his uniform cut off as souvenirs. The same thing happened repeatedly to both his adjutants, who went to him and claimed compensation for losses incurred in his service; but their complaint was laughed at as a cunning device for getting new uniforms.

Ferdinand von Strantz began to prepare himself for a diplomatic career, but, before completing the prescribed course of study, yielded to the force of family tradition and entered the army. With the development of his mental faculties and artistic tastes, the life of an officer, with its monotonous military routine, ceased to satisfy him, and he resolved to become an actor and singer. For this purpose he went in 1845 to Paris, where he took lessons of Manuel Garcia, who was then also giving instruction to Christine Nilsson and Jenny Lind. He speaks in the highest terms of Garcia's skill in training the voice, and adds that the illustrious master is still pursuing the same vocation in London at the advanced age of ninety-seven. During his three years' sojourn on the Seine, Strantz became intimately acquainted with many musical and literary celebrities, of whom Auber, Chopin, Flotow, Offenbach, and Dumas *père* are now the most noted. As early as 1842 he enjoyed the friendship of Liszt, who was then giving concerts in Breslau, and always had two pianos on the platform, as his vigorous touch was quite certain to break the strings of one of them before the programme was finished. To-day the introduction of the stronger instruments constructed by Bechstein, Blüthner, Steinway, and others has rendered this precaution unnecessary.

Strantz was connected with the stage for nearly forty years, at first as singer and actor, then as *régisseur* and manager in Bremen, Dresden, Hamburg, Königsberg, Leipzig, and other German cities, and finally as director of the Royal Opera in Berlin from 1876 to 1887, when he retired to private life. During this period he came into contact with the most distinguished representatives of the dramatic and operatic art, as well as the most illustrious playwrights and musical composers of his time. In his relations with these persons, many of whom were extremely sensitive and somewhat eccentric, he showed practical common sense, keen observation, and thorough knowledge of human nature. Even events of minor importance in his intercourse with them are made to serve as striking illustrations of traits of character. Verdi, we are told, was so discouraged by the failure of his first opera that he resolved never to write another; but the impresario Merelli, who recognized his talent, urged him to continue, and one day thrust a new libretto into his hand through the crack of the door, which Verdi was rudely shutting in the persistent impresario's face. Finally, however, he read the text thus forced upon him, was greatly pleased with it, and soon afterwards brought out his opera "Nabucco," which established his reputation as a musical composer. The book is full of anecdotes of this kind, which not only are amusing, but also have a biographical and historical value. We may add that Strantz's statements in minor details are not always strictly accurate. Thus, Verdi's first opera, "Oberto, Conte di S. Bonifacio," given at the Scala in 1839, was a marked success; it was his second opera, "Un Giorno di Regno," written under extremely depressing circumstances, that was an utter failure and the cause of his despondency. But these slight errors do not affect the general truth of the narration, nor seriously detract from its essential worth.

Text-Book of Zoölogy. Treated from a Biological Standpoint. By Dr. Otto Schmeil. Translated from the German by

Rudolf Rosenstock, M.A. Edited by J. T. Cunningham, M.A. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan Co. 1901. Small 4to, pp. xvi, 493, with numerous illustrations.

There are few, if any, zoölogical text-books or introductions to zoölogy that are more satisfactory in plan and in execution than the present. Comprehensive as it is, it does not attempt to deal with the entire animal kingdom, but rather with the better known portions of it. By means of a type of each, it is sought to teach the habits and structures of the various groups, the information given being such as should be possessed by all grades of students. Because of judicious selection and arrangement, and of the interest of the text, the volume is well adapted for teachers' use. The classification approximates one on which most authorities might agree, and is carried far enough for the purposes of the work. The illustrations are very good; they give the animal, a note in the legend indicating the actual size, with details of anatomy and affinities. Bold-faced catchwords and thought-stimulating and directing questions and remarks in very few words, are efficient aids for reader or instructor. These, with the author's efforts to keep adaptation to surroundings and relations to other life constantly in mind, make his text more entertaining and lively, and his facts more easy to remember, than is usual in such books. The work was constructed for Germany; it is nearly as well suited for surrounding countries in which the fauna is almost the same. English students, having about them the same or closely allied species, may welcome it as if written by one of themselves. Americans, however, are likely to be confused by references to badgers, rabbits, buzzards, snakes, toads, etc., which, though familiar enough in Europe, are not the creatures to which the same common names are applied in America. Other faults are to be seen in the distribution—the wolf, the bear, the hare, and others being treated as if found only in Europe and Asia; or in an occasional but rare inaccuracy, as in the case of the Galapagos tortoises. Dr. Schmeil's book is one of unusual merit; its defects are neither many nor great.

India Old and New. With a Memorial Address. By E. Washburn Hopkins. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. viii, 342.

Professor Hopkins here provides an excellent companion-piece to his 'Great Epic of India,' recently published in the Yale Bicentennial Series. In the present volume, however, we have a work of a more general and much less technical character, full of interesting information and much good sense on questions relating to the past and present of this great country under British rule. It contains the views of a scholar who knows the ancient literature of India, and is familiar with its present conditions from a personal acquaintance with the land.

The literary side is represented by three essays on the Rig Veda and the early lyric and epic poetry of India; but the chapter which will at once attract attention is that on "Christ in India." This deals with the much mooted question as to the possibility of direct or indirect connection between Buddhism and Christianity historically. The writer presents the so-called "cogent parallels" between the two religions and weighs them carefully. In one of his arguments he adduces the accounts of Zoroaster's miraculous birth to show that likenesses are not confined to Buddhism. He might also have added, as another parallel from Iran, the description of Zoroaster's temptation, which would have strengthened his point still more. He then proceeds in critical manner to show that most of the Buddhist resemblances can actually be proved to be later than Christianity, and he concludes:

"We may, I think, as open-minded historical students, safely assert that the Christian religion, according to all the evidence, was not plagiarized but original. At the same time we must admit that there is historical possibility in the view that the Christian narrative may have been affected by Buddhistic tales, but we must just as decidedly maintain that no cogent proof of this view has yet been furnished."

The much exploited resemblances between Krishnaism and Christianity are similarly discussed. Strong enough evidence is brought forward to show that, instead of being influenced, Christianity must itself have exercised an influence at least upon the later developments of this great religious rival of Buddhism in India. On the whole question of presumed Indian influences on Christianity, the author concludes that the historical data furnish "no base for the belief that the original narrative of Christ's birth and teaching derives from Hindu sources."

Space is found for reproducing two economic papers, on Hindu guilds and land-tenure in India, which were previously published elsewhere, and there is an extensive discussion of "the cause and cure of famine." Drought and famine have been known in India from the earliest times, as the writer conclusively shows from the early literature; but in pointing out the familiar advantages of irrigation, he points out also that certain economic rules and methods of taxation, differing from the ordinary, were applied in famine years in ancient times. England to-day, as ruler, has perhaps something to learn from the Occident of the past, and a strong plea is made for "remitting the tax when there is a drought, leaving the peasant enough to live on, and seeing that his livelihood is not taken from him even by law."

The chapter which sketches the first year of plague in Bombay recalls many personal experiences that will be recognized by any one who has recently travelled in the East; and the closing essay, "New India," will be read with interest by the ruler and the ruled in this early Aryan land. It seems fitting that the introductory chapter of the volume should be a memorial address on the late Professor Salisbury of Yale, the teacher of Whitney, the founder of the American Oriental Society, and the Nestor of Sanskrit scholars in America.

Actes du Premier Congrès International d'Histoire des Religions, Paris, 1900. Première partie: Séances générales. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1901.

If a little lightmindedness be ever permissible in drawing attention to the proceedings of so grave a body as a congress of the history of religions, it must surely be on finding enrolled among its members Mlle. Rev. Mary Baker G. Eddy. So it stands on page xiii. of this volume. The "Mlle." we can pass as due to French ignorance of our recent religious history, but how the lady in question could embark or assist in this *galère*—that is a question out of soundings for most of us. There are some things that a prophet—and, it may be presumed, a prophetess also—must not permit himself, and one is the luxury of uncertainty. He either has the truth or he hasn't; and if he has, what need of further words?

But, to return from such speculations as to the workings in illumined minds, the present volume is of much more than facetious interest. It is the first fruit of the movement, on the part of the professors of religious sciences at the École Pratique des Hautes-Études, entered upon in connection with the Exposition of 1900, and directed towards a periodical international congress for the history of religions. It may also be said to be, in a sense, an indirect result of the Chicago Parliament of Religions. Only a few years ago the time would not have been ripe for such an enterprise, but now the study of comparative religion has gone so far that a purely historic treatment is possible, and religious discussions between opposing confessions need no longer lead to unscientific brawling. Thirty years ago it would have been vain to seek a university chair devoted to this subject. To-day, under an influence which proceeded largely from Holland and Switzerland, these are to be found in almost every country. To this, it is true, there are the striking exceptions of Germany and England; but if the universities of these countries have not formally countenanced the new science, it has been in them fostered and advanced by private enterprise and individual labors. Finally, if any one institution may be singled out as having conspicuously contributed to this revolution, it is the Musée Guimet, founded by M. Émile Guimet in 1879, and transferred to Paris in 1888, and the *Revue de l'Histoire des Religions*, which is under its charge.

As is natural in the case of the first congress of the students of a still youthful science, the papers here are to a great extent of an introductory and descriptive nature. After the happy opening address by M. Albert Réville, there comes one, weighty and luminous, by Count A. de Gubernatis, on the future of the history of religions. Later follows a very clear statement of the actual situation with regard to instruction in the history of religions, by M. Jean Réville; later, again, a detailed paper on the statistics of religion at the end of the nineteenth century, by M. Fournier de Flaix, a revision of one published in 1890 in the Bulletin of the International Congress of Statistics. It is followed by an historical sketch of the Chicago Congress of Religions by Dr. C. C. Bonney. Along with these general papers come more special contributions, some of high importance. M. Émile Sénart discusses the relation of the Yoga philosophy to Buddhism with a learning that will be somewhat distracting to all but the Indianist. Prof. I. Goldziher illuminates with his peculiar simplicity and thoroughness the relation of Islam to Zoroastrianism. M. A. Sabatier treats of the relation of Biblical criticism, and M. L. Marillier of folk-lore to religious science; Count Goblet d'Alviella of the mutual relationships of religion and morals. Thus, the conception

of dependence and relativity holds a high place in almost all the papers, as is very natural in a congress of comparative religions.

From the *procès-verbaux* it is evident that among the papers read at the special sessions were several of very high interest. The second volume may therefore be expected to be at least equal in value to the present, and that is saying much. Perhaps it may even solve the problem of Mrs. Eddy's membership. But that we can hardly hope for.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arber, Edward. The Cowper Anthology. (Selections from the English Poets.) Henry Frowde.
Arnold, E. L. Lepidus the Centurion. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Bailey, L. H. Cyclopedia of American Horticulture. Fourth and last volume. Macmillan.
Bartlett, A. Le R. A Golden Way. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Bixby, J. T. The New World and the New Thought. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Burrow, C. K. Patricia of the Hills. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.
Carson, W. H. Hester Blair. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co. $1.50.
Chase, W. E. Poems. Madison (Wis.): Published by the Author.
Chatfield-Taylor, H. C. The Crimson Wing. Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Chittenden, H. M. The American Fur Trade of the Far West. 3 vols. Francis P. Harper. $10.
Crawley, Ernest. The Mystic Rose: A Study of Primitive Marriage. Macmillan. 12s.
Crosby, Ernest. Captain Jinks, Hero. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Dana, Francis. The Decoy. John Lane.
Davidson, Rev. T. Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language. London: W. & R. Chambers; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50 net.
Dickson, Harris. The Siege of Lady Resolute. Harpers. $1.50.
Dixon, R. W. History of the Church of England. Vols. V. and VI. Henry Frowde.
Dresser, H. W. A Book of Secrets. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Duignan, W. H. Notes on Staffordshire Place Names. Henry Frowde.
Eadie's Biblical Cyclopædia. New ed. London: Charles Griffin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.75 net.
Fielde, Adele M. A Political Primer of New York City and State. The League for Political Education.
Fowler, Prof. H. N. History of Ancient Greek Literature. D. Appleton & Co.
Gordon, A. M. R. Hoch der Kaiser. New ed. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Gower, Lord R. S. Sir David Wilkie. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Green, E. T. The Church of Christ. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Hargrave, W. L. Wallannah. Richmond (Va.): B. F. Johnson Pub. Co.
Harris, C. W. The Sectional Struggle. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Hopkins, M. The Fighting Bishop. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Jenks, Edward. Edward Plantagenet. (Heroes of the Nations.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Kraszewski, J. J. Memoirs of the Countess Cosel. London: Downey & Co.; New York: Brentano's. $2.
Lavy, A. L'Oeuvre de Millerand. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Edition.
Loftie, W. J. London Afternoons. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: Brentano's.
McClelland, T. C. Verba Crucis. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
McElroy, Lucy C. The Silent Pioneer. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Mercier, C. A. Psychology, Normal and Morbid. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Monkhouse, C. History and Description of Chinese Porcelain. London: Cassell & Co.; New York: A. Wessels Co. $10.00 net.
Morgan, Prof. J. L. R. Elements of Physical Chemistry. 2d ed. London: Chapman & Hall; New York; John Wiley & Sons. $2.00.
Muirhead, J. F. America the Land of Contrasts. 3d ed. John Lane.
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Smith, Adèle M. (1) Proof Reading and Punctuation; (2) Printing and Writing Materials: Their Evolution. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
Smith, E. E. The Golden Poppy. Palo Alto, Cal.: The Author. $1.50 net.
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Temple Classics: (1) Bunyan, John. The Holy War Made by Shaddai upon Diabolus; (2) The Plays of Oliver Goldsmith. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
The Lover's Progress: Told by Himself. Brentano's.
The Victoria History of the County of Norfolk, Vol. I. London: Archibald Constable; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $12.
Thompson, R. E. The Hand of God in American History. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Very Choice Books. London: J. Pearson & Co.
Walker, J. W. G. Ocean to Ocean: An Account, Personal and Historical, of Nicaragua and its People. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Wood, Francis. Sanitary Engineering. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Wormeley, Katharine P. Diary and Correspondence of Count Axel Fersen, Grand Marshal of Sweden, Relating to the Court of France. (Versailles Edition.) Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.
Wyllarde, Dolf. The Story of Eden. John Lane.

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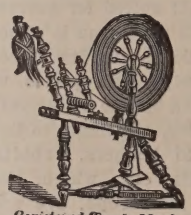

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 13, 1902.

The Week.

Inasmuch as President Roosevelt had declared he would veto the bill for a permanent Census Bureau unless he could frustrate its underhand assault on the merit system, his signing it on Friday must mean that he had satisfied himself that he could, in fact, thwart the spoilsmen. Indeed, it is explicitly announced in Washington that the Attorney-General has advised him that the effect of the bill will not be, though Congress intended it, to transfer the clerks in the Census Office to the classified service, thus giving them the preference for appointment to vacancies over the names on the eligible list. As these clerks in the Census Office got their places purely as spoils for Congressmen, and underwent only a farcical examination, the injustice of advancing them over those who are eligible for office through merit is too obvious to require arguing. Mr. Roosevelt said he would not consent to it, and found a way to nullify this indecent attack upon reform principles by notifying the Director of the Census to appoint only so many clerks as he would need for the permanent bureau. The rest will be discharged, and so left out of, not in, the classified service. The net result has been to leave the heathen in Congress raging. They acceded to the President's recommendation of a permanent Census Bureau only on condition of reserving some spoils perquisites for themselves. Now he cuts off the perquisites, and keeps the permanent Bureau that reformers wanted.

It is most unfortunate that, at the very time when the Republicans in the House show such signs of incompetency, the Democrats in the Senate should throw away their opportunities. If there was any question on which the Opposition in the upper branch might have been expected to make a vigorous fight, it was the ship-subsidy scheme. Yet it is on this very scheme that the Senate Democrats have displayed a weakness which is as discreditable as it is surprising. The party managers appear to have made no objection to the Republican request for an early vote on the Frye-Hanna bill, and next Monday has been set as the day. The minority have not even presented a committee report embodying the objections to the scheme, and many Democrats seem to take no interest in the matter. Mr. Clay of Georgia has made an effective speech against the measure, and some of his associates are expected to take a similar stand this week, but for the most part the Opposition in the Senate behave as though they had no comprehension of the opportunities which the folly of the Republicans throws in their way.

The adjournment of the Republican caucus over reciprocity with Cuba on Tuesday evening without action will give a fresh impulse in both countries to the movement for annexation. While warning the Republican leaders against the inevitable consequences of their non-action, we have earnestly deprecated annexation. We are opposed to colonies altogether as a part of or an adjunct to the United States. We do not regard the Cuban people as a desirable addition to this country. They differ from us in language, religion, traditions, jurisprudence, and modes of thought. Annexation implies and necessitates equal rights eventually if not immediately. Sooner or later, Cubans must have the same political privileges as Americans. Annexation means that they must have representation in Congress in proportion to their numbers, and must accordingly help to govern us in that ratio. It is incumbent on Republicans to tell what they meant by the Platt amendment, which binds Cuba to our chariot, and prevents her from making commercial arrangements with any other country, or even from borrowing money abroad, without our consent. Did that mean annexation at the time when our Congress adopted it? One thing is certain, though the opponents of reciprocity may be blind to it, that annexation is gaining adherents in both political parties.

It cannot, perhaps, be said that the Trust problem, as a whole, is greatly cleared up by the two events of Monday —the filing of the Government's petition against the Northern Securities Company, and the Supreme Court's decision against the Illinois Anti-Trust Law. The one is merely the first gun of an important legal battle; the other, a ruling on what is really a side issue in the controversy. That the Illinois law would be thrown out when it reached the highest court, as it and kindred statutes had already been thrown out in the lower Federal courts, has been, among competent authorities, the quite unanimous expectation. The fatal defect in this law, as in recent anti-Trust laws of Texas and some other States, was the attempt of its promoters to carry water on both shoulders by allowing the farmer or wage-worker to do, in his good pleasure, acts which were severely punishable in the case of merchants or manufacturers. We said in 1897, in reviewing Judge Swayne's decision at Dallas against the Texas Anti-Trust Law, that the weakness of the act in question consisted in its exemption of at least 80 per cent. of the community, thus making "class legislation" of the most glaring sort. The Texas law of 1895, like the Illinois law of 1893, provided that the penalties against agreements to control commercial prices "shall not be held to apply to live stock and agricultural products in the hands of the producer or raiser." Of this exemption, the Supreme Court now remarks that the Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution absolutely forbids it. No Legislature, the court declares, can "divide those in trade into two classes, and make criminals of those in one class . . . while allowing another and favored class engaged in trade to do the same thing with impunity."

Of the Attorney-General's petition, formally opening the case of the Government against the Northern Securities, it is to be said that a high degree of legal ingenuity is displayed. The two main points on which Mr. Knox elects to present his case are as follows: First, that the Northern Securities Company, by its absorption of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific Railways, has effected a combination in restraint of trade; second, that the Securities Company, having been organized solely as the machinery of a merger, and having given no consideration for the stocks acquired, beyond its own certificates, "was not organized in good faith to purchase and pay for the stocks." Whatever may be the judgment of the courts in the second of these contentions, its adroitness must be manifest. Resting on it, the Government's lawyers may at least evade the strong contention of the defendants, that to forbid any bona-fide investment purchases by a stock-holding corporation must logically be followed by moves to forbid, under similar circumstances, such purchases by private individuals. If the Attorney-General's second point were to be sustained, he would probably answer that the Securities Company's acquisitions could not be compared with purchases by an individual who draws bank checks for what he buys; that, in fact, the acquisitions were not purchases at all, but merely a voluntary merger. We do not, of course, profess to foreshadow the dictum of the court on this highly interesting point. We shall await with great interest, however, the rejoinder of the defence. For it is clear to every one familiar with recent moves in high finance, that the whole theory of corporate combinations, as at present practised or designed, is now in question.

The Washington report that Secretary Hay will formally remonstrate against German concessions in Shantung lacks inherent probability. Such a remonstrance is, in fact, already answered by the recent statement of the German Chancellor to the Reichstag. To pursue the matter further, unless Mr. Hay is prepared to present a fully elaborated case, would be a grave diplomatic indiscretion, equivalent to a denial of Von Bülow's veracity. The nature of such a protest as Mr. Hay made to Russia is frequently misunderstood. Such a note appeals not to a formal treaty, but to that "gentleman's agreement" for the open door in China which Mr. Hay induced the Powers to enter into, some two years ago. A protest of this kind is in the nature of a friendly remonstrance against the ill keeping of a promise, and not at all to be regarded as a legal process in the matter of a broken contract. Its effect is chiefly moral. If Mr. Hay were to raise the question of the Shantung concessions, he would, in effect, only say to Von Bülow: "You wrote me on February 19, 1900, that 'the Imperial Government has from the beginning not only asserted, but carried out to the fullest extent, in its Chinese possessions, absolute equality of treatment of all nations with regard to trade, navigation, and commerce. The Imperial Government entertains no thought of departing in the future from this principle.'" But the German Chancellor has virtually anticipated such a reminder by affirming that Germany has not departed from this principle. If Von Bülow's statement had been made in answer to a diplomatic note, Secretary Hay must have accepted the explanation; for the principle of a gentleman's agreement holds all around. He can hardly mean to repeat a reminder which, indirectly, has been made and answered already.

Gen. Hughes, testifying before the Senate Committee on the conduct of the war in the Philippines, not only declined to answer questions, on the ground that he might be criticising a superior officer, but from the first showed that he distinguished members of the Committee by their politics. If the other military witnesses to be called before the Committee should take the same attitude, and feel themselves bound to support the past acts of military commanders and of the Administration in the Philippines, the object for which the Committee is collecting evidence will be defeated. This is to obtain the facts as to the military situation and the conditions of warfare since 1898. If the War Department has not already made it plain to officers that they may testify freely and without hurt to themselves, it is time that Mr. Root should take such action at once. The questions which Senator Patterson put to Gen. Hughes may have been incited by purely partisan motives. They were none the less proper under the circumstances, and should have met with a prompt and cordial response, if only in the interest of history. The country, for instance, is entitled to know the truth about the unnecessary and inexcusable battle fought by the American troops on August 13, 1898, which resulted in the loss of a number of valuable American lives, as well as those of Spaniards and Filipinos. Manila was then hemmed in by the Filipinos, while Dewey's guns absolutely controlled the city on the waterfront. Resistance was impossible, but the Spaniards, in order to "save their faces," cooked up a sham battle with loaded cartridges, and the American military officers consented, with an eye to promotions, which were lavishly bestowed. Senator Patterson was eminently within his rights in probing into this early Philippine scandal.

The formation of a "General Education Board," as a sort of clearing-house for Southern education, marks another important step forward in the great work of building up the black and white institutions of the South. Although it is not to be limited in its activity to any one section of the country, it has primarily been called into being by the need of a general headquarters in this city for the representatives of Southern institutions, and of an information bureau for those who desire to give to the cause. As we understand it, there will be an office in this city, to which any one may apply who wishes to ascertain the facts in regard to any school or college which appeals for help. Advice will be given to all who desire it as to the places most needing assistance and development. The presence on the Board of such men as W. H. Baldwin, jr., George Foster Peabody, Dr. J. L. M. Curry, and Robert C. Ogden insures coöperation with the Peabody and Slater funds and the Southern Education Board. Indeed, the new movement is the outgrowth of the older ones, and is destined to supply a long-felt want. At present Mr. Washington of Tuskegee, Dr. Frissell of Hampton, President Bumstead of Atlanta University, and the heads of many other worthy institutions have to spend their time and substance in travelling to the North every winter to raise the funds they need. It would be a great thing if this new movement could do away with this necessity, and itself secure all the money desired. This is a kind of Trust which will appeal to every one. It is gratifying to know that the Board begins its work with one million dollars in hand, for nothing of greater moment has happened in the educational world for years than the incorporation of this group of experienced workers as a permanent "steering committee" for Northern sentiment interested in the educational advancement of the South.

The Mortgage Tax Bill has passed many vicissitudes at Albany, but seems to have reached such position and shape that it can command votes sufficient to pass it. Originally it was a bill to bring money to the State Treasury, and thus hasten the time when the State Government would have an independent income, and would be able to dispense with the general property tax. Later it was encumbered with a proposition to divide the proceeds equally between the State and the counties where the mortgages are recorded. On Friday, on the motion of Senator Stranahan, the father of the bill, it was amended so that the State receives no part of the proceeds, but the localities receive the whole. This looks like a complete inversion of the measure, but the change is immaterial so far as the taxpayers are concerned. The great merit of the bill consists not in the channel through which the proceeds of the tax pass, but in the principle of justice and equality embodied in it. The existing tax is collected from only a few holders of mortgages, and these the ones least able to pay it. All others avoid it, in one way or another. The proposed tax cannot be avoided. It will be light (only one-half of one per cent.), but it will be paid by all who ought to pay it. By lifting all doubt and uncertainty from the taxability of mortgages it is quite certain that a large amount of new capital will flow into mortgages, and that the rate of interest on that class of loans will be lowered, and the borrower thus benefited. These are the considerations of prime importance connected with the bill. Although they were not the ones which led to its introduction, they should be potent in securing its passage.

The New York Court of Appeals has rendered a decision in the Herlihy case which should make it easy hereafter to convict any police captain who is guilty of neglect of duty. In effect it says that when a police official is accused of neglect of duty, the more specifications the prosecution has to present, the better. This is the common-sense view of the matter, and it is refreshing to find that the highest judicial tribunal in the State approves common sense as good law—which does not always happen. Capt. Herlihy was charged, under a "blanket" indictment, with failure to suppress 110 disorderly houses in his precinct, but the lower court held that only one specific case could be used in a particular trial. The Court of Appeals, however, rules that the "blanket" indictment was a valid one, and consequently that a comprehensive complaint of this sort may be lodged against any derelict captain. This is a fine vindication of ex-District Attorney

Philbin, who stoutly maintained the propriety of proving that an official had been guilty of neglect of duty by citing scores of cases, rather than depending upon a single instance. Mr. Jerome does not exaggerate the importance of this decision when he says that "it is the greatest blow to the collection of blackmail by the police which could possibly have been given, and puts in the hands of my office powers of enormous importance."

The result of the February elections in Philadelphia has been another setback to the handful of reformers who stand for civic decency and honesty. The machine candidate for City Solicitor received an alleged majority of 120,000, and every machine Councilmanic candidate was elected, with one exception. Not one of the women candidates for school directorships was chosen. The bosses hailed the outcome as a triumph of the Republican party, and of "stalwart Republicanism," and at once left town for rest and recuperation in Florida. They have certainly earned their vacation, for the city is more firmly gagged and bound than ever before, the fusion candidate for City Solicitor receiving only 34,273 votes. The usual cheating at the polls went on openly, and with the same impunity to those responsible for it as in the past. We can well imagine the criticisms to which all this would give rise if it were the report of an election in Cuba or in the Philippines. In the eyes of Governor Taft and of many Republican Senators and Congressmen, it would constitute the best of evidence that Cubans and Filipinos were utterly incapable of self-government for a period which would put the discussion of representative institutions for them so far in the future as to make it "purely speculative."

The initiative and referendum are likely to have a crucial test in the adjoining provinces of Ontario and Manitoba. In both cases it is the same matter which is brought before the voters—namely, the Manitoba Prohibition Act. This drastic measure is now part of the law of Manitoba, but the Provincial Government will not enforce it without an express mandate from the people; it is to become the law of Ontario if the voters of the province so direct Parliament. Now it does not speak very highly for the law itself that one premier will not enforce it unless the people require him to do so, while another premier will not let it come before Parliament until he is assured of popular support. The Manitoba Prohibition Act is probably neither more nor less practical than the Maine law or the Kansas law. But the question of prohibitory legislation is being so vigorously agitated in these two provinces that the appeal to the people will be made under the most favorable conditions. The experience of Ontario and Manitoba should cast new light upon the whole question of referring issues to the voters.

It is easy to read between the lines of Kitchener's dispatch announcing the capture of Methuen, and to see that this reverse has peculiarly bitter features. Methuen was apparently manœuvring for a joint attack with Grenfell against his old enemy De la Rey, was surrounded by a force not greatly superior to his own, and completely routed. Until fuller accounts are received, it will be impossible to say whether the victory is fairly chargeable to De la Rey's brilliant strategy, or whether the defeat is another Magersfontein for Methuen, for which his own negligence is primarily responsible. In any case, the military importance of the affair might easily be exaggerated. The Boers cannot keep prisoners, and the horses, guns, and other supplies are for them the really important spoils of such a victory. The blow to English prestige is severe and humiliating. The capture of a major-general, which in the present case might possibly seem a blessing in disguise, is a minor disaster, when compared with the complete rout of a British detachment with artillery by a practically equal number of Boers—and this without any palliating circumstance. Add to this the fact that the war has long been declared at an end, while the part of the Transvaal in which the defeat occurred is reckoned as "territory partially cleared," and one has the measure of Methuen's discomfiture.

Despite the Emperor's belief that German women should confine themselves entirely to "church, children, and cooking," they show the same tendency to enter industrial life which has manifested itself in other countries. Their political and social activities were recently discussed at length in the Reichstag; the Social Democrats, as usual, acting as the champions of those of the fair sex who are eager to vote. Herr Bebel declared that his party asked nothing for men which it did not ask for women, and asserted that they were quite ready to have a woman as Chancellor. Any woman, he affirmed, would do as well as some of the incumbents the office has had. A new note in the discussion was the admission by the National Liberals that the question is one with which the Reichstag must expect to deal regularly from this time on, particularly in view of the growing intensity of the struggle for existence. As usual, most of the debate bore upon the educational facilities at the disposal of German women. Count Posadowsky, Minister of the Interior, announced that many of the difficulties in the way of their studying medicine had been removed. He counted it a misfortune that the greatest opposition in such matters came from men. He added that in a country where there are a million more women than men, and where many men refuse to marry, much would have to be done to widen the present industrial opportunities for women. He warned them, however, against expecting too much on this point from the lawgivers, because of his belief that the best way of obtaining new openings is through a public recognition of the necessities of the case, and not through legislative enactments.

Italian dispatches indicate that a prompt concession by the Government has averted a general railway strike. This must be taken to mean that Signor Zanardelli hopes to reorganize his Cabinet on the basis of the old alliance with the Socialists. The problem is this: Will the concessions in wages which have been made more than atone, in the eyes of the Socialists, for the recent order putting the railways under military law? It should be remembered that the Italian railways, though owned in great part by the Government, are largely operated by private companies. The operatives, or at least the influential classes of engineers, station masters, switchmen, and guards, form part of the army reserve, and may be assigned summarily to military duty. When the long agitation of the railway men for better terms of employment and higher pay was about to culminate in a general strike, the Government called out the railway reserves and kept them at work under military orders. The censorship of Italian news has been so complete that it is impossible to say what the effect of thus boldly thwarting a general strike has been. To the men at least there was the compensation of receiving, in addition to their regular wages, the pay of soldiers, while the Government has now put itself frankly on the laborers' side by promising to shoulder most of the large increase in pay demanded by the men from the railway companies. The action is extraordinary rather for its magnitude than for the principle involved. The Zanardelli Ministry has consistently maintained a *laisser-faire* attitude towards all strikes which do not seriously menace public order and convenience; and, as in the case of the Sardinian railways, for example, it has always leaned towards the strikers. It is this which has won it the support of the Socialists. The news that the credits for the increase of railroad wages are shortly to be brought to vote follows with significant promptness the report that the Socialists will desert the Government and return to the Opposition. Zanardelli has made a great concession to his fretful allies; a few days will tell whether it is enough.

MR. FOWLER'S BANK BILL.

The bill amendatory of the National Bank Act, prepared by Chairman Fowler and agreed to by the House Committee on Banking and Currency, embraces four features of great importance: (1) the gradual retirement of the greenbacks; (2) a simultaneous issue of banknotes based upon the general assets of banks plus a common guarantee fund equal to 5 per cent. of outstanding circulation; (3) permission to establish branch banks; (4) the interchangeability of silver dollars and gold dollars at the Treasury. All of these are desirable reforms, and all of them will be effected in time. The main question to be considered now is whether the methods proposed are the ones most conducive to the ends sought for, and whether public opinion is in a mood to accept them. Of course Congressmen will not vote for any measure which their constituents do not favor. Hence the prime consideration in all such enterprises is the preparedness of the public mind to accept the proposed changes. On the other hand, the true way to prepare the public mind for any reform is to bring it up for discussion in legislative halls, on the hustings, and in the press.

The reason why the greenbacks should be retired is that their existence is a menace to the stability of the currency, and consequently to the stability of business. Much has been done by the act of March 14, 1900, to put the legal-tender notes beyond the reach of accidents such as befell us in 1893-1896, yet the fact remains that it depends upon the political majority at any time to decide whether the greenbacks shall be redeemed or not. It depends upon the votes of all sorts of people to decide whether the amount of them shall be greater or less than now, or shall remain stationary. These are good reasons for the gradual retirement of the legal-tender notes, but we do not look for a beginning of that process until the lapse of some considerable time, after the passions of the fiat-money and silver controversies shall have been allayed by other issues. When that time comes—when the people shall be prepared to take an impartial view of the greenback currency—they will probably perceive that it is a debt of the United States, and that it ought to be paid and cancelled like any other past-due obligation. When they reach this remarkable conclusion, they will be prepared to pay off the legal-tender notes directly by applying to that purpose a portion of the surplus revenue. We do not believe that they will favor any roundabout measure for accomplishing the object.

If Mr. Fowler's plan for retiring the greenbacks and issuing national bank currency *pari passu* were passed by Congress, we believe that it would work well and accomplish the desirable ends sought, but we believe that it will fail to secure popular approval, because it is circuitous, indirect, and not easily understood by the masses. The bill provides that any national bank that shall assume the current redemption in gold of an amount of United States notes equal to 20 per cent, of its capital may, without depositing United States bonds, immediately issue an amount of banknotes equal to 10 per cent. of its capital. At the end of one year it may issue an additional 10 per cent., and on both issues it shall pay a tax at the rate of one-quarter of 1 per cent. a year. Banks that agree currently to redeem United States notes equal to 20 per cent. of their capital shall at the same time surrender to the United States Treasurer an additional amount of United States notes equal to 10 per cent. of their capital, which shall be at once redeemed from the gold in the general fund of the Treasury, and shall not be reissued, but shall be cancelled and destroyed. The "average man" will perceive that a process is going on for retiring the greenbacks and enlarging the circulation of the national banks. The ins and outs of the scheme he will not understand, but he will put the worst construction upon them, and will therefore refuse to sanction the measure. Such is our apprehension, but we shall be glad if we have underestimated popular intelligence, and if it turns out that the public are prepared for this step. At all events, it is desirable to begin the discussion of a question which must come on soon; for the retirement of the bonded debt of the nation will make it necessary ere long to consider some other method of issuing national banknotes.

A more hopeful part of the bill is that which authorizes branch banks in any part of the United States. No other reform would be so useful as this, although its full efficiency can be realized only by a freer system of note issues than we now have. The Canadian, the Scotch, the French, and the German bank systems find their greatest usefulness in their branches, which collect and distribute capital and lend aid to industry, as a well-contrived plan of irrigation lends aid to agriculture. The United States is fifty years behind the age in this particular.

PROFESSOR MEADE ON THE STEEL COMPANY.

The *Quarterly Journal of Economics* contains a noteworthy article by Prof. Edward Sherwood Meade, of the University of Pennsylvania, on the U. S. Steel Company's capitalization. The thoroughness with which the subject is examined, the exclusion of mere theoretical assumptions, and the originality of some of the conclusions reached, entitle it to careful consideration. We shall say, to begin with, that we are not prepared to go to the same length as Professor Meade in drawing inferences as to the corporation's future. His conclusions are highly unfavorable, but they are based on several premises which remain to be proved, and which will presumably be disputed. Chief among these is the assumption of fluctuations in the steel trade of the future as extreme as those of the last two decades, although Professor Meade admits that there is high authority against the recurrence of so wide a swing of prices. We wish first, however, to outline the ingenious reasoning of the article. Whatever the deductions, it is a valuable contribution to the literature of the Trust question.

In the beginning, Professor Meade makes the point that the Steel Corporation, owning not only its own mills, but its own sources of raw material, is what has been called an integrated industry—that is to say, it is not dependent, even for a portion of its profits, on the market for crude products. Iron ore may advance in price or may decline; the Steel Corporation, owning the ore-beds which supply its mills, can regard either movement with indifference. This fact has been officially pointed out as an element of great strength in the Trust's position, and so it unquestionably is. But Professor Meade draws attention to another consideration, namely, that while the Steel Corporation cannot suffer from exorbitant prices for raw materials, it will not, on the other hand, derive any compensating gain, when prices for finished steel decline, from a simultaneous fall in the price of ore. In short, as Professor Meade states the proposition, "the products of the Steel Trust to-day are produced at ultimate and fundamental cost—a cost . . . which represents only the bare expenses of producing and transporting the various materials." Profits will hereafter be increased or diminished only as economies in manufacture are introduced, or as total sales and average prices rise or fall.

The financial history of a blast-furnace company, vouched for as accurate and as typical of the highest efficiency, is next taken as a basis of comparison. The years reviewed are from 1890 to 1898 inclusive—the first year being the culmination of a "boom" in steel, the second the last of a seven-year period of reaction. To sum up briefly the figures of this table, the price of iron is shown to have fallen from $15.74 per ton in 1890 to $12.31 in 1893, and $9.79 in 1898. The profit per ton declined simultaneously from $2 in 1890 to $1 in 1893, and 76 cents in 1898. The upshot was that, in spite of greatly enlarged production, the annual net earnings, which were $67,928 in 1890, decreased to $25,787 in 1893, and, despite a subsequent fall of 25 per cent. in the cost of raw material, rose only to $32,319 in 1898.

Professor Meade's next effort is to ap-

ply to this company the capitalization of the Steel Corporation. That is to say, he allows the same relative appropriation of annual earnings for sinking fund and surplus as is allowed by the Steel Corporation, and next supposes bonds and preferred and common shares to be outstanding in the same ratio to the company's earnings of 1890 as the Steel Corporation's various forms of capital bore to its earnings of 1901. Reckoning then the 5 per cent. interest charge on the computed bond indebtedness, and 7 and 4 per cent. respectively on the two classes of stock, he finds that the blast-furnace company in question would have earned in the first year a surplus over dividends, charges, and surplus appropriation of $27,170, but would thenceforward have reported a deficit varying from $1,684 in the second year (1891) to $32,512 in 1892, and ending at $18,438 in 1898. Taking the company's capital as assigned, Professor Meade concludes that in 1892 no dividends could properly have been paid, and that thenceforward, to the last year on the list, the cumulative dividend on the preferred stock would have been heaped up as a future charge, without any actual payment on either class of shares.

The inferences drawn, as regards the future of the Steel Corporation's capital, are extremely interesting, but, as we have said already, not altogether conclusive. We have to consider, in the discussion, whether Mr. Meade's assumption that the blast-furnace company selected for his figures is fairly typical, is just. The bankruptcy, in the dark days of the early nineties, of numerous powerful steel-manufacturing companies (some of them now incorporated with the United States concern) gives a good deal of warrant for the comparison. This is at least what would have been the tendency of events ten years ago. The question of largest interest now is whether the steel trade is to witness again the violent fluctuations of the past decade.

Our own judgment is, that the period will not be exactly similar. We are led to this conclusion by examination of the causes which largely brought about the fall in steel and iron after 1890. The controlling influence in that movement was an extreme advance in prices, which called into existence a host of iron and steel mills incapable of producing except at the high prices then prevailing. Continued stimulation of prices by speculators multiplied both the number and output of these mills. When consumption slackened and prices fell, these mills continued to produce; they kept up the output even at a loss, rather than sacrifice their capital. Unsold stocks of iron rose from 247,679 tons at the close of 1889 to 608,921 at the end of 1890, and 711,649 at the end of 1896. All this time, prices, though lower than before, remained sufficiently above the foreign level to handicap the export trade, which made no real expansion in either iron or steel until 1897.

There was some possibility, a few months ago, that this experience might be repeated. The shrewdness of the Steel Corporation's managers, who set their faces resolutely against further rise in prices, prevented it. The truth is, as most people now can see, that the corporation's fight for steady prices meant something more than a mere move for the season's trade. The future stability of the company itself depended very largely on curbing speculative excesses—a truth to which Professor Meade's figures add the greatest emphasis. Ultra-conservatism is the one path to the successful working-out of this very remarkable experiment.

We have hitherto expressed our own regret that circumstances outside of trade considerations should have induced the Steel Corporation's managers to begin its history by paying dividends on the common stock. We have also stated our judgment that a company capitalized on the basis of the most prosperous trade year in a generation needs to be very liberal in its application of earnings to its surplus, and must in any case take its chances regarding dividend payments in the longer future. The Steel Corporation started with a heavy strain on its resources. It is very fortunate for the company that this year's market for its products should have developed demands far beyond what the most sanguine prophet could have foreseen. It is still more fortunate that this tidal wave of prosperity in the iron trade should have failed to sweep away the company's managers from their original position as to prices.

MUNICIPAL VS. NATIONAL PUBLIC LIFE.

Mayor Low's message is one more testimony to the immense appeal which modern municipal government makes to men with a talent for public affairs. Here are the greatest practical problems pressing for solution. The very difficulties are like a thrilling summons to civic patriotism. All the vast and complicated questions of finance and taxation, of transportation, of bridges and tunnels and docks, of water supply and sanitation, of engineering and architecture—the whole round of study and labor required to make New York a city where safety and comfort and beauty shall be as an atmosphere about its residents—what has American public life to offer more fascinating? The task is arduous, but for that reason all the more attractive to men conscious of power. It touches the life and welfare of millions. Success here will be a shot heard round the world. No condition of public service could seem better fitted to stir, as by a trumpet call, the heart of a strong man, ambitious of the general good.

Evidence, indeed, multiplies all over the United States that municipal public life is winning the larger attention and the higher honor which it deserves. The very growth of cities has forced a call for capacity in their administration, and ability is more and more responding to the demand for it. Better organization of city government has come, too, to give executive talent greater scope, and to yield it richer rewards. In definite and tangible result, in effort that tells immediately and that tells long, in direct contributions not only to the theory but to the practice of democratic government, it is really getting to be the case that the mayors and heads of departments of great cities have a field of usefulness opened to them far beyond that which lies, for example, before the average Congressman. Municipal public life is almost outbidding national public life.

Lord Rosebery tells us that such is the case in England also. In a recent speech at Swansea he deliberately asserted that, save in the case of a very few high officials at Westminster, "a man gets much more satisfaction out of municipal than out of Parliamentary work." Lord Rosebery, of course, is an expert in both kinds, his services on the London County Council having been fully as notable as his speeches in the House of Lords. He went on to ask, half banteringly, what pleasure any of his hearers would have got out of a membership in Parliament during the last session:

> "You would have walked a good many miles through the lobbies, breathed a great deal of bad air, you would have heard an indefinite number of bad speeches, you would have given a considerable number of votes dictated by your consciences or by your Parliamentary Whip, you would have voted after free discussion one-eighth, or less than one-eighth, of the expenditure of the country, and at the end of the session, in the middle of August, you would not be able to say what you had done beyond what I have suggested. You could not show one single tangible result of the precious summer months you had wasted in London. And what would you have to look forward to? Two or three addresses to your constituents, the opening of half-a-dozen bazaars, and, possibly, if you were a very popular character, a kick-off at a football match."

In contrast with this barren record, Lord Rosebery set the fruitful activities of even a municipal councillor at Swansea. There were the concrete matters of new streets and lighting and inspection and improving and beautifying the city—all this was not only useful to multitudes of men and women, and that in the directest way, but a most satisfying occupation, and one "worthy of any man's ambition."

We believe that very much the same comparison, to the same effect, could be made in this country. The usual Representative goes the same treadmill round as the average member of Parliament. He figures as one name more on roll-call. He gets his deluge of begging letters.

Offices he cannot secure for one in five hundred of his applicants, and so he trudges over to the Agricultural Department to send seeds or cuttings to his constituents—seeds being, as one cynical Congressman observed, "the only thing at Washington not in the classified service." The ordinary member of Congress is, in short, simply lost and whelmed at the national capital. He votes as his party leaders bid him, he makes his little speech on "pension-bill nights" to empty seats and drowsy galleries, he goes through the petty and weariful routine of the session, and has little to show for it. No wonder that an eager spirit chafes at the great waste of energy involved in all this, and sometimes confesses, as one of the most successful Representatives recently did, that he had grown infinitely tired of the whole vain show, and was about ready to "give up being a great man at Washington," for the sake of going to some busy city to practise law.

Contrast with this the concrete work which every day appeals to and absorbs the powers of the Mayor of New York, the Presidents of the Boroughs, and the heads of departments. Their chief business is not to discuss and vote, but to do things. When they do vote, they vote, not on a question of party policy, but on the tangible thing that shall take body in consequence. Under their touch, bridges leap over the rivers, and tunnels burrow under the streets, stately structures rise for school and hospital, and a noble water-front stretches its docks and piers north and south, while a water-supply is brought from afar. A municipal administrator, at the end of his term, has visible results like these to point to as the crown of his labors and his pride. Ask him where his monument is, and he has but to say, *Circumspice.*

It is, we say, only the exceptional and rare man in national public life to whom such opportunities and such worthy ambitions present themselves. The city bulks larger, in fact, than ever before in the appreciation of Americans. This is as it should be. It must always be more important to have good government at our doors than to attempt merely to direct national policy aright. And the increasing appeal which municipal public life makes to our best and strongest will call into the service of our cities a distinctly higher order of talent, provided only that the citizens show steadiness of purpose enough to make a career for it, both stable and rewarding, and sense enough to delight to honor him that cleanseth a city above one that merely taketh it. Even as it is, the attractions of high office in the municipalities have already drawn men who have done much to take away our old reproach. This has been lately repeated by the French writer, Émile Boutmy, who asserts that only the morally and intellectually inferior are found in our public service. He thinks that this is a result of our having been an "economic society" rather than a "political society," and that our ablest men have found too many prizes elsewhere to give their time to public administration. There is doubtless truth in this; but what we are concerned to remark now is that conditions are changing, that our cities are more and more able to command the abilities of their more capable sons, and that, as the case now stands, a man of parts and ambition need hope for no prouder distinction than to be able to say, "I have done some service to the city, and they know it."

"DOCTOR'S-DISSERTATION ENGLISH."

"Doctor's-dissertation English" is a phrase coined by Prof. J. Franklin Jameson of the University of Chicago. In his recent convocation address, "The Influence of Universities upon Historical Writing," he said:

> "I have read a good many doctoral dissertations, and a good many historical articles offered by young *Gelehrten* to an historical review. Almost always these are written in a style 'that would have made Quintilian stare and gasp.' Indeed, the experienced observer is aware of a distinct dialect, doctor's-dissertation English, a compound made up as are Chinook and Pidgin English, insufficiently studied as yet, but apparently composed of good English, the scholastic jargon of a specialty, and undergraduate slang. It may be that the years will work upon these minds a clarifying process like that mysterious alchemy which, I am informed, takes medical students mostly wicked and transforms them into doctors mostly good."

It is to be hoped that Professor Jameson himself will find time to expand this *obiter dictum* into an adequate discussion. During his editorship of the *American Historical Review* he must have drunk deep at wells of English impure and much defiled.

His statement, just quoted, leaves untouched the principal reasons for the astounding futility of the average doctor's dissertation. No mere compound of scholastic jargon and slang can ever exert such soporific power. Indeed, the vocabulary which Professor Jameson describes may entertain by its very vivacity and novelty. No, the trouble lies deeper than words; it permeates every part of the structure. When the young *Gelehrte* writes, his sentences are vast, tangled, and unwieldy, so that reading them is like cutting through a tropic jungle; his paragraphs are equally shapeless, without beginning, middle, or end—conglomerate heaps of half-related ideas. Indeed, throughout his whole dissertation he sets down one fact after another, sometimes without arrangement, often without proportion and without emphasis. If he takes such a vital question as "Shaksperian Criticism from Thomas Rymer to Hamilton W. Mabie," he solemnly and painfully crawls from critic to critic, and after he is done he apparently understands as little of the whole trend of criticism as the worm which eats from elm-leaf to elm-leaf understands of the structure of the tree.

The truth is that these glaring faults are simply the sign of trouble within. The *Gelehrte* has nothing whatever to say, and, of course, he is completely gravelled in his attempt to keep up false appearances. He presents the most piteous spectacle known to the learned world, as he wanders helplessly up and down in the blank and trackless desert of his dissertation. His hopeless bewilderment is a result of his being crushed between two millstones. He finds the heads of colleges and schools more and more insistent that their teachers shall have the doctor's degree, partly for the sake of the higher training, and partly for the sake of a pretentious show in the faculty list. On the other hand, he must meet the demands of colleges that the little doctors whom they are grinding out by the dozen shall each make a "contribution" to the knowledge of his subject. The job of advancing the limits of knowledge in these days of extreme specialization is a heavy one; and when the average commonplace young candidate for a doctorate attacks it, he must either fail wretchedly, or his professors must exercise extraordinary charity in interpreting the word "contribution."

Take a case in point. As a subject for a doctor's dissertation, "Descriptions of Natural Scenery by Nineteenth Century Novelists" is fairly suitable. Suppose a student who laboriously draws through the leading novels a fine-tooth comb, notes all the descriptions, monotonously enumerates them under such headings as "Dickens," "Thackeray," and "Meredith," and then is so muddle-headed that he cannot make any clear or interesting inference from his mass of facts. To be sure, he has shown abundant good will, and has performed an eye-reddening and back-breaking task; but his zeal hardly warrants his amiable professors in dubbing the monument of his wasted energy a "contribution," in bestowing the degree, and in urging him to inflict the dreary section about Meredith on the editor of the *Nation.* True, Columbia and one or two other universities are trying hard to make the dissertations like books in style and substance, as well as in size, and Harvard sets the example of placing the master's degree for work done as a half-way post at which all but the most promising runners are stopped; but these are voices crying in the wilderness. In short, the competition to manufacture paper scholars is so keen that scores of colleges are swept into it; whereas, everybody knows that the American universities which invariably enforce a proper requirement for the doctor's degree may be counted

on the fingers of a single hand which has suffered considerably from amputation.

There are two paths of escape from present evils. If school authorities will be less eager to make a gaudy display of goods in their shop windows, they will not drive young men who are respectable teachers, but who are by no means original investigators, to desperate assaults upon the doctor's degree. If college authorities will weigh their degrees, instead of counting them, they will not encourage foolhardy and feeble endeavor and bestow diplomas as a reward for it. But both these paths are blocked by the present state of public opinion in and out of college—by our fierce hankering for show, for empty titles. Therefore, until we are all of a saner mind, we shall probably continue to ask our hapless young *Gelehrten* to write contributions that do not contribute, and that are original only because no one else has descended to such depths of folly. They will obediently continue to produce doctors' dissertations that are miracles of dulness and inconsequence, and will receive in return certificates for the most distinguished scholarship.

GERMAN DRAMATIC ART.

CLEVELAND, March 6, 1902.

It is, indeed, surprising to read in the *Nation* of February 27 that Prof. Kuno Francke thinks Björnson's "Beyond Our Strength" "should point the way toward the goal of the German drama"; that in this way it will " free itself from the shackles of sentimentality and conventional formality." Professor Francke has given us, in his 'German Literature as Determined by Social Forces,' by far the most incisive study and lucid statement of the subject that we have in English. The question naturally arises, Has he not allowed the great social force of the two parts of Björnson's "Ueber unsre Kraft" to bias him unconsciously as to their artistic and dramatic standard?

Both parts of "Ueber unsre Kraft" are very deficient in poetic conception, dramatic form, and artistic exposition. It would be hard to find two more poorly constructed plays; they are so lacking in the essential characteristic of the drama, unity of action, as not to merit the designation of dramas. The first part is in two acts, one of which consists of little more than the monologue of a woman lying ill in bed; other persons are around her, but as mere foils. The second part is in four acts, the fourth of which is a mere moral tag after the extremely melodramatic catastrophe at the real end of the play, where forty people are blown up by a revengeful servant in a palatial mansion. The first part is very sentimental, and the second very conventional; these are just the two things which modern German drama has suffered from, and must seek to avoid. Why, then, commend them as beacon-lights on the road to its goal? At the celebration of the fiftieth production of the first part, as well as at the *première* of the second part, in the Berliner Theater last winter, many dissenting hisses were heard amid the plaudits of approbation. Of course, the plays still draw large crowds, for they both contain vital problems expressed in such a sentimental and sensational way that they must ever appeal to the mob. But Professor Francke will remember, from his own excellent essay on "Bismarck as a National Type" ('Glimpses of Modern German Culture'), that the great artist in statecraft was wont to say that he felt doubtful about himself whenever he met with popular applause.

Fortunately for the German drama, no German dramatist of merit has been led astray by the religious fanaticism of the first part of Björnson's play, nor the social sentimentalism of the second. Even more fortunately, the gospel of Tolstoy has found but little favor among the German dramatists, with the exception of Arno Holz, Johannes Schlaf, and Karl Hauptmann, who have proved incapable of developing their palpably borrowed ideas. Tolstoy's 'Die Macht der Finsternis' contains but a scanty message for any country except Russia.

Neither Sudermann nor Hauptmann has attained as yet the artistic excellence of which they both gave promise. The latter seems too weak, the former too strong for real artistic expression of ideas; the one has too little to say, the other too much. Since the "Versunkene Glocke," Hauptmann has produced nothing of either intrinsic or artistic worth. "Fuhrmann Henschel" was a fall from the superb heights of real poetry to the lowlands of prosaic commonplace. "Schluck und Jan" was an ineffectual attempt to unite Shakspere's fancy and Grillparzer's technique in a dream-play; "Michael Kramer," a gruesome and rather trite monologue on the significance of art and death. "Der rote Hahn" is a mere continuation of "Der Biberpelz," with all its exquisite irony diluted into insipidity. Hauptmann is weak mentally and physically. Never shall I forget his appearance at the *première* of "Michael Kramer," at the Deutsches Theater, last winter, in Berlin. A tall, thin man, clad almost like a priest; the face pale and worn, the eyes intensely sad and always cast down. A shrinking timidity and a feminine spirituality were his characteristics of manner and appearance. He seems to have exhausted himself in the passionate travail of producing his masterpiece, the "Versunkene Glocke," which is, indeed, exquisite art.

Sudermann has developed into the most skilful playwright in Germany; withal he brings forth in each new play much thought, more or less deep. But he has descended artistically from the heights attained in "Johannes" and "Die drei Reiherfedern." "Johannisfeuer" is a fine study of heredity and environment in Ibsen's best manner, but contains several scenes rather more theatrical than dramatic. "Es lebe das Leben" is really a *Todtentanz*, for grim death lurks in almost every line; it is most intense and most improbable. In it Sudermann actually solves his problem by the inevitable realistic sole solution for all evils—suicide—against which he himself so energetically protested in "Die Ehre." Sudermann is a very strong man mentally and physically. He is a giant of strength, with a massive head and heavy beard. When he delivered his oration on the censorship of the press last winter before the Goetheverein in the Berlin Philharmonie, his manner was most bold, and his voice simply thundered around the vast auditorium. From him we may yet expect great things.

But the real dramatic artists in Germany to-day are neither Sudermann nor Hauptmann; neither Max Halbe, whose "Jugend" and "Mutter Erde" are true pictures of modern life, but lack artistic finish, nor Hartleben, whose popular "Rosenmontag" is dangerously near melodrama, nor Otto Ernst, whose "Flachsmann als Erzieher" is almost farcical in places, nor Wilbrandt, with his hybrid style, vacillating between realism and symbolism, nor Wildenbruch, with all his noble figures and brilliant pageants—but they are Ludwig Fulda and Arthur Schnitzler. Neither has the strength of Sudermann nor the poetic insight of Hauptmann, but both are artists to their finger-tips.

Fulda began his dramatic career with all the realism of the "youngest Germans," with modern social dramas, "Das verlorene Paradies" and "Die Sklavin." His success was assured, but, evidently disgusted with this prostitution of his genius, he turned to his true forte, the romantic Märchendrama of which Raimund had been the chief exponent, and which reached its apotheosis in Grillparzer's remarkable "Der Traum ein Leben." Fulda's "Talisman" is a Märchendrama in verse, containing some of the finest dramatic poetry since Grillparzer, and also the keenest political satire in any drama of to-day. Had Kaiser Wilhelm II. ever read the play, he would certainly forbid its performance. And all this bold exposition and deep thought is given us in a work of exquisite art. It was Fulda, with his "Talisman" (1893), who first started the healthy return to modern Romanticism; Hauptmann followed his lead with the "Versunkene Glocke" (1896), and Sudermann with "Die drei Reiherfedern" (1898). But to do Fulda justice in so short a sketch as this is impossible. Suffice it to say that by far the most artistic drama brought out in Berlin last winter was his comedy, "Die Zwillingschwester," with Agnes Sorma in the double rôle at the Lessing Theater. Those who were present will never forget that *première*. After all the socialistic rant of Tolstoy's "Macht der Finsternis," the depressing gloom of Hauptmann's "Michael Kramer," the tedious horror of Schlaf's "Meister Oelze," the sensational sentimentalism of Björnson's "Ueber unsre Kraft"—here at last was a work of art refreshing and inspiring.

Arthur Schnitzler is as yet almost unknown, but whoever has read and studied his latest work, "Der Schleier der Beatrice," a tragedy in verse of the Italian cinquecento, must agree that he is an artist, as the Germans say, "von Gottes Gnaden," by the grace of God. To arouse interest in him, let me cite the two concluding lines of his great drama, which sum up the spirit of the Italian Renaissance better than most long-winded histories of that fascinating time:

"Das Leben ist die Fülle, nicht die Zeit,
Und noch der nächste Augenblick ist weit."

"Life is the fulness thereof, not the time, and even the nearest moment is far away."

EDWARD STOCKTON MEYER.

Correspondence.

OUR DUTY TO CUBA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The debt of satisfaction and instruction due the *Nation* for many years of entertainment is not to be discharged or repudiated for any slight cause, and yet it seems to me that the strength of language in this week's second editorial (first page) cannot be justified by any real facts. Is it a slip of the pen or a burst of enthusiasm that prompts you to say that the "dilatory House [of Representatives] is doing its best to bring bankruptcy and misery upon the island [of Cuba]"?

The proposition which I understand you to support with so much vigor is, in effect, to levy or maintain a sugar-tax of many annual millions on seventy millions of Americans, and hand over a third or half of it, as a rebate, subsidy, or gift, to the eight million Cuban aliens—in other words, to present them with the means of avoiding work, attaining wealth, and supporting their Government at our sole expense, we having already expended some lives and a few hundred millions in conquering for them their independence from Spain, after they had demonstrated their inability to get it for themselves. If your proposition is not here stated correctly, then the alternative must be to give up to them many millions of the best and surest public revenue we have, and maintain in its place taxes at war rates upon ourselves. Whatever the details proposed, the gist of the scheme is the support of a so-called Cuban Government of negroes and mulattoes for an indefinite period by the United States.

Your severity of statement falls upon all those Americans—whether in or out of Congress—who object to the scheme; that is, who see neither duty nor advantage in pampering alien peoples or paying for foreign governments in which they have no share, with taxes wrung from their own earnings. It appears to me that neither Lord North, nor George III., nor any other reckless tyrant ever devised a more predaceous scheme of "taxation without representation." If Congress can lawfully tax us, directly or indirectly, for the support of a foreign people, there cannot be one shred remaining of constitutional restriction on the fiscal powers of a Government falsely pretending to be representative and constitutional. At all events, it is a scheme respecting which honest differences of opinion must prevail that are entitled to respectful treatment.

I have no interest in sugar, except as a domestic consumer, and, like you, am no protectionist; but the project of taxing ourselves to support a foreign people of different race is protectionism in its most obnoxious form, and would be but stupidly disguised by the fraudulent device of tax manipulation in place of openly collecting the money and paying it over. If I decline to contribute alms to a street beggar, I might be stigmatized with more or less justice, but without absurdity, as mean or unfeeling; but surely it would be an abuse of words to charge me—as you substantially charge Congressional conservatives—with "doing my best to bring bankruptcy and misery upon the" beggar.

Not merely soundness of judgment, but fairness and precision of statement, have ever distinguished the *Nation* from the vulgar irresponsibility of the political press, and you must have many readers who, like me, appreciate such distinction, and would feel it as a severe personal misfortune if those sober qualities should come to be sacrificed or impaired, even in the strain and din of public discussion. I. J. W.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH 8, 1902.

[The foregoing would be sound enough, on general principles, but the particular modifying facts are that, as President Roosevelt says, we have "inherited" the whole Cuban difficulty from the McKinley Administration, including the definite promise to grant tariff reductions on Cuban products; also, that a *quid pro quo* is to be had in the shape of tariff favors for our exports to Cuba. In other words, the "beggar" is, in reality, a peddler seeking to swap goods, to mutual advantage.—ED. NATION.]

YALE AT THE FORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your excellent and discriminating notice of the Johns Hopkins celebration, in the *Nation* for February 27, contains the following sentence:

"President Gilman, then, was free to found an institution, unique in its day in America, of which productive scholarship should be the informing idea—free to take immediately the step which President Eliot, inspired even then by the same ambition, has since been able to take in the Harvard Graduate School."

Harvard University and President Eliot may rightly claim the position of general educational leadership during the quarter-century just past, but it is none the less fair to give due emphasis to the services of other institutions. The first American university to offer systematic non-professional instruction for graduates was undoubtedly Yale, where, under the inspiring influence of President Woolsey, the degree of doctor of philosophy was conferred, "upon examination," as early as 1861 (at Harvard not till 1870). The names of some of the earliest Yale doctors, Eugene Schuyler, James M. Whiton, and Arthur W. Wright, in 1861, Josiah W. Gibbs and Lewis R. Packard in 1863, are a sufficient guarantee of the character of the work then done at Yale. President Gilman himself was a professor at Yale from 1863 to 1872, and the splendid institution which he created at Baltimore may well be called the child of the earlier movement at New Haven. I may add that, in spite of hampering poverty and of troublesome administrative scruples during the years 1871-1886, the Yale Graduate School has grown and broadened, till in the present year Yale enrolls a larger number of graduate students than any of our older universities, save only metropolitan Columbia. PH.D.

BERKELEY, CAL., March 5, 1902.

LORD DURHAM'S REPORT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue for February 27 Mr. J. Davis Barnett of Stratford, Ontario, asks for confirmation of a Canadian legend that "the writing of Lord Durham's Report was in the main by Christopher Dunkin, a teacher in Greek at Harvard in 1837." In reply, permit me to say that I remember hearing, many years ago, while a young man living in the city of Quebec, that the late Mr. Justice Dunkin (who died at Knowlton, in that province, January 6, 1881), had had something to do with the preparation of that famous document. Other names were also mentioned, including that of the late Mr. Stewart Derbishire, afterwards a member of the Canadian Parliament, and, at the period of his death, Queen's Printer for Canada. But I do not think that either of these gentlemen, or any other, apart from Lord Durham himself and his chief official secretary, Charles Buller, had any considerable share in the undertaking; my reason being, in Mr. Dunkin's case, that, having been appointed Secretary of the Education Commission called into being by Lord Durham, his whole time would have been taken up with that branch of inquiry during the five months that his Lordship remained in the country. Moreover, in a memorandum of his public services which he supplied to me, as editor of the 'Canadian Parliamentary Companion,' while he was still in active public life, he made no mention of the circumstance; and as he was known in official circles as the "Demon of Detail," it would be very unlike him not to mention it, supposing that any foundation had existed for the story.

On the whole, it may, I think, be taken for granted that to the master hand of Charles Buller is to be attributed the credit for the framing and putting together of the major portion of what we must rightly regard as the Magna Charta of Canadian liberty and freedom. In fact, there never was any doubt expressed on the subject among the many with whom I conversed in the old days on this and kindred topics, including such well-informed statesmen and public men as the late Hon. Henry Black, C.B. (who was offered a seat in Lord Durham's Special Council), the late Stewart Derbishire, the late William Bristow, the late Hon. Joseph Howe, and the late Sir John A. Macdonald. All were of one mind, and most emphatic in their declarations.—Yours faithfully,

HENRY J. MORGAN.

483 BANK ST., OTTAWA, March 6, 1902.

THE TRUST OF GIRARD COLLEGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the matter of "Perpetual Educational Trusts," about which you have written, and in relation to which Prof. Ewald Flügel of Stanford University, California, wrote you on February 12, I beg to send in this mail a copy of the proceedings in connection with the fiftieth anniversary of the opening of Girard College.

This institution, provided for in Mr. Girard's will, was formally opened in 1848, and has been in successful operation since then. Examining the will, page 118, etc., you will find exceeding great detail, not only in the matter of the construction of the several buildings, but also in connection with the organization and future management of the College. Having, on page 137, etc., indicated the purposes of his endowment, and the details for its management, he adds, on page 140, "In relation to the organization of the College and its

appendages, I leave, necessarily, many details to the Mayor, Aldermen, and citizens of Philadelphia and their successors." Under this clause material modifications have been made in the curriculum and in the general administration of affairs, so that the graduates of the institution might be prepared to meet the changed conditions of modern life. Strict adherence to the literal provisions of Mr. Girard's will would have minimized the advantages flowing from his endowment, and the clause leaving many details to the managers of the institution has been of great advantage.

Permit me also to call your attention to the fact that, while this, perhaps the most magnificent endowment in the United States, is called a "college," we receive boys as young as six years of age, but not older than ten years of age, and that they graduate as young as fourteen years of age, and that all of them must leave the institution when they become eighteen years of age.

By legislative enactment passed in 1869 (see page 158, etc.) the management of the College was placed in the control of a board called the "Board of Directors of City Trusts," thereby securing greater permanency of administration.

Yours truly,

LOUIS WAGNER, President.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF CITY TRUSTS,
PHILADELPHIA, March 5, 1902.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish shortly 'Music in the History of the Western Church,' with an introduction on religious music among primitive and ancient peoples, by Prof. Edward Dickinson of Oberlin College.

'The True Aaron Burr,' by Charles Burr Todd, is announced by A. S. Barnes & Co.

'A Grand-Duchess and her Court,' by Frances Gerard, which E. P. Dutton & Co. will presently bring out, is a biography of Anna Amalie of Saxe-Weimar.

A volume of short stories by Maxim Gorky, 'Twenty-Six and One,' is in the press of J. F. Taylor & Co.

The Brown-Merrill Co. will issue 'Forces in Fiction,' by Richard Burton.

The Grafton Press have nearly ready 'The Mobile Boer,' by Capts. John A. Hassell and A. R. I. Hiley; 'The Land of Nome,' of gold-seeking fame, by Lanier McKee; 'The Worth of Words,' by Dr. Ralcy Husted Bell; and 'Love Songs and Other Poems,' by Owen Innsley.

Prince Henry's cramming for his visit to this country having embraced Mr. J. F. Muirhead's 'America the Land of Contrasts,' the publisher, Mr. John Lane, has thought a third edition of this genial but not fulsome work timely. Mr. Muirhead's penultimate chapter, we remark, is styled "Baedekeriana," as dealing with "subjects related to the tourist and the guidebook," and reflects the competent observation of the compiler of 'Baedeker's Handbook to the United States.' It is a comparison of the traveller's creature comforts here and in the Old World, not always to our advantage. Mr. Lane has just ready 'The Book of the Apple,' by H. H. Thomas, and 'Of Gardens: An Essay,' by Mrs. Caldwell Crofton.

Immediately forthcoming from D. Appleton & Co. are 'Deep-Sea Plunderings,' by Frank T. Bullen; 'The Nearer East,' by D. G. Hogarth; 'The History of the Louisiana Purchase,' by James K. Hosmer; 'The Living Races of Mankind,' by H. N. Hutchinson; 'General Forrest,' by J. Harvey Mather; 'The Earth's Beginning,' by Sir R. S. Ball; and 'Practical Forestry,' by Prof. John Gifford.

A paper by Thoreau, "The Service," declined for the *Dial* by Margaret Fuller, and never published, is to be handsomely printed at the Merrymount Press for Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston, in limited editions. Mr. F. B. Sanborn will furnish an introduction.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, are now bringing out the second series of John Heneage Jesse's Memoirs, the first having already been published by them in a popular form.

A new edition of Lewis and Clark's Journals, following the Philadelphia edition of 1814, supervised by Dr. James K. Hosmer, who will provide an introduction and an index, and of Hennepin's Travels, edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites, after the edition of 1698, are fall enterprises of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. add to their limited "special editions" a reprint of Lowell's remarkable Birmingham address on Democracy. The long Elzevir form of the little volume is attractive, but the page is too narrow to display properly the really beautiful old-style font which has been cut especially for this reprint. Otherwise the making of the volume is in every way tasteful. The handsome letter-press has and needs no other enhancement than that which a sparing use of printer's ornaments and of rubrication affords. The binding is of sober gray boards, with a fawn back, and the edition is limited to 500 numbered copies. The prefatory note is by the late Horace E. Scudder, and recalls vividly that constant grace and scholarly amenity which he never failed to lend to his routine editorial tasks.

The two latest additions to the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics" are Goldsmith's Plays in a single volume, with brief but excellent notes; and Bunyan's 'The Holy War Made by Shaddai upon Diabolus,' best of the aftermath of the 'Pilgrim's Progress.' In both cases, the reprint is from first, or virtually first, editions. Bunyan's portrait accompanies his allegory.

The trade catalogues of J. Pearson & Co., London, are of the kind worth cherishing as books in and for themselves, in view of their elegant appearance and bibliographical information. Such is that newly issued entitled 'Very Choice Books,' remarkable for its illustrations of fine bindings, along with facsimiles of title-pages and MSS. We may not particularize the contents, but No. 197 is the original MS. of R. L. Stevenson's "The Feast of Famine," composed in Tahiti; while No. 205 is the (bound) proof-sheets of Voltaire's poem, "La Bataille de Fontenoy" (Paris, 1745).

Dr. Dennis's 'Centennial Survey of Foreign Missions' (Revell Co.) is an elaborate statistical supplement, with illustrations and maps, to his 'Christian Missions and Social Progress,' and gives in tabular form a really admirable statement of the present situation in Protestant missions. It is unfortunate only in that the large fact of Roman Catholic foreign missions is ignored, and the word "evangelical" used for "Protestant." The Roman Church certainly shows little courtesy or respect to other organizations, but that is no reason why Protestants should retort, and unchurch it in turn.

Mr. F. E. Kidder, C. E., known to all persons engaged in building as the author of the 'Architects' and Builders' Pocket-Book' and a two-volume work on 'Building Construction and Superintendence,' has made for William T. Comstock's publishing house a practical sort of book on 'Churches and Chapels.' It deals with the planning of such buildings and their construction, the hanging of visible roofs from the real roof, or the supporting of them upon the walls (with at least one most extraordinary drawing, a curiosity of false perspective), with seating, heating, the hanging of bells, the placing of clocks and of pulpits. With these and the very bold suggestions as to novel plans of Sunday-school and church, the reader should be satisfied. It has been thought right, however, to introduce in chapter ii. an appeal to him to deal with churches in a churchmanlike spirit; as well as to give special though brief notice to the supposed requirements of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the way of interior design.

'A First Book upon the Birds of Oregon and Washington,' by William Rogers Lord (Office of the J. K. Gill Co., Portland, Oregon), gives untechnical brief descriptions of 148 birds. The size, song, habitat, and color of each species are noted, and some little account of feeding and nesting habits is added. In conclusion there are a chapter on domesticating and taming birds, a key for identifying species, and an outline for a course in bird study. The book has been introduced into the Oregon public schools for supplementary reading, and appears in a second and improved edition. As the only handbook for the region, it will doubtless be of great value to the enthusiastic bird student; but because of its inadequacy of illustration, bareness of description, and lack of order in the arrangement of species, it does not appear likely to hold the attention of the average school child.

The new 'Lehrbuch der Meteorologie,' by Dr. Julius Hann of Vienna (Leipzig: Tauchnitz), is one of those excellent treatises to which the reviewer can give only the heartiest praise. It presents a conservative and philosophical treatment of all departments of meteorology, and an epitome of its progress during the last forty years. Abundant extracts and citations make the book a most serviceable guide to original sources. Like Bartholomew's 'Atlas of Meteorology' (the first part of his projected Physical Atlas), published a few years ago, Hann's 'Lehrbuch' at once takes rank as indispensable to all who seriously pursue the scientific study of the atmosphere.

Malwida von Meysenbug's recently published volume entitled 'Individualitäten' (Berlin and Leipzig: Schuster & Loeffler), consists of five studies of distinguished men and women, embodying personal recollections or the results of historical investigations. The first paper, on "Nietzsche," is by far the most successful of the many attempts to trace the moral and intellectual development of this remarkable character, leading to the gradual derangement and final eclipse of his brilliant faculties. It is

a proof of her keen psychological insight that neither warm friendship nor the thorough appreciation of his powers blinded our author to foretokens of the impending evil long before it was generally anticipated by his admirers. Indeed, the idiosyncrasies which excited the enthusiasm of his disciples filled her with alarm as premonitions of insanity. The second and longest chapter, "Frauen," is a most interesting and instructive account of the artistic and scholarly achievements of women centuries ago, especially in Italy, beginning in the twelfth century with the Medical School of Salerno (the famous Schola Salernitana), of which some of the most distinguished professors and many of the students were women, and which was the nursery of medical science and the model of medical instruction for all Europe, and ending with the epoch of the Renaissance at the close of the sixteenth century. The gallery of portraits includes also several celebrities of the nineteenth century, and is followed by delineations of the grandnephew of Cardinal Mazarin, Louis Mancini Mazarini, a diplomatist of the eighteenth century, now quite forgotten; Prince Kropotkin, and other Russian revolutionists; and Joseph Mazzini. It is to be regretted that a book with so rich and varied contents should have been published without an index.

A large quarto volume of 290 pages, 'Pétrarque,' by Prince D'Essling and Eugène Müntz, has just been published by the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, in Paris. It treats Petrarch chiefly from an artistic point of view, and aims to show his influence upon the artists of his time, and the impulse given by him to artistic production. The illustrations consist of twenty-one full-page plates and 181 engravings in the text, those of the "Trionfi" being especially fine. The edition comprises 260 numbered copies, 10 on Japanese paper.

The extraordinary dustfall in Europe a year ago (March 9-12, 1901) has been studied by Hellmann and Meinardus, whose memoir has lately appeared in the *Abhandlungen* of the Royal Prussian Meteorological Institute. It is shown beyond dispute that the dust came from the Sahara, and not from South America, as the famous Ehrenberg concluded for similar dustfalls many years ago. Dust storms were observed in the Algerian Sahara during the days immediately preceding the dustfall in Europe. South of the Alps there was a stormy sirocco; further north, the lower air was relatively quiet, but the higher currents were strong from the south, their velocity of seventy kilometres an hour agreeing with the rate at which the dusty area was extended northward. The microscopic analysis of the dust showed it to be of a mineral composition such as the Sahara could furnish. Around the Mediterranean the dust fell during the dry sirocco, but further north, especially in northern Germany, the dust came down with rain and snow. Most of it fell south of the Alps. Further north the size and the specific gravity of the particles were reduced. The average weight of a grain of quartz dust in northern Germany was 1:3,200,000,000 gramme. The total fall is estimated to have weighed 2,000,000 tons.

The Copenhagen *Politiken* reports that the only one of the five proposed Nobel Institutes now in operation is the Literary, and this consists as yet chiefly of a large library, purchased recently in various parts of Europe by Professor Warburg, at a cost of four hundred thousand kronen, and embracing almost exclusively belles-lettres, especially of modern times. In this department the collection is the most complete in the world. The new library has been deposited in a new and massive building, modelled after structures of the Middle Ages and the Wasa period. The library is in charge of eight men of letters, who are appointed by the Swedish Academy.

Although the year 1909 is still far distant, two of the leading universities of Germany are preparing to celebrate centennial anniversaries on an extensive scale at that time. These are Berlin, which, the youngest of the universities of the Fatherland with the exception of Bonn, will be one hundred years old, and Leipzig, which, the oldest with the sole exception of Heidelberg, will have passed its semi-millennial milestone. Both had interesting beginnings, Berlin being the child of hope in the darkest days of the Napoleonic era, and Leipzig, in 1409, the result of the emigration of two thousand German students from Prague, on account of difficulties with the Bohemian section of the institution in that city. In Berlin a special committee has been appointed, with representatives from all the four faculties, with the understanding that their chief work shall be the preparation of a history of the University, and the Leipzig budget for 1902 and 1903 sets aside a good sum for the coming jubilee. In reality, the University of Halle might celebrate its fourth centennial during the current twelvemonth, as the University of Wittenberg, of which the Halle institution is the continuation, was founded in 1502. However, no special celebration is contemplated.

The Linguistic Survey of India has been mainly occupied during the past year on the languages of Assam, Eastern Bengal, and Upper Burma. "Grammars and vocabularies have been prepared, and specimens edited, of some ninety languages, of most of which little but the names have hitherto been known." Among the new dialects unearthed is one in which conjugation is partly carried out by infixes instead of by the customary prefixes. The results of the survey strongly corroborate the theory, maintained by Dr. Hoernle, of a second Aryan invasion of India, the language of the newcomers being the "main parent of the classical Sanskrit." The extraordinarily complex character of the linguistic condition of the country is revealed by the fact that the list of the known dialects of India, compiled for the purposes of the Survey, contains 721 entries!

The thirteenth session of the International Congress of Americanists will be held in the halls of the American Museum of Natural History, New York city, October 20-25, 1902. Communications on the archæology, ethnology, and early history of the two Americas may be oral or written, and in French, German, Spanish, Italian, or English. All persons interested to become members of the Congress may do so by signifying their desire to Mr. Marshall H. Saville, General Secretary of the Commission of Organization, American Museum of Natural History, New York, and remitting either direct to the Treasurer (Mr. Harlan I. Smith, American Museum of Natural History), or through the General Secretary, the sum of three dollars.

—Mr. William Roscoe Thayer contributes to the March *Atlantic* an eminently readable paper on "Dante as a Lyric Poet," somewhat strenuous in its polemic against the idea of scholarship which would have the would-be scholar read "not the originals, but the reviews of critiques of commentaries on the originals," though, perhaps, not without sufficient provocation. Dante's power and range as a lyrist Mr. Thayer would account for largely by his intense interest and participation in the life about him, during the years when the commentators would have us believe that his passion for Beatrice had shut him out from all other thoughts, "now plunged in gloom, now fainting or seeing visions, for ever sighing and weeping, and more than once stark mad." The paper is valuable for the emphasis which it throws upon a side of Dante's life and work too apt to be neglected, and still more valuable for its timely plea in behalf of direct study and enjoyment of great art, as against the misplaced erudition which "continually thrusts upon us irrelevancies whose only excuse is that they are facts." In the "Confessions of a Provincial Editor" we have a lively setting forth of the alleged impossibility of any such thing as even a moderate degree of independence in the press of a city of ordinary size and character; but the picture would be more convincing if the writer were not obliged to confess that he hauled down the flag of his ideals at the very first shot from the enemy, without anything worthy the name of resistance. Mr. William C. Dreher's "Letter from Germany" gives a suggestive description of the feeling produced in that country by our refusal to make any material tariff concessions, displaying an attitude on the part of Americans "so incomprehensible to the German mind that the conclusion is general here that our tariff policy is swayed by selfish interests outside the Government." Goldwin Smith contributes his recollections of the feeling in England during our civil war, and puts matters in a more favorable light than the customary view of the past would admit, so far as British official circles are concerned.

—'The Teaching of History' (Macmillan) is a thin but weighty volume, which contains essays by nine graduates of Oxford and Cambridge. As most of the writers are still engaged in lecturing at their own universities, their opinions on pedagogical matters are likely to have been formed by recent practical experience. Not only are they themselves products of the historical revival in England, but they are now carrying forward by their own efforts the good work which was begun at Oxford and Cambridge a generation ago. Lord Acton was to have been the editor of the series, in co-operation with Mr. W. A. J. Archbold. However, as ill-health prevented him from contributing any word of his own, the task of writing a general introduction was placed in the hands of Professor Maitland, who discharged it, as Mr. Archbold says, "under circumstances which make our obligations to him the greater." This introductory essay, though largely occupied with an account of historical studies in the past, contains some pithy observations concerning the difference between good history and bad, the need of training a young

historian properly, and the expansion of the historical field. "To make Gibbons or Macaulays may be impossible; but it cannot be beyond the power of able teachers to set in the right path many of those who, say what we will, are going to write history well or are going to write it ill." Professor Maitland lays no special stress upon his own subject of Constitutional law. Indeed, one is chiefly impressed by the catholicity of his utterances. "And history," he concludes, "is deepening. We could not, if we would, be satisfied with the battles and the protocols, the alliances, and the intrigues. Literature and art, religion and law, rents and prices, creeds and superstitions, have burst the political barrier, and are no longer to be expelled. The study of interactions and interdependencies is but just beginning, and no one can foresee the end. There is much to be done by schools of history; there will be more to be done every year." Several of the contributors, besides Professor Maitland, are widely known in this country. Professor Gwatkin of Cambridge writes on ecclesiastical history; Mr. R. L. Poole of Oxford on palæography and diplomatic; Dr. William Cunningham of Cambridge on economic history, and Prof. W. J. Ashley on the teaching of history in America. There are also essays by Mr. Heitland, Mr. Tanner, Mr. Woodward, and Mr. Marten. It is a book which abounds with useful suggestions, and much of its doctrine will prove serviceable to teachers in America as well as in England.

—'Chronicles of the House of Borgia,' by Frederick Baron Corvo (Dutton), deals with a variegated subject, and is one of the most highly colored books ever written on that subject. Pope Alexander VI. is bound to be the central figure in any historical work that takes up the career of his family, for although St. Francis Borgia is among the most eminent of the Jesuits, he left no deep mark upon the course of human affairs. Alexander VI., on the contrary, lived and reigned at a critical period. For centuries he has been taken as a type of the Renaissance pontiff, and, whatever his traits of character may have been, no one can dispute the importance of his place in the annals of the papacy. Thus, while Mr. Corvo makes his 'Chronicles' include the name of Don Alessandro Borgia, born 1898, and concludes with the aspiration "ad multos annos," most readers, whether historians or others, will fix their attention chiefly upon what he says of Alexander VI. In brief, Mr. Corvo thinks that this celebrated pontiff has been badly treated, and numerous attacks are made upon those who have attacked him. Still, the book professes not to be one of vindication. "The writer," it is said, "does not write with the simple object of 'whitewashing' the House of Borgia; his present opinion being that all men are too vile for words to tell." But if there is no conscious design of rehabilitation, the incidental effect of the volume is to put forth a plea on behalf of one who has been maligned. Like other historical problems, the character of Alexander VI. demands a study of evidence, and Mr. Corvo does not handle evidence well. Indeed, we have met with few authors of equal reading who show so little capacity for keeping to the essential points of an argument. To begin with, his style is wholly unsuited to the task of separating truth from fiction. "In his manner, the present writer has endeavored to rush from mood to mood, in consonance with the subject under consideration, with something of the flippant breathless masterful versatility which Nature uses. For men were very natural in the Borgian Era." Mr. Corvo has certainly succeeded in becoming flippant and breathless, but that he has done much for the reputation of Alexander VI. we cannot agree. It is by no means impossible that something may yet be said on behalf of that pontiff which will carry weight. If so, a totally different method from that of Mr. Corvo must be adopted. Yet, while this book abounds with exaggerated mannerisms and euphuistic drolleries, it is marked in many ways by literary talent. The strongest impression which one derives from it is that of contradiction. The author has read widely in the history and literature of the Italian Renaissance, but he is often guilty of making the most singular slips. His manner of approaching the difficulties which are presented by a conflict of testimony is altogether wrong; but scattered here and there may be found passages which are clever and entertaining. The book is handsomely printed and illustrated.

—Readers of Victor Cucheval's entertaining and useful 'Histoire de l'Éloquence Romaine,' from the death of Cicero to the accession of Hadrian, will feel a certain sense of disappointment in his 'Cicéron Orateur' (Paris: Belin Frères), given to the public some eight years after it was announced by the author as in preparation. According to the first announcement, it was to deal with Cicero and the Eloquence of his Times, but the twenty-five pages of the closing chapter hardly constitute a fulfilment of the latter part of this promise. Nor is the body of the book just what one would have looked for. One must be a pretty enthusiastic Ciceronian to follow without a sense of monotony several hundred pages held down quite closely to a mere résumé in French of Cicero's extant orations; and if one be so enthusiastic, he will do better to devote his attention directly to the original text. We must not do the author the injustice of leaving the impression that his analyses are entirely bare of critical comment—a Frenchman would be incapable of that; but there is certainly not the vivacious flow of appreciative criticism which the French temperament plus classic scholarship so easily engenders. Nor does one find anything materially original in the few critical suggestions which are offered. Unhappily, Mr. Cucheval is not original even in attempting to establish Cicero's claim to rank as a poet of real importance, since Voltaire did the same thing, and more recently Prof. Tyrrell. The critics of a period when there was a better basis for criticism than the fragments which have survived, evidently thought of Cicero's poetry just about what M. Patin exclaims of his having written five hundred lines in a single night: "Tour de force malheureux!" And there is no better solution of the problem than to drop it there. Material for a popular setting forth of the great orator of the expiring Roman republic has accumulated in great abundance during the present generation; one must regret that M. Cucheval has not so used it as to give to the general reader in attractive form what scholarly research has made available to the few.

GOODWIN'S DEMOSTHENES.

Demosthenes on the Crown. With critical and explanatory notes, an historical sketch and essays, by William Watson Goodwin, Hon. LL.D. and D.C.L., Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in Harvard University. Cambridge, Eng.: The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

Harvard Studies in Classical Philology: Goodwin Volume. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press. 1901.

The aim of Professor Goodwin's compact edition of 'Demosthenes on the Crown' is, in the editor's words, to supply students with what he deems most essential to a thorough understanding of this masterpiece of oratory. This aim is accomplished by a revision of the text, by a judicious commentary, and by a series of essays on the manuscripts, the argument of the oration, on legal questions and the history of the period, in which it is safe to say that no word is wasted, and that every statement has the freshness, the weight, and the authority which derive directly from a resort to the ultimate sources. Hence this edition will hereafter become as indispensable to the scholar as it is to the students for whom it is primarily designed.

The critical notes are based on ten selected manuscripts, but they reveal chiefly the superiority of that which is known as Σ, a parchment of the tenth century, brought into Europe by Lascaris and now belonging to the National Library of Paris. This, together with L (S of the Laurentian Library in Florence), probably represented the class known as "the manuscripts of Atticus," who was, according to Usener, the friend of Cicero. In most passages the authority of these two outweighs that of all others combined. Professor Goodwin has made use of the facsimile of Σ, published in Paris, and in doing so has corrected a dozen or more errors or omissions in Voemel's report of the manuscript. It is a curious fact that two brief fragments of the Oxyrhyncus Papyrus (of the first or second century A. D.) confirm certain important readings of these two manuscripts, besides furnishing several unique and suggestive readings worthy of consideration. This is a rich yield in fragments which represent about one-fortieth of the whole oration. Professor Goodwin's notes constitute a storehouse of commentary on nice and delicate points of Greek usage. The clearness of these logical analyses gives them the beauty of a geometrical demonstration; and the result is occasionally to settle questions of fact, as in §63, or questions of history, as in §23, where Demosthenes affirms not that "no embassy had ever been sent," but that "there was then no embassy out on its mission."

A very satisfactory and practical use to which the editor has applied his studies of codex Σ is a contribution towards settling the genuineness of the documents cited in the Orations on the Crown. These documents, purporting to be decrees of the Senate, letters from Philip, and verbatim transcripts of laws, would possess an almost

unique value if genuine, and there was a time when certain scholars, among them the industrious Voemel, accepted their genuineness. Since then there have been fluctuations of opinion; but Professor Goodwin sums up the situation when he says, "It is now universally admitted, on internal evidence, that the documents are most transparent forgeries." This conclusion is strongly reinforced in the essay on "Stichometry of the MSS." The MS. of Σ gives at the end a number (2768), which has been shown by Christ to indicate the number of lines (*στίχοι*) contained in some standard text, probably of the Alexandrian Library. The actual number in Σ is 4963. Professor Goodwin finds that, if we exclude the documents, the standard divisions marked in Σ correspond in numbers varying little from 154 lines. If we include the documents, the standard 100 lines correspond erratically to anywhere from 215 to 165 lines of Σ. This is a tell-tale variation, which proves, as might be expected, that there is in all cases an excess, and in some cases a great excess, according to the length of the documents. However, the standard lines in different orations were of different length. Those in the Third Philippic were shorter than in the Crown.

The commentary, as a whole, is a model of reserve, precision, and completeness; it is exactly to the point and there is no surplusage. It is a conscientious endeavor to reach accurate interpretation, to attain the exact meaning of the orator, the precise force of his words, and to follow the course of his argument. While the editor disclaims novelty and makes general acknowledgment to his predecessors, a minute examination will show that in many cases new light has been thrown on passages that needed it, and will reveal many useful details and pertinent illustrations which are original. As a matter of curiosity, he notes that the passage containing the famous oath has no less than fifty sigmas in sixty-seven words—which may console us for the sibilance of our own anserine tongue. Apropos of the spirited sentence in the peroration, "I do not walk about the market-place beaming and delighted at Alexander's successes and offering my congratulations to the people whom I think most likely to report them at Court," he reminds us strikingly that the greatest of these personages living in Athens at that epoch was Aristotle himself, the friend and correspondent of "the great Emathian Conqueror." "It would be interesting, but not quite pleasant," he remarks, "to find here an allusion to the great philosopher."

In all legal points and questions this volume is particularly strong. Nothing could be neater, for example, than the concise paragraph on "The Principles of Unwritten Law," *τοῖς ἀγράφοις νόμοις* (§275[3]). A special study in the same direction is the Excursus on the Athenian *γραφὴ παρανόμων*, or indictment for proposing illegal measures. In discussing this procedure Mr. Goodwin draws a parallel with the function of our Supreme Court so pertinent and interesting that it deserves a few lines of summary. The Oration on the Crown was technically and primarily a plea in an action against Ctesiphon for proposing an unconstitutional measure. It is a remarkable instance of the Athenian genius for politics that, at a stage so early in their democratic experiment, they had contrived this device to impose a wholesome conservatism on the law-making power of the Assembly. They had the same temptation which besets our own State Legislatures to multiply casual and superfluous enactments. This tendency they restricted by developing a distinction between current legislation and a certain fixed body of written laws, which they called Solonian, and which roughly corresponded to our own Constitution. If any new statute could be shown before a special court to conflict with any portion of this code, it became *ipso facto* null and void. Without going into details, we may add that the procedure assumed the form of a criminal suit against the mover of the objectionable statute, and that the inquiry was held before a bench of 501 or 1,001 jurors, or judges, composed of ordinary citizens. Such a bench, extraordinary as it may seem to the modern mind, was by no means unfitted for its purpose; for the code was simple and limited, and the ordinary citizen, as Aristophanes humorously testifies, was well versed in litigation and in law. The differences between this procedure and that of our own Supreme Court are evident; but each procedure had essentially the same object, namely, the conservation, through deliberate process, of a stable fundamental code, which might serve as a check on rash or capricious or revolutionary legislation of the Assembly. As a matter of fact, when revolution was attempted in 411 B.C., the first step of the conspirators was to repeal the "action for unconstitutionality." Without such a check, as Aristotle acutely remarks, "the multitude is supreme, but not the laws; the rule of the people becomes despotic." But the check, which was wholesome and necessary at Athens—which suited an inchoate, unstable, and experimental democracy, destitute of deep roots and of complex organization—might not be required under a well-balanced and broad-based Constitution, rooted in ancient precedent and in the political aptitudes of the citizens. In Great Britain, as is well known, there is no such check on the House of Commons and no such distinction in the Constitutional law. "The Commons are absolute; they can make or unmake any institution of the country." They can disestablish the Church, or abolish the House of Lords or the Crown itself. But if such a change were brought to pass, it would infallibly be voted by a house elected on that express issue, and therefore commissioned by the country to work out such a revolution.

The question of rhythm in the language of Demosthenes Professor Goodwin avoids discussing, and refers the inquirer to Blass's "Attische Beredsamkeit." Blass's treatment of the subject is very interesting because it is the work of a scholar who has specially trained his ear to a perception of longs and shorts, because he thinks that he feels the rhythm of a Greek period somewhat as an ancient Greek felt it, and because, finally, he has reached conclusions as to the characteristics of Demosthenic prose rhythm which are in conflict with the prevailing opinion of what constitutes the charm and excellence of prose rhythm in general. He concedes that in many passages, and perhaps in certain orations, Demosthenes apparently did not aim at this rhetorical ornament, or did not fall into it; on the other hand, where it does occur, he maintains that the rhythm is so definite and deliberate that it borders on the forms and domain of poetry, it follows some of the metrical laws of quantity, it lapses into familiar metrical lines and balanced clauses of metrical equivalence. It is consequently susceptible even of being made a touchstone to determine or to restore correct readings, in some cases, just as the metre might serve that purpose in Aeschylus or Sophocles. He prints in his appendix the exordium of the Oration on the Crown divided into *kola* according to the scheme of Lachares, an Athenian rhetor of the fifth century A.D. The general effect of this scheme to the eye is that of the strophes or stanzas of a Pindaric ode; and Blass goes so far even as to point out metrical equivalences between certain *kola*, or lines, such as occur in the structure of the strophe and antistrophe in choral odes. He grants that there is great freedom in the composition, just as there is in the more complex melic poetry; and yet he points out the duplication, for example, of anapæstic dimeters and trochaic dimeters. There is, of course, no doubt that Demosthenes studied rhythmical effects with great nicety and care; he did not like to be caught extemporizing, and his speeches "smelt of the lamp"; there is even a tradition handed down of certain ancient manuscripts which preserved the orator's own colometry. Yet the question naturally arises, Is it likely that Demosthenes deliberately and with *malice prepense* composed these strophes, or would he himself have been astonished at the discoveries and the rhythmical arrangements of the rhetoricians? Are these, indeed, to a certain extent illusory—a mould imposed by their own ingenious fancy—and is it possible that the ancient canons of the best prose usage differed so widely from our own?

It is quite possible to take certain paragraphs from 'Atala' or from the 'Modern Painters,' and to arrange them into plausible *kola* with here and there even a fairly plausible metrical correspondence between the clauses. The rhetorical mechanism in these compositions is very much in evidence, and lends itself without much violence to such treatment; but who imagines that such *kola* were consciously designed, and who would venture to emend Rousseau or Chateaubriand or Ruskin or De Quincey upon considerations of rhythm? In our English version of the Psalms it would be easy to point out exact correspondences such as Blass detects, and occasionally, indeed, a distinct echo of the monotonous movement of Sternhold and Hopkins. In all rhythmical utterance and expression there is a strong unconscious tendency to repeat or imitate familiar rhythmical clauses, which may happen to be metrical. Whether such rhythms will be pleasing will depend largely on association, and chiefly, of course, on literary association. The Latin ear, for instance, was offended by the cadence of *esse videntur* at the end of a prose period, probably because, being the close of a hexameter line, it jarred upon the Latin conceptions of prose rhythm. The Greeks, as Longinus tells us, felt a similar incongruity when the movement of the language fell into a dance measure. "The hearer of an over-rhythmical passage," he says, "feels inclined to beat time with the speaker; he gives his attention to the cadence rather than to the meaning

of the words." An English audience would never think of this. The Greeks were connoisseurs and sophisticated in such niceties. This curious bit of testimony reminds us, indeed, that a certain school of oratory in its beginnings experimented with the rhythms proper to poetry; but the great critic comes round to the very point which we are making, and our point is this: The proper beauty and essence of prose rhythm in all the great stylists is its freedom, its variety, its complexity, its avoidance of the strict forms of metre and repetition of metre; its effects, in short, are secured by a violation of metrical regularity, by an elaborate combination of movement and of numbers which evade scientific analysis, of which the writer himself could give no account, and in which he is guarded solely by a trained and delicate ear. Probably the very same was the practice of a stylist like Plato and of the Greek orators; for this we have the evidence of Aristotle in his 'Rhetoric': "The composition should be neither metrical nor unrhythmical; the former characteristic awakens mistrust, for it seems artificial; at the same time it puts one out, since it makes one look for the like and ask when it will recur. Hence prose should contain rhythm, but not metre, else it will be verse; and this rhythm should not be too exact, but carried only to a certain extent."

It would be hard to better this definition. It fits exactly with all we know of modern artistic prose, and it proves that the ancient sense in this matter was not widely different from ours. It is an anchor to which we may hold fast with a certain satisfaction and confidence. Professor Goodwin has tacitly given an opinion which coincides with this conservative view. In §72 Blass gives an example of how he ventures to restore rhythm whose existence he suspects; and he explains the methods and authorities by which he rescues two *kola* terminating in corresponding trochaic dimeters. This rearrangement Professor Goodwin quietly ignores, confining himself exclusively to questions of meaning and of manuscript authority. How, indeed, could he do otherwise? Our knowledge of rhythm must come chiefly from the MSS. The MSS. depart widely, as the best editors admit, from the true original Demosthenic text; and nothing vanishes more quickly by slight corruptions than the traces of rhythm. Amid this flux and these quicksands the search for a lost rhythm, where not expressly attested by the rhetoricians, seems like hunting for the vanished contours of the breakers on the beach; while the colon, or yardstick of the oratorical period, has the wilful, wavering flexibility of an eel. Yet at the moment we venture this rash opinion we observe that a distinguished French savant (M. Louis Havet) has been systematically applying a similar test to the establishment of a true Ciceronian text of the 'Cato Major de Senectute.'

The value of Professor Goodwin's work is greatly increased by the editor's clear and compact historical sketch of the events from the accession of Philip to the battle of Chæronea, with its constant references to the sources. Among these he has included recent inscriptions shedding light on the period, and especially those lately discovered by the French explorers at Delphi. We seem to come close to the pulse of the time when, in reading the list of delegates to the "Board of Temple-builders," we light upon the first mention of the name Philip of Macedon, and note at the same time the ominous omission of the Phocians. This single contemporary slab attests the results of the peace of Philocrates. In the editor's summary, as well as in the notes, the presumption in all doubtful matters is in favor of Demosthenes and rather against Aeschines. "I have made no attempt," says Professor Goodwin, "to be neutral on the question of the patriotism and the statesmanship of Demosthenes in his policy of uncompromising resistance to Philip. . . . No one can read the final attack of Aeschines and the reply of Demosthenes without feeling that Demosthenes always stands forth as a true patriot and statesman—while Aeschines appears first as a trimmer and later as an intentional, if not corrupt, ally of Philip in his contest with Athens." The layman will sympathize with this bias, and will be glad to have the support of one more distinguished scholar in his traditional enthusiasms. Such partiality is legitimate and unavoidable to one who reads the two speeches side by side. It is created on the whole by the general tone of Demosthenes, by his lofty strain of sentiment, by that air of passionate sincerity which Aeschines never succeeds in assuming, and which is indeed impossible to imitate. The closing argument is so well marshalled that it seems irresistible. It appealed to the noblest sentiments, it became at once a pæan and an apology for the lost causes of all time, it carried and captivated the audience to which it was addressed, and it met with a generous response which was as creditable to their feelings as it was to the orator himself. Their verdict was, in a way, all that he desired and his sufficient vindication.

A casual note, page 344, shows that the editor was critically examining the manuscripts of his author as early as 1854, and reminds us that this edition is the crowning fruit of his mature study. The 12th volume of the Harvard Studies in Classical Philology commemorates "the happy completion of fifty years since he [Professor Goodwin] received his first degree in Arts from Harvard College, and of forty-one years since he became Eliot Professor." During this period he has applied a singular combination of hard-headed, practical sense and of subtle logical acumen—the natural outfit of a good jurist—to disentangling the forms of expression of the most refined vehicle of thought that mankind has ever developed. In our country, at least, he was a pioneer in such investigations, and how much has he done to clear up this particular wilderness! Forty or fifty years ago our schoolboys were furnished with certain misty formulas on the uses of the Greek moods, which shared in their minds the same corner as the theological mysteries of the shorter and longer catechisms. The author of 'The Greek Moods and Tenses' has taken a large share in changing all this. He has brought down this subject of syntax, as Professor Greenough remarks, from the clouds of metaphysics, and has placed it in a familiar region perfectly accessible to any country schoolmistress or schoolboy—not merely to Macaulay's miraculous youngster. "He has made dark things plain and hard things easy," to quote from the Greek Salutation of this memorial volume. There is something so rounded and complete in the quiet triumphs of this long experience that the soul of an Odysseus, shrewdly searching about for modern castaways, might perhaps choose out for himself such a lot, neglecting the shooting-star of the iron-master or the railroad president; and a new Solon might add such a life to his samples of the modest beatitudes. Here, at least, "the jealous divinity" has made amends, if he has not altogether missed his mark. Here is no broken shaft, no occasion to quote the *Sunt lacrymæ rerum*. The master sees his apprentices grown up and some of them, in turn, become masters of their craft. They bring their affectionate tribute to the serene spirit which has never condescended to strive or cry, which has shown a life-long superiority to the vanities and jealousies and petty quarrels that sometimes beset and tempt the scholar—the spirit, in fine, that has simply pursued pure scientific truth, "caring little in comparison for Socrates." In the transparent and dispassionate annotations of this latest work, it is a satisfaction to encounter the mere scientific fact, τὸ εἰλικρινές, uncolored by the ego and freed from the personal equation. It is a delight to think of the high and disinterested example the author has set to the younger generation of scholars, which he helped create and develop; it is a thought to stir the soul that, after all the service he has rendered, at an age when he had earned the right to retire to the ease of "the lean and slippered pantaloon," he has chosen to give the world a mature work, which shows meridian strength and definition. If his sun is declining, it gives no sign. We shall still look for its illumination—ἡλιός ἐστιν ἔτι.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Second Generation. By James Weber Linn. The Macmillan Co.

Widow Wiley and Some Other Old Folk. By Brown Linnet. E. P. Dutton & Co.

My Island. By Eilian Hughes. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Eve Triumphant. Translated from the French of Pierre de Coulevain. By Alys Hallard. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Audrey. By Mary Johnston. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mr. Linn's story concerns itself with a wrong done one man by another, and with the vengeance sought by the victim's son. Far from being of the madding Mafia or Camorra, the son is a young journalist who goes up from Scannell County to Chicago, pursuing at once his own profession and his father's enemy. The latter is a gas magnate, franchise-grabber, and briber of legislators. And thus out of retribution and the career of a newspaper reporter, with loves and friendships in due proportions, is compounded a very creditable little novel, a good example within its limits of what a journalistic novel can do. It speaks with evident acquaintance of life and its works as they flourish in the office of a large daily paper, and if it reflects plainly the limits set on cultivation by the nature of the soil, yet modern slang and manners and the modern passion for the modern rightly find ex-

pression in a novel of to-day's newspaper and to-day's Chicago. These do not bar out a happy showing of cleanliness and delicate feeling. Dealing perhaps too sympathetically for æsthetic comfort with the unloveliness of life's whirling machinery, it has yet its idyllic touches, and its broad strokes, too, of a grim fatefulness that lends force and fibre. The journalistic abhorrence of what is superfluous marks the style, making the book read realistically and, for the most part, simply. All in all, this small novel tells a good story, and is conspicuous for a restrained and tasteful handling often absent from stories of its latter-day plan and scope.

The Widow Wiley and her compeers from their English lanes, yards, and almshouses are faintly reminiscent of Mary Wilkins's old folk tending their flowers in New England dooryards or chafing in the poor-house. We seem to have met before this succinctness of personal description, this seizing on a crowning incident in the life of a lowly actor and presenting it with stenographic accuracy. But, given the subject, the method is inevitable. Wilkinsism, like Wagnerism, is in the air, and village literature must breathe of it more or less. For variant we have here the Vicar, the Rector, the Squire's lady, whom the English poor have always with them, at once levelling and sophisticating the situation. The incidents are often of a gossamer texture, but are tastefully interwoven, and the portraits stand out distinctly through an enveloping shimmer of humor and sentiment.

'My Island' is a collection of short sketches of Anglesey. They are rich in local color of a kind not often set before the reading world. The Anglesey motive has its own marked character, combining the religiousness, melancholy, superstitiousness, and hospitality that form the Welsh note with the sombre, fantastic quality belonging always and everywhere to the sea island. A breath of the uncanny besides stirs throughout. There is very little about ghosts, but, reading, one seems to hear a rustling at the elbow. Without being powerful, the stories are weird and impressive. Intensity of affection for Anglesey colors them all; but when the day of wheeling over one's pet island has come, one should forswear such mystic description as smears the pages of the opening and closing papers. The bicycle speeds ill through purple patches; the plainest of the stories read the best. The head- and tail-pieces, by Lady Stanley, are attractive—more so than her full-page illustrations.

Yet new international episodes are set forth in M. de Coulevain's novel, well translated into English, with due and not slavish regard to idiom. (To write of brown and light-colored "pupils" of the eye is not a fault of translation, we take it.) We have here the ideas on American women of a French writer who seems rather more than half in sympathy with the Anglo-Saxon temperament, reserving his worst slurs for Latin idiosyncrasies in a novel where pros and cons are fairly evenly distributed. On the whole, however, the Americans have it. The temptations which came to the New York married heroine, when she went to Europe, mainly sprang, it appears, from tendencies handed down by a far-away Latin ancestor. It was by American integrity that she overcame them, although it was that same integrity which justified her to herself in visiting the questionable places of Paris and the gambling-rooms of Monte Carlo, with her young niece, an American of equal integrity, but more frivolity. The American Eve, though she fights down temptation, does not succeed in resisting curiosity. Her strong, pure nature needs frequent toning by travel (leaving husband at home deep in scientific investigation), by Catholicism (taken in a highly Pickwickian sense with ulterior views to the American market); by Buddhism, and the forces of hypnotic suggestion. The right-minded niece is possessed by a similar curiosity. Indeed, in spite of seeing the responsibility laid on Latin heredity, the reader finds that it is curiosity rather than Latinity that leads these ladies into doubtful scenes and positions. They are curious about sights, and even more so about feelings, and court temptations that do not really tempt them, but only pique their inquisitiveness. A question may here suggest itself: Does it prove the white-souledness of the Eves, or does it make them the more answerable, that they are found inventing their own Satan and apple? But if stories are to be written about this species, we can hardly imagine gentler treatment than M. de Coulevain uses. His familiarity with the purely hotel phases of New York life, and with the Franco-Italian view of American women, their right-mindedness and their dollars, gives his book the quite original merit of moderation. Even his Italian demon, however devilish at times, is not strongly persistent in his pursuit of crime, but becomes a languishing bore, while his American wife finds her greatest tribulation in her more and more unapproachable Roman relations-in-law. We leave all the characters fairly comfortable or dead, and can only hope that Mrs. Ronald remained true to hypnotic grace and stayed henceforth at home. Something there is in the handling of the story that wakens the query, Is M. de Coulevain a nom de plume for (let us say) Mme. de Coulevain?

To the reader not sated with colonial Virginia fiction, 'Audrey' prominently commends itself. It is interesting even to those who feel that they have had a genteel sufficiency of novels of the "God wot" and "Odso" school, in which one hath a pretty wit and another a garment vastly fine, and in which yet another hath cracked a bottle with Mr. Colley Cibber. In whichever way these traits affect the reader, whether as a sop or a red rag, he cannot fail to follow with interest the story of the loves of Marmaduke Haward, Evelyn Byrd, and Audrey. We cannot give Audrey's last name for she did not remember it herself. This was curious, because at the time she lost her family in an Indian massacre she was old enough to be able to say such sentences as this: "Are you a prince? and is the grand gentleman with the long hair and the purple coat the King?" But no matter. A heroine without a surname is just as sweet when she is as sweet as Audrey, and when she is so clever that, in the space of one winter, she learns the whole art of acting and becomes a tragedian whose fame reaches from Virginia to London. This is not the only tinge of drama in the story. The whole form of the book suggests the footlights. We can already see on the stage this hero, cool under all circumstances, except the discovery of his love for Audrey, defying his enemies with a smile and a pinch of snuff, first pinking, then pardoning. The Huguenot-Monacan, wearing a peruke on his head and in his heart the bloodthirstiness of an Indian, is a foregone stage figure. As much so is the Highlander, taken prisoner at Preston and transported to Virginia; his speeches are fully written, and brim over with good Scottish names and sentiments. His little ladylove, the dove-like Quakeress, has a small rôle, but a useful one, affording the principals time to draw breath and change their brocades and marcasite; helpful, too, in this way are the drunken minister, the ex-convict schoolmaster, the theatrical manager, the old witch, and the negro Juba. Col. Esmond's is a non-speaking part, but he may be seen once at the play within the play. The incidents and scenery too take naturally to the boards, and even the grouping is more than indicated. In fact, the dramatization does itself while the reader doesn't wait. It is with a mental thump that in all this eighteenth-century surrounding one comes upon such a twentieth-century phrase—in the narrative though it be—as this: "the slightly drawling tones which with him spelled irritation"; and again, "the milestones of whose pilgrimage spelled love, ruin, despair, and death." Split infinitives hold up their yawning wounds to be healed, and the wonder grows that a pen so skilfully saturated in the style of its period—an era, surely, of stout verbs, hardy nouns, and peppery interjections—should so wallow in adjectives, using more than would have furnished forth the reigns of Anne and two Georges. The historic background is faithfully and understandingly laid in; a deal of research must have gone to it, but it is modest as becomes a background, and points no student finger at itself. The story, if artificial, is engrossing, as has been said, and insists on being read—a great charm in a story.

ABOUT SHAKSPERE.

What is Shakspere? An Introduction to the Great Plays. By L. A. Sherman. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xii, 414.

Shakspere as a Dramatic Artist: With an Account of his Reputation at Various Periods. Shaksperean Wars I. By Thomas R. Lounsbury. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) Pp. xx, 449.

The English Chronicle Play: A Study in the Popular Historical Literature Environing Shakspere. By F. E. Schelling. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xi, 310.

There are so many books about Shakspere that a mind of modern habits instinctively seeks for a classification for them. And certain books stand as types of their class. Thus, Sidney Lee's book is characteristically that of the biographer and literary historian; Barrett Wendell's, that of the unconventional scholar-critic, seeking to get the contemporary point of view and to stimulate ideas; Boas's, that of the accomplished manual-maker, safe and conservative; Dowden's, that of the essayist; Brandes's, that of the cosmopolitan littérateur; Snider's, that of the Hegelian and theorist; and Moulton's, that of the popular interpreter. So Professor Sherman's book is nearer the last in type, although it is also a schoolmaster's book, and the book of the leader of a popular literary cult.

It is so good a book in many respects that

we have to regret that it is not better. Undertaken, as the author tells us, at the solicitation of his publishers, and, perhaps, hurriedly thrown together, it does not seem to be written *con amore*, nor thoroughly ripened and wrought out. Although it is a marked improvement on the author's previous way of writing, it still has too many defects, too many remediable defects. Here and there one remarks too much fondness for and display of big ideas. Perfect simplicity of exposition is not attained. The style is at times difficult and labored. Imposing and cryptic phrases, as well as bold neologisms, forming a sort of dialect, too often recur. Such are "units of approach," "the verities" (almost never the truth, or truths), "persistingly," "comedial" (a form which may take its chances with obsolete comedian, comedic, and comedical), "inaugurate," "embracingly," "potent," and the like; or such a sentence as this: "The Venus [and Adonis] is . . . an interpretation, with considerable Renaissance freedom, of the Goddess consciousness on its human side toward a Galahad ideal of the Greek mind." Most of the passages quoted from Shakspere are nearly throughout mangled by obtrusive and excessive underscoring or italicizing of words and phrases.

On the other hand, as a Shaksperian interpreter, Professor Sherman is sympathetic, subtle, vivid, and humane. He is not writing a book for the scholar, but for the beginner in Shakspere. The scholar, however, may find his account in some of the chapters, and refresh his fagged and worn perceptions from the author's store of fertile and sometimes penetrating suggestions. Only four plays are discussed in detail and at length—"Cymbeline," "The Winter's Tale," "Romeo and Juliet," and "Macbeth." The method adopted is a running commentary presenting the story in the way of a modern novel, with explanation of the action and dialogue, and abundant character comment. The author is conscious of the dangers of this method, and does not recommend carrying the use of it too far. The exposition of "Cymbeline" amounts to a fervent critical eulogy upon the character of Imogen, and furnishes one of the most stimulating critical studies of Shakspere's women that have ever been written. The author is a woman-worshipper, and exalts throughout the *Ewig-Weibliche*. Indeed, in its more original portions, this work is a study of some of Shakspere's women—a study full of suggestiveness and charm. We wish that Professor Sherman had written the whole book frankly from this point of view, and not, as it is on the face of it, as a publisher's book, and as a schoolmaster's introduction to the great plays. For the latter purpose, aside from its stimulating quality, it cannot be recommended. The outline questions presented in the appendix are valuable, but otherwise the general apparatus and material necessary for the beginner are better presented in other books. There is good incidental comment on some of the plays in chapter vii., which deals with the groupings of the plays, but the chapter as a whole is not adapted to the uses of the student. Not that we hold the chronological method to be the only method for the grouping and study of the plays, but that the author's proposed substitute for that method (pp. 287-8), dividing the plays for study into the three groups of "Incident Plays, Personal Plays, and Moral Plays," is fantastic, profitless, and inadequate.

Professor Sherman will not please the æsthetic critics; he writes too insistently as a moralist (he sometimes wrestles hard with his moral categories), and has developed too far his ethical consciousness, for that. He somewhat over-interprets—perhaps generally, and certainly in specific instances, as in the character of Hermione and in those of Romeo and Juliet. He depreciates the Sonnets, and shows personal and peculiar favoritism among the plays. And there are many points of detail in his interpretation, here unmentioned, which are fairly open to question. Nevertheless, there is here material for a noteworthy book of Shaksperian criticism, if properly digested and recast.

Professor Lounsbury has written a good book in a field still unexhausted—good in style and phrasing, and more readable, almost, than the subject permits. It is obviously the result of wide research, and it constitutes a valuable contribution to literary history. It exhibits sane judgments and presents sound conclusions. A vast mass of evidence has been consulted, and has been read with sagacity and discrimination. The material has been thoroughly digested and synthetically presented. Nevertheless, the *advocatus diaboli* must be permitted to enter his exceptions in certain points of manner and mode, if not of essence. In the first place, the title is misleading. For although the evidence adduced results in the end in the demonstration of the fact, nowadays not contested, that Shakspere works throughout as a conscious dramatic artist, the real matter of the book is indicated only in the sub-title. The work is, in effect, a history of Shakspere's reputation down to the nineteenth century. It is to be hoped that Professor Lounsbury will some day extend his investigation to cover the nineteenth century also. In passing, we may note that other chapters of this sort in the history of criticism remain to be written. Professor Lounsbury himself has already traced in outline the history of Chaucer's reputation. The history of the reputations of Spenser (recently outlined for the eighteenth century by Professors Beers and Phelps), of Milton, and of Pope, are still open subjects.

Our second exception in this case is to a point of detail in the author's plan. The book is a university *Festschrift*, and, by virtue both of its subject and of the circumstances of its publication, addresses a special and (at least in the wider sense of the term) learned audience. Why, therefore, the anxious avoidance of the appearance of pedantry by such careful economy of footnote, citation, and reference? The bibliography at the end is a boon, but it is not full enough for the subject, and it does not entirely meet the needs of the case. And why expand to four hundred pages of elaborate exposition that which, with the judicious use of footnotes, could have been sufficiently expressed, for the readers whom Professor Lounsbury will reach, in two hundred pages? The author should have given us either results with less of the process diffused and artistically concealed in the text, or results with more or all of the process laid open for students of the subject in footnotes and appendices. Incidentally, while we agree with the author's conclusions as to Shakspere's reputation in the seventeenth century, we wish he had paid his respects to and answered (at least in a footnote) the views of the editors of 'Shakespeare's Centurie of Prayse' on this theme. Again, the passages in chapters iv. and x. concerned with the testimony to Shakspere's reputation borne by editions of his works and by performances of them are insufficient. More should be made of this evidence, which should be exhibited in greater detail.

We have testified to our admiration for the author's fluent and adequate style. We regret that we find less to admire in his manner. For a monograph in the field of literary history, the treatment is too jaunty, superior, and unsympathetic. The nineteenth-century point of view is incessantly obtruded. The author enters only scoffingly or ironically into the eighteenth-century spirit. There is doubtless much that is artificial, crude, and limited in the best of eighteenth-century criticism, and much that is absurd and ridiculous in the worst of it. But it is not the business of the historian, even of the historian who holds a brief for Shakspere's reputation, perpetually to emphasize and reiterate this fact. It is rather his business to connect the critical modes of thinking with the other modes of thinking of the age. Eighteenth-century criticism, in part at least and implicitly, was the expression of an ethical system or code of conduct whose keynote was the idealization and exaltation of correctness and propriety, in manners as in art. The author enters only very imperfectly into this spirit. He fails to enter because he refuses to abandon even for the moment his own point of view. He prefers to be frankly personal, and to indulge his subjective humor and wit. But animation may be purchased at too great a cost, and wit and scorn without intermission end in becoming irksome. Nevertheless, these are matters not of substance.

Shakspere furnishes the central point in Professor Schelling's excellent monograph. What precedes or follows him in time is preparation or *Nachtrag*. The gist of the study is found in the valuable classified lists of historical plays in the appendix. The rest is a discussion of these groups and of single plays. The work, as a whole, is a good specimen of honest, straightforward, and scholarly investigation. The style is perhaps somewhat timid and dull, but it is free from vagaries, and the book is a safe guide. We wish that the author had given us more of the sort of illuminating criticism which is bestowed in the discussion of "Bonduca" (pp. 203-4), and less of the inconclusive æsthetic and general criticism found in the detailed discussion of many of the other plays. Much is made, but we feel that more could be made, of the literary history of the subject. We had expected, also, to hear more regarding the relations of the historical plays to the epical treatment of history in Warner, Daniel, Drayton, and the rest. But these are personal preferences. What Professor Schelling has chosen to do has been well done.

Commercial Trusts. By J. R. Dos Passos. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

This book, published as one of the "Questions of the Day" series, is a reprint, corrected and revised, of the author's argu-

ment in December, 1899, before the Industrial Commission. The field of discussion is necessarily somewhat narrowed by the special purpose of the argument, which was, to dissuade the Commission from hasty or sweeping recommendations regarding Federal regulation of the so-called Trusts. But Mr. Dos Passos makes, nevertheless, a pretty thorough examination of his subject, which has certainly lost nothing of interest through the recent course of events.

Our author frankly champions the Trust, though objecting, as a lawyer is apt to do, to the name popularly applied to it. He believes opposition to the present combinations of capital to be futile, and holds that the necessity of legislation to regulate them has not been shown. "Can you," Mr. Dos Passos asks the Commission, "in the face of the extraordinary commercial development of this country, . . . say that you are convinced that there are evils which spring from these industrials?" Our own answer would be, that when the question arises of shaping the law to meet absolutely new and untried conditions in finance or commerce, potential evils must be weighed as carefully as present evils. The absence of the one certainly does not guarantee non-existence of the other. It was the United States Supreme Court itself which said, in applying the Anti-Trust Law of 1890 in the "Trans-Missouri" railway case, that it was not requisite even to submit evidence of intent of "maintaining rates above what was reasonable." So long as the agreement vests in a combination the power of restraining free exercise of competition, the Court declared that its "necessary effect is to restrain trade and commerce." In other words, the question at stake is not alone what a combination is doing or has done, but what, in virtue of its new industrial powers, it may do. The importance of this distinction may be seen from the fact that the whole pending case of the United States against the Northern Securities Company rests upon it. That company has in point of fact performed as yet no overt act whatever.

Mr. Dos Passos takes bold ground in the matter of enforced publicity. He objects *in toto* to such requirements. Since his argument was first submitted, the Industrial Commission itself has unanimously advised that directors of a "Trust" "be required to report to the members thereof its financial condition in reasonable detail, verified by a competent auditor, at least once a year." This would, of course, be equivalent to informing the general public. Since that time, also, the largest industrial combination in this country has voluntarily elected to give out for absolute publicity not merely annual, but monthly statements, in far greater detail than the Commission ventured to advise. Other industrial combinations are falling into line with the United States Steel. These well-known facts throw interesting light on the following remarks of Mr. Dos Passos:

"I take issue with the advocates of publicity, and I deny that it is necessary in the broad sense in which it is demanded. I say that no man who is not interested in a corporation has a right to know anything about it. It is none of his business. . . . If you guard the rights of stockholders and persons who have contractual relations with corporations, . . . then the public has no more business in its private concerns than it has in the private affairs of your household, or your fortune, or your own commercial affairs."

It hardly need be said that we disagree entirely with this contention. Mr. Dos Passos bases his argument largely on the fact that a stockholder, under present laws, has the absolute right to open a corporation's books. But he has to admit that the powers of the courts must frequently be invoked to enforce the right. This procedure is costly; the small shareholder will rarely undertake it, and the results, even if the request is granted, are usually futile. But we do not base our opinion on these facts alone. We contend, as boldly as Mr. Dos Passos submits his proposition, that a company which undertakes to distribute its shares through the medium of stock exchanges; which becomes an important element in the great investment markets; whose financial prosperity or adversity is bound to affect the plans and purposes of the financial public generally—cannot claim the immunity from public inspection to which a small private business, in the hands of a dozen men, might be entitled.

The two past generations have witnessed a more or less continuous struggle between the public and the corporations in this matter, and the public, on the whole, has won. Mr. Dos Passos's theory certainly must apply to a railway, as well as to a combination of sugar-refineries or steel-mills. Yet the railways have surrendered absolutely, and in most cases very willingly, to the demand for complete publicity. State Governments have required and received the quarterly returns of earnings; but, as a matter of fact, the companies have gone further, and placed freely in the public's hands their monthly and weekly traffic showings. What the investment situation would be if these facilities for knowledge were to be withdrawn, we leave to the reader to imagine. We do not think Mr. Dos Passos would, if he could, turn back to this extent the hands of the financial clock. But we are equally convinced that the time will come when publicity of the so-called "industrials," whether freely granted, or, in default of that, required by law, will be such that even the present state of things will seem as anomalous as the popular ignorance of railway finance, thirty or forty years ago, seems to the present investor.

Lives of the Hunted; Containing a True Account of the Doings of Five Quadrupeds and Three Birds, and, in elucidation of the same, over 200 drawings. By Ernest Seton-Thompson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Seton-Thompson uses again the methods of former books. He writes thus in his Note to the Reader:

"In my previous books I have tried to emphasize our kinship with the animals by showing that in them we can find the virtues most admired in Man. Lobo stands for Dignity and Love-constancy; Silverspot, for Sagacity; . . . Wahb, for Physical Force; and the Pacing Mustang, for the Love of Liberty. In this volume Majesty, Grace, the Power of Wisdom, the sweet Uses of Adversity, and the two-edged Sorrows of Rebellion are similarly set forth."

Krag, the Kootenay Ram, embodiment of grace and majesty, is the dominating figure of this group, as Lobo, the Timber Wolf, is of 'Wild Animals.' The story of his life is well wrought. Like 'The Trail of the Sandhill Stag,' it is a story of the hunter and the hunted, but here the long trail ends in a tragedy. Krag was born at the foot of the Gunder Peak with Scotty MacDougall, hunter of mountain sheep, close on his mother's track; and his first hour of life was marked by a race for freedom. When his years of education and growth were over, he was a matchless creature.

"As he bounded up the jagged cliffs, barely touching each successive point with his clawed and padded hoofs, floating up like a bird, . . . he was more like a spirit thing, that had no weight and knew no fear of falling, than a great three-hundred-pound Ram with five year-rings on his horns.

"And such horns! The bachelors that owned his guidance had various horns, reflecting each the owner's life and gifts; some rough half-moons, some thick, some thin. But Krag's curled in one great sweep, three-quarters of a circle. . . ."

A battle with his rivals, which gave him possession of a flock of ewes, opened his splendid prime. Then for five years his band had only hunger and beasts of prey and chance riflemen to fear, for Scotty MacDougall was hunting gold in Colorado. Krag became a Wise One among his kind. He taught them to choose safer haunts and shrewder devices for protection; and his descendants were healthier and much wiser than the mountain sheep of former days; therefore they steadily increased in numbers.

At last old Scotty, "the curse of the Yak-in-i-Kak," returned to his shanty, sighted through his glass the great Gunder ram and his bands upon the distant benches, wondered at the unequalled horns, and marked them for his own. They swept now the full circle and even a quarter more, but Krag bore them "as lightly as a lady bears her ear-rings." He sighted Scotty, too, and for months gave him only distant glimpses to pay for hours of stalking. Then a sportsman came to the shanty, and one day, in working over an upland above the cañon of the Yak-in-i-Kak, his dogs drove Krag and a flock of ewes out of cover. A wild chase by the hounds, and the men rounded up the ewes on a point above the narrow river-gorge, five hundred feet deep. On the brink they huddled terror-stricken for an instant, while old Krag, their rear-guard, dashing up, turned to stand at bay. But whistling bullets showed him that defence would be in vain.

"There was one chance left. The granite walls of the Yak-in-i-kak could prove no harder than the human foe. . . . He wheeled to the edge and leaped down—down, not to the bottom, not blindly. Thirty feet downwards, across the dizzy chasm, was a little jut of rock, no bigger than his nose—the only one in sight, all the rest smooth, sheer, or overhanging. But Krag landed fairly, poised just a heart-beat. In a flash his blazing eyes took in another point, his only hope, on the other side, hidden under the overhanging rocks he had leaped from. His supple loins and corded limbs bent, pulsed, and floated him across . . . then back, sometimes to a mere roughness of the rock on which his hoofs, of horn and rubber built, gripped for an instant and took fresh ricochet to another point . . . down, down, down, with modulated impact from point to point, till, with a final drop of twenty feet, he reached a ledge of safety far below.

"And the others, inspired by his example, followed fast—a long cascade of sheep. Had he failed at one point, all must have failed. But now they came down headlong . . . with masterly command of thew and hoof, with marvellous poise and absolute success."

Years afterwards, however, there came a time when Krag's perfect body and wise and valiant heart could not command his safety. Scotty MacDougall, baffled again and again, took the trail with dogged pertinacity to win the little fortune that Krag's horns would bring. Over the slopes of ten mountain ranges the chase stretched out; five hundred miles, twelve winter weeks, of flight and pursuit. After a little, the man and the ram were never out of each other's sight. Krag could not speed away, for hunger pinched, and he must spend hours daily in seeking scanty herbage under the snow; but he kept out of range, and guarded his life with such watchfulness and patient acceptance of this harassing fear and famine that a generous hunter might have spared him. But Scotty, with the vigor of half a lifetime wasted in the hardships of this trail, lived now only for his purpose; he took Krag's life, and won a prize that cursed him to his death.

The other stories are simpler. "Tito" is the history of a coyote that, through adversity, learned more than coyote wisdom; "The Kangaroo Rat" is a fanciful study; "Johnny Bear" is, in the main, the amusing sketch with which the author has pleased many audiences; "Chink" tells how a timid pup became a hero through loyalty; "A Street Troubadour," a somewhat ragged story, relates the adventures of sparrows in Fifth Avenue and Madison Square; and "The Mother Teal," most simple and charming of all, describes the overland journey of a young brood forced by drought to seek water.

Missions Catholiques Françaises au XIXe Siècle. Avec la collaboration de toutes les Sociétés de Missions. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901. Vols. I., II., III.

Under the editorship of Father J. B. Piolet, S. J., there is being published a really valuable history and description of the French Roman Catholic missions of the present day. The work, which will be completed in six volumes of more than 500 pages each, already covers the nearer East—Turkey in Europe and Asia, Armenia, Persia, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Egypt—Abyssinia, India, Further India, China, Korea, and Japan. The describers and historians of each field are evidently thoroughly competent and well informed; and though their attitudes and (it may be) prejudices may strike us sometimes rather strangely, yet it is for us to use their narratives and spirit to rub down our own angles. The point of view throughout is openly French and Jesuit. Protestant missionaries, especially Anglo-Americans, are emissaries of evil, sowing tares and misleading youth; between the Greek Church and the English occupation of Egypt there is not much to choose; as, in the legend, Marcus Whitman saved Oregon for the Union, so a Jesuit missionary saved Cochin China and Tonkin for France. "La France," it is true, becomes at times a little oppressive, and stories of the national aggressiveness of French missionaries become more credible. A different type of missionary, more chauvinistic, more one-ideaed, perhaps also more absolutely devoted, than our Yankees, shows itself to us. And behind it all rises the tremendous fabric of the Roman Curia, the same for centuries, watching empires and kingdoms grow and dwindle. France, the oldest daughter of the Church, the Holy See, the Society of Jesus, begin to ride the imagination as these pages are turned. The same power which treated with Kubla Khan treats with the modern Mantchus in the same city of Pekin.

Especially weighty and instructive is the hundred-page general introduction by M. Étienne Lamy on "L'Apostolat." It is a Jesuit philosophy of the history of Europe. For M. Lamy the history of missions is the history of the Church, and the Church means, or should mean, mankind. Through his whole *essai* the French hold the centre of the stage. As the Franks, they save the Papacy from the Arians, and Europe from the Muslims; as emperors, Charlemagne and his descendants uphold the papal power, and it is only when the temporal rule has slipped to the undutiful Germans that the long conflict of emperors and popes begins. Yet with all this there is great candor towards the growing Protestant schism. It had its excellent reasons, social and political; reform was clearly called for. The Albigenses, and Wiclif, Huss, and Luther had to come like offences into the world. But it was things civil which brought them, just as the civil arm crushed some of them out in blood, of which civil arm M. Lamy highly disapproves. Worst of all, the Dominican traffic in indulgences raised undoubted scandal, the existing monastic orders generally had degenerated, and gave much good ground for cavil. Then the Jesuits appeared, and with them the new life. There is a dangerous passage describing how even this order, "through its obedience" to the papacy, was led away for a time to aid Philip II. of Spain and plot the spread of the faith by force of arms. The Jesuits obeyed Rome unwillingly; now appeal to the secular arm is abandoned, and they are proved to have been right. Thus M. Lamy is a Jesuit first and a Romanist second. Even in passages where he speaks elaborately of the wisdom of Rome, as on the destruction of the Jesuit systems in India and China, there is a ring to his words that hints of satire. Last came the fatal eighteenth century, when France and the Society both went down. For the triumphant record of the nineteenth century M. Lamy refers to the narratives which follow. That he may do with justice and pride. They will shake many of us out of our ignorant provincialism, and lay bare that other side in religion, sociology, and politics which is so hard to reach.

American Duck Shooting. By George Bird Grinnell. Forest and Stream Publishing Co.

This comprehensive treatise is another addition to the literature of wild-fowl shooting, which now assumes such large proportions. While the author does not, with one exception, advance any novel theories in regard to this form of sport, yet under a single cover he brings together a mass of information, and his conclusions may be said to be final. He gives a complete history of the duck family from swans to fish-ducks, each species accompanied by an accurate portrait by Mr. Edwin Sheppard, than whom no one is more competent, technically, to undertake the task. This is followed by an account of the various methods employed in wild-fowl shooting, with a dissertation on duck-guns and the mechanical devices used in the pursuit.

In the last section of his book Mr. Grinnell devotes a chapter to an unexpected peril which menaces some of the members of the duck family. This discovery dates only from 1894; consequently, alarm has not as yet developed into a panic among gunners of shallow-feeding wild fowl, to which it particularly refers. According to Mr. Grinnell, on certain feeding-grounds of swan, geese and ducks, where they are decoyed,

> "each season great quantities of shot are fired. . . . Much of it falls on the feeding-grounds of the wild fowl. In feeding, geese, ducks, and swans—whether by accident or design—take into the stomach, with sand, gravel, and food, more or less of this shot. When the shot has passed into the gizzard it is subjected to the same grinding process as grain, grass or other food, and, being softer than the sand, it is ground into minute particles. These fine particles, acted on by the acid of the digestive organs, yield a soluble lead salt, which, being absorbed into the general system, causes death."

Heretofore those who have shot wild fowl have been under the impression that the only form of lead poisoning to which the birds are subject comes from a well-aimed gun, and is usually fatal. If Mr. Grinnell's theory, however, is correct, the most inaccurate shot, by firing pellets of lead over the feeding-grounds of wild fowl, may create as much havoc as does the most skilful gunner.

Elementary Treatise on Navigation and Nautical Astronomy. By Eugene L. Richards. New York: American Book Company. 1901.

With the growing maritime interests of our country, the proportion of college and university students who will desire a knowledge of navigation must also increase. Some of our institutions of learning have long offered courses in this very practical science; others have recently added such a course, and there may now be said to be an American demand for a brief but lucid textbook. The English market has been flooded with such books, none of which seem fully to meet the needs of teachers here; and out of the Yale course, among the first established, has now arisen this clearly written and finely printed text, the outcome of the author's own teaching. Naturally, Professor Richards has drawn largely upon Bowditch's 'Navigator,' and Martin's 'Navigation,' and his brief text forms a very competent introduction to either of these standard treatises. The non-mathematical student, however, can scarcely take up the work to advantage, as a knowledge of geometry and trigonometry, both plane and spherical, is prerequisite. All colleges might advantageously offer navigation as a junior or senior elective.

The astronomy of navigation occupies a necessarily large part of Professor Richards's treatment, and he does not at all touch upon the practical handling of vessels at sea, that being rather a separate art by itself, better known as seamanship. His chapters on "Great Circle Sailing" and on "Courses" are perhaps the most satisfactory, and the teacher who approves of abundant numerical examples will enter no complaint of their paucity here. A supplementary chapter on Sumner's method would hardly have extended the book beyond due limits, and an index to such a

volume, even if small, is still worth the while. A useful section is appended, defining the terms of nautical astronomy concisely; also, a very few serviceable tables.

Touring Alaska and the Yellowstone. By Charles M. Taylor, jr. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 388. Ills.

This book is the consequence of a journey over the Canadian Pacific Railway from Montreal to Puget Sound, thence over the usual Alaskan tourist steamer route, including a side trip to Lake Bennett over the Yukon and White Pass Railway, and eastward again over the Northern Pacific to the Yellowstone Park. It is neatly printed, with a number of "process" illustrations from photographs taken by the author, many of which repeat very familiar scenes common to numerous publications on the region, while a minority, less hackneyed, are more interesting. The text contains not so much a description of the scenes visited, or an account of the details of the journey, as a record of the author's emotions, with streaks of platitudinous moralizing. This, doubtless, has an interest for the author's family and friends, but why it should have been offered to the public in so pretentious a form we cannot imagine. Such a record bears to a real work of travel or recital of experience by a writer of taste very much such a relation as the verses of Martin Farquhar Tupper do to those of a real poet. Yet we remember that Tupper attained a wide popularity, and doubtless for readers who like this sort of thing it is just the kind of thing that they will like. At any rate, it cannot properly be regarded as literature, as a contribution to geographic science, or even as a compilation of useful facts.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bain, R. N. Peter III., Emperor of Russia. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Boardman, G. D. Our Risen King's Forty Days. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Long Duel: A Serious Comedy. John Lane. $1.25.
Fargo, Kate M. Songs Not Set to Music. Abbey Press. $1.
Godfrey, Elizabeth. The Winding Road. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Harris, H. E. The King of Andorra. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Johnston, J. W. The Riddle of Life. Cincinnati: Jennings & Pye; New York: Eaton & Mains. $1.50.
Kemp, E. L. History of Education. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Lowell, J. R. Democracy. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Meakin, N. M. The Assassins. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Nicolls, W. J. Graystone. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Parker, Arnold. Ping-Pong. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Rideal, Samuel. Water and its Purification. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Thackeray, W. M. Barry Lyndon. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Wheeler, Jeannette. Josephine Grahame, a Romance, and Other Stories. Abbey Press. $1.50.
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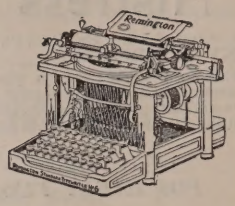

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The Week.

The Senate passed the Ship Subsidy Bill on Monday by a vote of 42 to 31. All the Republicans voted for it except the six from Vermont, Wisconsin, and Iowa. All the Democrats voted against it. Mr. McLaurin of South Carolina, who is not acknowledged as a member of either party, voted for it. Thus the Republican party is committed, so far as the Senate can commit it, to the policy of making gifts of public money to prosperous citizens engaged in trades already flourishing. It is a measure fraught with the weightiest consequences, social and political, and one before which the House of Representatives may well pause. As to the prospects of the measure in the House, it should be observed that, if the same proportion of Republicans should vote against it there as in the Senate (*i. e.*, one-seventh), and if all the Democrats should vote against it, the bill would yet fail to become a law. We think that it will fail to become a law at this session, and that its supporters will not risk a vote upon it on the eve of a Congressional election. That the ship-building industry is flourishing and prosperous, independent of subsidies, has been shown repeatedly in the course of the debate on the subsidy scheme, which has been going on during the past four years. We have before us a list of the ocean-going ships now under construction in the various yards on the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts, compiled and published by the *Marine Review* of Cleveland, O. The list fills eight closely printed columns of the names and description of ships now on the stocks in sixty-nine shipyards, not counting any on the great lakes or any under construction for the United States navy. Naval vessels, however, should be counted, in any estimate of the needs of American capital and labor in the ship-building trade. It is therefore worth mention that there are now fifty-one war-ships under construction for the navy, with a total displacement of 264,987 tons, and costing for hulls and machinery $74,731,666.

When Senator Hanna's attention was called, in the course of the debate last Saturday, to the crowded condition of all our ship-yards, he thought that it was a sufficient answer to say that the ships were nearly all for the coasting trade. Naturally and necessarily so. Foreign-built ships are not allowed to engage in the coasting trade. Therefore, if the coasting trade is carried on at all, the ships for replacement of those that are used up or out of date, and to meet the increase of traffic, must be built in our own yards. They have the preferred place, and it may easily happen that there is little room in the yards at present for any work except that of coasting and naval vessels. Yet it was made clear to Senator Hanna that there are eight or ten large steamships for the foreign trade now under construction by American builders. He thought, however, that these were built here in the prospect of getting a subsidy, and that if the Subsidy Bill should not pass, they would be operated under foreign flags as soon as they were ready for business. It is strange that somebody did not ask him whether putting them under foreign flags would cause the freight and passenger money to go to foreigners. The theory of the bill, all the way through, has been that all steamship earnings made by foreign ships are a dead loss to Americans, and that the registration of the ship is the sign and proof of ownership.

A bill to limit the meaning of the word "conspiracy" has been under consideration by the Judiciary Committee of the United States Senate, which threatened to make a radical change in the treatment of the matter by the courts. But an amendment to the bill was adopted by the Committee on Monday, which takes the life out of the measure. In its original form the bill provided that no act of a trade combination should be deemed criminal, "if such act committed by one person would not be punishable as a crime." This act would have put all concerted actions of striking bodies beyond the jurisdiction of the Federal courts, unless such action were accompanied by violence. Thus, no injunction could stand against a boycott or against picketing as such. In its amended form, the bill leaves the courts full discretion in every case where "the purpose or effect of such conspiracy shall be to create intimidation by a show of physical force . . . or the occasioning of injury to the property or business of the complainant, *or is likely to result in such injury.*" It is plain that in its present form the bill makes judicial injunctions against strikes easier rather than more difficult to obtain. We cannot believe that the powers of the courts need any extension in this matter. Practically the courts of all degrees have shown a disposition to strain their powers to the limit of legal warrant, and frequently beyond that of expediency. We observe, in this connection, that the Court of Errors and Appeals of New Jersey has confirmed the sentences which the Court of Chancery imposed upon the picketers in the Paterson strike last summer, although these sentences carried the unusual feature of imprisonment for contempt.

The House of Representatives "broke the record" last Friday by passing 229 private pension bills. This was the largest number ever "put through" at one sitting. Nearly all of these bills were for increase of pension in cases where an increase had been disallowed by the Commissioner of Pensions. The total amount of the pension to be allowed in each case was stated in the bill, but the amount that the pensioner was previously receiving was not stated, nor was any mention made of the reason for the increase. Mr. Sims of Tennessee, a member of the Pension Committee, said that the average increase in these bills "was 200 per cent. over and above what the Bureau allows." This means that, after establishing a Pension Bureau and providing a large and expensive force to administer the very liberal laws relating to the subject, Congress takes the job out of the hands of the Commissioner and his medical men, and doubles or trebles the pensions by passing bills which the members themselves cannot possibly understand. The excuse or pretence for this reckless and demoralizing policy is that the Commissioner of Pensions is doing injustice to the soldiers. Congressman Gaines of Tennessee ironically asked the question, "Why does not the distinguished President turn that Commissioner out and put in one who will do justice?" That is just what the pension-claim agents are trying to accomplish. They are as fierce against Commissioner Evans as they were during the McKinley Administration.

It is not surprising that the Chinese Government has officially protested against the reënactment of the Chinese Exclusion Law, particularly with reference to the Philippines and Hawaii. It is less than two years ago that American troops were fighting their way to Pekin, primarily to save the legations, but secondarily to keep the Chinese empire open to Americans and American trade; and Secretary Hay's able diplomacy has steadily kept the latter end in view, despite Chinese hostility. Now the Chinese feel that there is quite as much justice in their claim for admission to the United States as in the American desire to exploit the Celestial Empire. Particularly in regard to the Philippines is their case a strong one. The Filipinos not only have never objected to their presence, but have welcomed them. The Americans, however, have carried all their race prejudices with them, and would exclude the Chinese lest the islands prove an open door

to the United States. As for the Americans resident in Manila, they disagree, as the doctors in charge of a serious case are apt to. Some believe that we owe it to the Filipinos to exclude all Chinese, and others are of the opinion that the islands simply cannot get on without them. It is plain that here is another difficult question, which has been rendered more than ever trying and vexatious by that very policy of Expansion which, we used to be assured, would prove the cure-all for most of our national problems.

The Secretary of the Treasury has decided to discontinue for the present the purchase of bonds as a means of disposing of his surplus, and to adopt the alternative method of depositing the money in national banks, and preferably in banks which are not retiring their circulation. The purpose of this discrimination is to "overcome the tendency to retire national bank circulation." This is not the first time that the Department has been compelled by the advancing price of bonds to withdraw as a purchaser from the market. When the 2 per cents are selling at 110 and 4s are close to 140, the strain should not be increased by Government purchases, for there is really no limit to the advance when there is one buyer in the market whose means and whose necessities are practically unlimited. Such a buyer can easily corner the market against himself. The Secretary is, therefore, fully justified in discontinuing his purchases. Whether he can thus overcome the tendency to retire national bank circulation is not so clear. Depositing the surplus in the banks requires bonds as security. The bank which applies for deposits must either use bonds which it already owns or buy others in the market. Those which it owns are presumably pledged for circulation, and, under the terms of the Secretary's order, cannot be withdrawn and repledged for Government deposits. Therefore, the purchase of bonds for the latter purpose will probably sustain the market at the present high price, which constitutes the temptation to retire circulating notes and realize the premium on the bonds. So the Treasury and the banks are travelling in a circle, and the only way out of it is the passage of a law to enable the Secretary to deposit the money without requiring bond security.

In the absence of any reform in the disposition of the surplus, it is not quite fair to accuse banks of unpatriotic behavior in retiring their circulation and selling the security bonds. As the country is not engaged in any war, and has none in prospect, and even the Monroe Doctrine is comatose, the element of patriotism as a factor in the money market seems rather uncalled for. Bankers are not in the business for their health or to win the admiration of the community. They are moved solely by the idea of profit. It was the intention of the National Bank Act to make note-issuing profitable, but it has to a large extent ceased to be so. According to the last report of the Comptroller of the Currency, the annual profit on $100,000 of circulation secured by 2 per cent. bonds is only $796.84 over and above what could be obtained by lending at 6 per cent. the money that the bonds would cost. This is only seven-tenths of 1 per cent. to pay for all the trouble of maintaining the circulation. Even this small profit is liable to further deduction unless the circulation is kept out all the time, since bank-notes in the vaults of the issuing bank bring no return. If circulation is secured by 4 per cent. bonds of 1925, which sell at about 139, there is a loss on note issues of $125.08 per annum on each $100,000, as compared with a loan of the purchase money at 6 per cent. If a bank has $100,000 of circulation outstanding secured by that class of bonds, its pecuniary interests require it to deposit greenbacks in the Treasury to secure its circulation, and to withdraw and sell the bonds and pocket the premium of $39,000. No blame can attach to a bank officer who takes that course, nor could he justify himself to his shareholders if he should fail to do so.

The denial by the War Department of Lieut.-Gen. Miles's request to let him end the Philippine war by using Indian methods was only to be expected. The General's application was tactless enough in view of the many times the war has already been ended. But, waiving that, the Department is quite excusable in rejecting such a plan from one who has never been in the Philippines, and the memory of whose extraordinary two-wheeled, chariot-like invention for protecting American soldiers in battle is still green. On the theory of letting well alone, the Department is content to have Gens. Chaffee and Bell continue their efforts, which appear to be bearing fruit and to be diminishing the Filipino activity. The incident merely emphasizes again the strained relations between the Commanding-General and the War Department, which would be intolerable in any other country, and which would certainly lead to the retirement or dismissal of Gen. Miles from any European army.

The status of Gen. Miles illustrates afresh the difficulty Secretary Root is having in finding officers of high rank to aid him in putting through his plans for the reorganization and higher education of the army, which he again urged upon Congress last week. Of the six major-generals, three—Brooke, Otis, and Wheaton—are on the verge of retirement, Chaffee is in the Philippines, and MacArthur is tired and anxious to rest at the head of a department. Gen. Young, the only remaining major-general, has been selected for the head of the new War College, and is the only one at all interested in its future. Of the brigadier-generals, Grant, Leonard Wood, and Funston are plainly unqualified, having been without any adequate military training, and having been pitchforked into their present places by President McKinley for political reasons. Gen. J. Franklin Bell, the only young and progressive brigadier, has been selected for the command of the Cavalry and Infantry School at Fort Riley. The others are in the Philippines, or are, for one reason or other, too little fitted by age and character of their service to help in the modernization of the army. It is no wonder that Secretary Root is anxious to create a general staff school for the making of generals.

Mr. Herbert Welsh has written an open letter to Secretary Root upon the use of torture by the United States troops in the Philippines. Mr. Welsh has but one object in view—the clearing of the good name of our soldiers, or, if this cannot be done, the rigorous punishment of those guilty of acts which Mr. Root admits are contrary to the articles of war. He cites the case of Lieut. Hagedorn, who tortured three Filipinos by giving them only salt fish and no water to drink for forty-eight hours. This "mistake of judgment" was excused by his commanding officer, so that the Lieutenant went scot free. But not for long, since, almost as Mr. Welsh was writing his letter, this flower of American chivalry was put under arrest and imprisoned in Manila for embezzling the funds of his regiment. Mr. Welsh has yet to hear of any attempt to start an official inquiry into the acts of Major O'Connell, also cited by him. When the War Department did get hold of a clear case, the shooting of a Filipino in the back by Lieut. Preston Brown, Second Infantry, as the Filipino was walking away, it commuted Brown's sentence from dismissal and imprisonment to a reduction in rank which will delay his impending promotion to captain only for a matter of eight months or so.

From Chicago, where Gen. Funston has been repeating his speech about hanging those Americans who dare to breathe so much as the words Filipino independence, comes the report that he is in danger of a reprimand from the War Department. If he is not, he ought to be. Nothing could be more nicely calculated to bring the service into contempt than his breathing out of threatenings and slaughter. Gen. Miles's breach of discipline was a very model of propriety compared with this lawless

talk of Funston's. That doughty warrior should heed the poet's advice, and show us more of that modest stillness and humility which best becomes even a hero-soldier in time of peace. He now explains to the reporter that his motion to hang all home traitors was intended only as an "abstract proposition." Very well, let Secretary Root make the corresponding rebuke also abstract. Let him address a letter to Gen. Funston saying that any officer who goes about prating of civil rights about which he knows nothing, and with which he has no concern, is acting like a fool, and had better take his own advice to "keep still." If Funston prefers a reprimand in this Joseph Surface style, of "a man who, etc.," by all means let him have it in that way. We remark, by the way, that he does exceedingly well to make his hanging "abstract." The first move of his to make it concrete would result in his capture by the officers of the law, and there wouldn't be any "dirty Irish trick" about it either, as he proudly says there was about his capture of Aguinaldo.

There are various points of view from which the Steel Corporation's tentative proposition to turn one-fifth of its billion-dollar share capital into bonds, and borrow $50,000,000 in addition, may be considered. At present we wish to call attention to one phase of the matter which, though affecting only a part of the proposed bond issue, is really vital to the discussion of industrial finance. We pointed out, in the earlier months of this momentous experiment, first, that in view of the immense and inevitable expenses for improvements or renewals, the most liberal possible surplus fund ought to be accumulated; second, that to provide a surplus large enough, dividend payments on the common stock at the outset would be unwise. The trustees thought otherwise, however. Quarterly dividends, at the annual rate of 4 per cent., have been paid on the half-billion dollars in common shares, total disbursements thus far, for the purpose, footing up $15,000,000. Now it appears, from unofficial statements of the proposed bond issue's purposes, that from twenty-five to fifty millions of the capital to be borrowed is needed for improvements. This will strike most students of the situation as pretty clear proof that our own position regarding dividend policy was sound. It is doubtless true that the projected improvements will make feasible very great economies, and that, with due attention to the sinking fund, the debt may be conservatively redeemed. But it is reasonable to ask, if borrowing is the wisest means of providing for needed improvements and renewals now, at the absolute high tide of steel trade prosperity and profits, how is the capitalization problem to be solved when we have fallen on other times?

The English Government is again finding that the Irish question will not down. What to do with the United Irish League is the problem now tormenting the Cabinet, and the dispatches say that divided counsels on that subject are threatening a rupture of the Ministry. It is all, we suppose, a part of the political manœuvring in connection with choosing a successor to Lord Salisbury. His speedy retirement from public life is on all hands reckoned a certainty, but who is to be the next leader of the Conservative party? Some say Chamberlain; others, Balfour. The latter is for moderation and conciliation in Ireland; the old Birmingham radical is for harsh measures. Mr. Wyndham, Secretary for Ireland, put himself squarely on record the other day against reviving the Crimes Act, for the suppression of the Irish League, maintaining that the ordinary law is sufficient to punish real crimes, and that the Government could not again expose itself to the reproach of "using the law to strike down political opposition in Ireland." Obviously, he could not stay in office if Chamberlain's policy of Thorough were to be adopted. This sharp difference of opinion between the two factions of the Cabinet is one more indication of the party embarrassments which will follow Salisbury's retirement. As for the Irish, their new League is rapidly becoming as formidable a power as the old Land League. Through the machinery provided by the Irish Local Government Act, it is getting almost complete control of local affairs. "Please, sir," said the Irish school-boy to the inspector asking the class in geography to define "latitude"—"please, sir, we have no latitude in Ireland. The Government won't allow us any." But the new Irish League is showing how they will take it, with or without permission.

The Italian Ministry took a new lease of life by gaining a handsome vote of confidence last Saturday, but the Premier, in reknitting the old alliance with the Socialists, is probably only putting off the evil day. Signor Giolitti, the political manager—the Joseph Chamberlain, one might say, of the present Ministry—has lately reiterated the principle that the strikes are "part of a great social movement of all classes of the proletariat to secure better conditions of life"; that, hence, they are a sign of social health, not of disease, and that, finally, the Government should maintain an impartial, if not a friendly, attitude towards all strikes which do not threaten violence or anarchy. Meanwhile the Ministry promises to contribute $6,500,000, being three-quarters of the entire amount, towards the increase in wages demanded by the railway employees. The Premier alleges precedent for such action in France and elsewhere, but every serious observer will feel that this temporary expedient to avoid an imminent peril may some time react disastrously upon the whole body politic. This huge appropriation for the benefit of the class of railway officials was in large part wrung from the farming classes, whose distress is notorious. Now the cultivators have their Socialist leagues, too, and their strikes. The Ministry, if the experience of a year ago should be renewed, might tell the Agrarian leagues that Agrarian strikers can claim no subsidy because such strikes do not, like strikes on the railways, imperil public order and inconvenience the entire nation; but the argument will not be received favorably by those who have seen their money voted away for the railway men. Signor Zanardelli has thoroughly committed himself to the Socialists, and, without imputation as to the character of his allies, is likely to learn the force of the proverb, "Needs must when the devil drives."

A curious parallel to the flouting of the reciprocity treaties which President McKinley negotiated is seen to-day in Germany, where the Agrarians stand stubbornly in the way of all commercial negotiations with foreign Powers. On Thursday Von Richthofen, the Foreign Secretary, declared in the Reichstag that the passage of the tariff schedules demanded by the Agrarians would put it out of his power to conclude the pending reciprocity treaty with Italy, and he might have added that the Agrarian policy is equally incompatible with all the efforts which the Government is making to secure new outlets for German trade. Here the German Foreign Office finds itself exceptionally in the situation which is constant with our own State Department—that of being obliged to square its well-considered policies for the entire nation with the selfish demands of a local group. The Foreign Secretary threatened to complete the negotiations with Italy, in the face of Agrarian opposition. One may doubt that such a threat will be carried into effect, at the risk of a reversal by the Reichstag. The incident shows, however, that the clash of Agrarian and industrial interests in Germany is as sharp as ever; that the Government's canal project is no nearer realization; and that the whole matter of tariff revision is likely to be postponed indefinitely. The comparatively novel feature of the situation is to find the foreign policy of the Empire seriously hampered by these internal dissensions. A war might be made or a military alliance contracted without a word to the Reichstag. But foreign policy concerns itself to-day less with war than with commerce, and here, even in an empire, the people who vote credits and tariffs hold the whip hand.

ELECTING SENATORS BY POPULAR VOTE.

There was a short but interesting discussion of a very important question in the Senate, the other day—whether there ought to be a radical change in the method of electing members of that body. Mr. Berry of Arkansas brought the matter up by asking that the Committee on Privileges and Elections allow a vote upon a resolution sent over from the House, proposing to amend the Constitution so that Senators shall be chosen by direct vote of the people. Chairman Burrows of Michigan disavowed any disposition on the part of the Committee to smother the question, but Mr. Hoar of Massachusetts, one of its members, declared that he would "not be hurried," and showed his purpose to delay action as long as possible.

The Massachusetts Senator went briefly into the arguments against the proposed change, and laid most stress on one point which appears to be conclusive in his mind. He maintains that the innovation suggested would violate a fundamental condition upon which the Constitution was founded—that the equality of the States in the upper branch of Congress should never be destroyed without the consent of every one. Mr. Hoar thinks that, if the Senate should be chosen by popular vote, like the lower branch, we should have two Houses of Representatives, differing only in the size of their constituencies, and that New York, Pennsylvania, and the other large States would then refuse long to allow the equality in the Senate of Rhode Island, Nevada, and other small States. "I believe," he says, "that what is left of that whole promise will be swept away like a leaf before the wind." This seems purely fanciful. The prohibition against interference with the rights of the smaller States will remain as binding, if the people elect Senators directly at the polls, as when they elect them indirectly through their Legislatures, and it is hard to see any reason why a movement against equal Senatorial representation should have any more chance of success in the one case than in the other.

One thing is certain—no theoretic argument of this sort will carry much weight with the public. Senator Hoar evidently does not at all appreciate the condition of public sentiment on the question of changing the method of election. He sneered at the recent action of the House of Representatives in passing unanimously the resolution for a Constitutional amendment as "half a joke," and intimated that all the signs of popular support represent only the activity of "some one man or some few men somewhere." The truth is, that the feeling in favor of the change has been growing steadily among intelligent and thoughtful men during the past dozen years, until a great many who at first opposed the innovation have come to favor it.

The success of unfit men in securing election to the Senate through Legislatures by wirepulling or corruption, when they might not have succeeded if they had been forced to go before the people, influences some, though unfit men are often elected Governors by the use of the same methods. Others are impressed by the injustice of a system which enables a party that is in the minority on the popular vote, to secure the Senatorship through its control of the Legislature, as has repeatedly happened in Connecticut; that State having more than once gone for a Democrat for President, and yet on the same day, under the town system of representation, elected a Legislature which chose a Republican Senator. Another argument for the proposed change is, that it would always result in an immediate choice, whereas the old system often delays one for weeks and months, and sometimes prevents it altogether, while practically wrecking the session of the Legislature. Delaware has now no Senator, because neither in 1898 nor in 1900 could the Legislature reach a choice. Three years ago the Legislatures of Pennsylvania, Utah, and California also balloted for Senator without result until their terms expired, and one seat from each of those States was vacant in the following session of Congress. The Legislatures of Montana and Oregon used up nearly two months in filling vacancies, a year ago, and the Legislature of Nebraska almost three months. Five years ago, not only did the Oregon Legislature fail to elect a Senator, but the controversy over the matter prevented the organization of the body and action of any sort. This was an extreme case of legislative paralysis from the mixing of State and Federal functions in the members, but there is never a Senatorial deadlock that does not harm the interests of the commonwealth which its lawmakers are chosen to guard. As the tendency towards deadlocks has grown steadily of late years, it is no wonder that relief is sought in a removal of the cause.

The abandonment of the machinery devised by the framers of the Constitution for giving a peculiar and superior complexion to the Senate is, however, a change quite as fundamental as Senator Hoar asserts, in a direction not contemplated by him. The provision by which the State Legislatures were empowered to elect United States Senators insured the subordination of State to Federal politics; maintained party divisions that were natural in the national field in a field (municipal as well as State) where they were uncalled-for and mischievous; made the "final end" of a Legislature not the proper affairs of the State, but the election of State Senators in the interest of national party supremacy; constrained the consciences of men to vote for unworthy candidates to the Legislature lest the party at Washington should be imperilled; and, in a word, prepared the way for the absolute domination of the machine, as we see it today in Pennsylvania, for a flagrant example, where the aspiring Senator creates his own Legislature, not merely for his own election, but for an instrument of local plunder and patronage in absolute subserviency to his assent to every species of enactments. Various causes have worked together to keep men of training and probity out of public life, and to precipitate that decay of our Legislatures which every patriotic thinker deplores; but we are persuaded that nothing has contributed so powerfully and so inevitably to the debasement of these bodies as the principle imbedded in the Constitution which is now being assailed. The contrivance has not only not worked as the founders intended, it has worked in the opposite way.

We have never actively favored the complete democratization of Congress as is now proposed. Our hope has been that some recovery might, by unforeseen agencies, qualify the Legislatures once more to pick out the flower of the commonwealth to represent Statehood in Congress. We are aware that popular election is no safeguard against Quays and Platts. Nevertheless, we cannot share Senator Hoar's alarm at a change in the old order which may, for the reasons just hinted at, prove to be a blessing in disguise.

CONNECTICUT'S UNDEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT.

The anomaly of an undemocratic form of government in a State which claims the glory of the first written democratic Constitution is likely to continue, the Connecticut Constitutional Convention having rejected in committee of the whole an acceptable substitute for the present inequitable system of legislative representation. Only a faint hope remains that this verdict can be changed in the Convention proper. As a better result was only wished for, not really expected, this outcome of a half-century of agitation is not altogether discouraging. In fact, considering that membership in the Convention was based on acres, and not on people, the action is logical. As well ask the Connecticut House of Representatives to reform itself. That body had built the Convention on its own distorted model; had transferred to it its partisanship and its prejudice, and imbued it with the tradition that Connecticut is a federation of towns with vested and reserved rights, and that the town-unit system of legislative representation is an inheritance from the revered Thomas Hooker.

This Connecticut article of faith is pure tradition, as has been proved by judicial inquiry. It was not the settle-

ments of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield—typified to this day in the three vines on the State seal—which adopted the famous Constitution of 1639, but "the inhabitants and residents" of those towns; and the only right they reserved was the one of home rule in local affairs—the cherished New England town meeting. Some little solace for the town-rulers is found in the fact that this first Constitution provided for equal representation in the Assembly of the three towns mentioned, but they conveniently overlook the further fact that it contained also an express recognition of the principle of popular representation. Delegates from any towns thereafter organized were to be "a reasonable portion to the number of freemen that are in the said towns." That was democratic and American. It was through the King Charles Charter, obtained by Gov. Winthrop in 1662, that the town-unit idea crept in. That English and aristocratic document limited representation in the Assembly to "not exceeding twoe Persons from each place, Towne or Citty," and this system, with slight modification, is retained in the existing Constitution.

This King Charles plan of legislative representation, though undemocratic in its basis, was not radically unfair at the date of its renewal in 1818. Then all the towns were small and agricultural. New Haven, with about 7,000 souls, and Hartford, with 6,000, were hardly more important than the hill-town of Litchfield, with its 4,600 people. But, with the decay of the agricultural communities and the rapid growth of the industrial centres, the disparity in population of the towns has widened by leaps and bounds until now one-sixth of the population of the State, dwelling in the little towns, controls the Legislature, determines the taxes, robs the cities of revenue, and chooses the United States Senators. Political revolutions—the remedy elsewhere for similar injustices—have never gone far enough in Connecticut. When, some ten years ago, the Democrats chose the Governor and a majority of the State Senate, the House of Representatives remained Republican—rock-ribbed as the hills from which a majority of its members come. It is even probable that, in a pinch, many Democrats in the small towns would join forces with their political opponents in defence of the town-unit idea, so strong is the rural worship of this Connecticut fetish.

Despite these handicaps, however, the cause of representative reform has slowly but steadily gained ground in the past fifty years, and has won many friends even in a Convention packed to oppose it. On the part of the reformers the contest has been largely non-partisan. In their ranks are many Republicans of prominence, some influenced purely by motives of justice, but the larger number—believers themselves in town representation—moved by a desire to persuade the little towns to concede something to the cities, lest in the coming greater storm the whole fabric of town unity in representation be swept away. The pleadings of these Republicans, more especially the Governor's, wrung from the Legislature a consent to submit to the people the question of calling a Convention, but did not avail to make that body a representative one; while their warnings of the party danger involved in rejecting all the proposals from the cities fell for the most part on dull ears.

Yet very little was asked of the towns. Morally bound by the provision in the call for the Convention that no town should be deprived of representation as a town, and recognizing the force of tradition and sentiment, the city delegates asked only that limited popular representation for the cities, somewhat commensurate with the number and importance of their legislative interests, be grafted upon the town-representation plan. Acceptance of such a proposition would have stilled the agitation, insured the adoption of the new Constitution, preserved the town-unit system, and continued the little towns in legislative control. Instead, with unimpeachable logic from their standpoint, the majority has voted to make town representation uniform, giving each town one Representative, and annulling the amendments adopted in 1874 and 1876, which recognized popularity to the extent of apportioning two Representatives to towns of over 5,000 population, and denying a new town separate representation unless it contained more than 2,500 people. The eighty-four delegates who so voted represent a smaller aggregate constituency than the two delegates from Hartford and New Haven, and no more graphic illustration could be given of the unrepresentative character of the Convention.

It is not conceivable that the people will accept this mockery of representative government, which is not bettered materially by the concession of increased city membership in an enlarged and popularized State Senate. That little gain for the cities, besides being in the wrong place, is no make-weight for the restricted representation in the House. It is an altogether unfair and undemocratic arrangement, popular confirmation of which would weaken the cause of real representative reform. Far better will it be, if the Convention will not reverse its decision, to continue the contest, and, taking a lesson in logic from the town-rulers, to abandon the mongrel plan of part-town and part-popular representation, and contrast the town-unit idea with a clean-cut democratic scheme of representation based on population alone. On that issue the State, aside from the House of Representatives, might be carried, and the town-rulers be thus despoiled of much of their power and patronage. There is just a possibility that this result, coupled with the educational influence of the Convention and of the campaign to follow, might bring the legislative majority to their senses, and open the way to another and a more representative Convention. The only alternative is revolution, not to be expected in "the land of steady habits," though certainly many justified revolutions have had less provocation than the insolent attitude of the Connecticut oligarchy.

OUR TIRED IMPERIALISM.

Chancellor von Bülow alluded deprecatingly, the other day, to what he called the "China-fatigue," which he said had become almost epidemic in Germany. There are signs that our own Imperialistic Titans are in like manner growing weary. They are "tired" of the Philippines. To talk to them about Cuba makes them look around for a spring tonic. Ask them how their permanent army of 200,000 men is getting along, where their big navy is that was going to be able to whip Germany with one hand, just how much of the Nicaragua Canal is dug, in what seas are the subsidized American steamers that were to invade all markets with American goods and bring back the spoils of the ends of the earth through the open doors of our custom-houses—and "that tired feeling" is painfully visible on their faces. They may be a World-Power, but they look uncommonly like a World-Weariness.

Such reaction and disappointment after a gorgeous paper programme of Imperialism were inevitable. The dreams which our old men dreamed, and the visions of our young men, immediately at the close and in consequence of the Spanish war, were truly grandiose, but to translate them into reality—there was the rub. We have now been more than three years about it, and what have we to show? We think that an honest and observant foreigner, taking a survey of the United States now, and comparing it with his estimate of five years ago, would say that the more we had changed, the more we had remained the same old thing. We talked, indeed, he would say, of having entered upon a "new era," and cast off our "swaddling clothes," but there we were, in fact, just the busy and argumentative democracy we ever had been—disputing over every new step; standing up vehemently for local against Imperialistic interests; and offering a dead weight of inertia in the shape of long and jealous discussion and infinite delays, for an impetuous Imperialism to dash itself against vainly and in despair.

There is nothing strange or vexing about this except to those who did not foresee that it would be impossible to

commit the American democracy to the new policy in a year. In reality, a decade will not suffice, nor a lifetime. Some philosopher has said that it is the common "solecism of power" to think to attain an end without employing the necessary means. Exactly that was the blunder of the creators of our new world of Imperialism. They had magnificent conceptions. Did not their stump-orators and their editors and platform-designers construct for us a splendid course of Empire? Why, we could already see the *Oregon* bursting through the Isthmus, Manila an entrepôt greater than Liverpool, and our happy colonists sending their products into the wide and free market of the United States! But they reckoned ill who left out the conflicting interests, the many Congressmen of many minds, only by whose appeasing and harmonizing could the star of Empire move at all. Schiller said that he could write a drama in five acts more easily than he could keep house for one day; and our Imperial playwrights have found out that it is easy to sketch the plot and plan the setting of a grand production of "Uncle Sam Imperator," but that the drudgery of the necessary governmental housekeeping is far harder.

No one need regret that the wheels of the Imperial chariot have thus driven heavily. We speak not as Anti-Imperialists, but as plain American citizens. No matter what the sweeping new policy proposed to our people, it is a good thing to know that it takes a long time to instruct and persuade them; that they are very inquisitive, and will insist upon having their questions answered; very cautious, and will desire to wait to see whereto this thing may grow; yes, and are very selfish, too, and will want to know where John Smith out in Ashtabula is going to be advantaged by a splendid scheme of world-empire at Washington. While we have only condemnation for the obstinate attitude of the beet-sugar Representatives to-day, we cannot fail to see in it a wholesome reminder to our empire-mongers. All their large and easy plans of greatness have got to satisfy the great mass of the people, the veriest "country witlings and chaw-bacons," before they can come to enactment. It is all very well for the American orator or statesman to urge the launching of our ship of state upon proud new seas, but there will always come to him the troublesome inquiry from each of a hundred exigent local interests, in the words of the tailor to Cowper:

> "Say, shall *my* little bark attendant sail,
> Pursue the triumph and partake the gale?"

It is not surprising that our extemporized Imperialists are growing weary of this continued rising of the petty interests of locality to thwart their noble schemes for the nation. Their chosen instrument, the Republican party, has been for many months little more than an organization to show how not to do it, "doing nothing reduced to a system." One reason for this cooling after the first flush, this stagnation after the early energy bent on doing all in a day, is that the whole Imperialistic policy now suffers from the misfortune—it has been said to be one of the greatest misfortunes of a statesman—of having appeared only "temporarily magnetic." If an orator makes only a first pleasing impression, but cannot command a long hearing, nor endure the test of meditation on his words, he can never be a leader of men. For a few months Imperialism seemed to cast a glamour over the minds of Americans; but its charm diminished on examination, and its feeble and discredited operation has now well-nigh completed the disillusionment. From being weary of it, the people will soon come to think the best thing to do will be simply to "write off" the losses incurred by that folly, and begin a fresh account.

A BRITISH ACADEMY.

A number of British scholars have recently petitioned the Crown for the incorporation of "The British Academy for the Promotion of Historical, Philosophical, and Philological Sciences." The aim of the petitioners is clearly to do for the historical sciences what the Royal Society does for the natural sciences. The immediate occasion of renewing a project which has slumbered quietly since Matthew Arnold's essay "On the Influence of Academies," was the fact that English history, philosophy, and philology were quite unrepresented at a recent international convention of the principal literary and scientific academies of the world, while, through the lack of any representative literary body, no English candidates were put forward in competition for the Nobel prizes in literature.

The plan is a conservative one, and it looks forward to a more ambitious career than that of a dozen existing societies only in so far as the names of the petitioners carry unusual weight. It is somewhat curious, then, that the whole project has met with no little disfavor, while its discussion has shown that there is in the English temperament a latent hostility to academies in any form. This feeling was particularly marked when it was suggested that the new institution might eventually include literary men. The idea of a literary academy was abhorrent. The petitioners themselves remark "the recognized difficulty, if not impossibility, of dealing adequately with belles-lettres, poetry, and fiction," and quite exclude these subjects from the purview of the proposed academy. It is admitted on all hands that the right men would rarely be elected to an academy of literature, while the wrong men would be chosen in numbers. Mr. Gosse, in connection with a former scheme of this nature, imagines the filling of a vacant chair; an archbishop quite unknown to the world of letters and a great historian being the rival candidates. Needless to say, the archbishop is triumphantly elected, and the press generally declares that "great honor has been done to literature." While the mood of persiflage is most common, criticism often assumes the more serious tone. Mr. Edward Dicey, in the *Nineteenth Century*, for example, appeals to "the common-sense view of common people," and concludes, with a certain emotion:

> "I think, whatever superior persons may hold to the contrary, it will be found that the British public does not wish for a British Academy, would much sooner be without it, and is of opinion that it would be either a mischievous or a useless institution, and would most probably prove both useless and mischievous."

Now, it is not incumbent on us to champion the idea of an academy; that has been done frequently and ably. But it may be well to point out the inferences which may be drawn from Mr. Dicey's very characteristic utterance. It is safe to say that no scholar but a British scholar would for a moment have referred the question of the utility of academies to "the common people." An academy, if it means anything at all, means a recognized seat of authority, to which the common people instinctively defer, or, as Renan puts it, an academy has especial facilities for "creating a form of intellectual culture which shall impose itself on all around." One may imagine the ironical shade of Matthew Arnold studying the appeal of a British scholar to the "Philistines"—that they in their wisdom may condemn the designs of the merely learned and "superior"; and taking a melancholy pleasure in recalling his prediction that the British will always "cry down criticism as the voice of an insignificant, overfastidious minority."

But the whole discussion brings out at least this noteworthy fact, that the average Englishman does not fully believe in the reality of literary as compared with scientific achievement. Successes in literature have been of an individualistic character. It is a question if the "common people," for whom Mr. Dicey chooses to speak, really discriminate in their reading, for instance, between the good and the bad. It is highly probable that Tupper and Tennyson passed for peers with those who read them for their doctrine, and it is certain that the average English reader of to-day could follow up George Eliot with Mr. Hall Caine without any feeling of an abrupt descent. Taste is "what a fellow likes." The difference in France is not that better books are read, but that the bad books are read with a sense of their inferiority. The English mind is capable of all imaginative flights, but it remains

half-ashamed of them. The English writers of any power have been a shy sort, little given to contact with their kind; and the exceptions, such as Browning, only emphasize the truth that the shamefacedness which afflicts the Englishman in the expression of any deeply felt emotion generally leads the English author to minimize his differences from other men, and to seek not public rewards, but the fit audience, though few, of readers whose appreciation is quite as discreetly veiled as was his own creative impulse. It is probably the feeling that for literary men as a class to seek publicity is in some way un-English—a kind of wearing their hearts on their sleeves—that accounts for the hostility to this modest plan for the academy.

Some might say that it is merely another instance of the trend towards science, with its concrete standards of achievement, and it is indeed notable that organizations like the Royal Society of Literature have, on the whole, languished. The Royal Society itself, which was founded in 1662, was to have included the eminent "in every kind of learning and good letters," but it was from the first distinctly devoted to natural sciences, and for years past has elected no literary man as such. Literature, as the present petitioners say, is "difficult, if not impossible, to deal with." This will always be true in a country which lacks standards for literature; and we cannot believe that for years to come a non-scientific academy will gain any real prestige, either in England or in America.

PIERRE LOTI IN CHINA.

PARIS, February 26, 1902.

It seems natural that the life of a sailor, the long days and months spent in the solitude of the sea, should contribute to develop the powers of observation. These powers have certainly attained the highest degree in an officer of the French navy, M. Viaud, who writes under the name of Pierre Loti. He first came into notice in a very remarkable book, 'Pêcheur d'Islande,' in which he painted, with an intensity of vision truly surprising, the northern seas where so many French sailors spend month after month every year. I am not personally very partial to mere description, and the abundance and choice of mere epithets do not reconcile me to a work which is wanting in dramatic interest. Pierre Loti is, however, so exceptional that he succeeds in commanding attention and admiration by mere description. He may be called a photographer in words; he struggles with nature without the marvellous help which color gives to the painter. As a true photographer, he sinks his own personality in his work; he belongs to no literary, philosophical, or political school; he has no special object, he is not viewy; he is merely a mirror, but what an admirable mirror—how sincere, how brilliant!

The list of his works is already very long. I think that I could name as many as twenty. The adventurous life which he has led has given him occasion to visit Morocco, Japan, Asia Minor, Galilee, Jerusalem, the Pyrenees, etc. These twenty-two volumes can all be read with pleasure. The writer who will some day (as late a day as possible) pronounce the eulogy of Pierre Loti in the French Academy, of which he is a member, will, we hope and we are sure, have read all these descriptive works, and will not coolly say, as did Pierre Loti when he was received into the Academy, that he never reads anything. This extraordinary confession, which made quite a sensation at the time, ought not to have surprised Loti's readers. He is evidently afraid to read, to merge his own personality in other personalities; he is original, he feels it, and preserves his originality as a woman tries to preserve her beauty.

His latest work is the collection of letters which he sent from China, where he took part in the operations of the recent war. This circumstance gives unusual interest to these letters. The dramatic element is perforce involved with the descriptive part of the work; and was there ever a more extraordinary drama, more horrible in many respects, more mysterious in others, than this joint expedition of the Great Powers of Europe against the oldest and most impenetrable Asiatic Power? When Pierre Loti arrived in the Yellow Sea with Vice-Admiral Pottier, the Commander-in-chief of the squadron of the Far East, Pekin had already been taken, the battles had nearly come to an end. His first letter is dated Monday, September 24, 1900, from the Gulf of Petchili. He finds there an astonishing squadron, representing Europe, "Europe armed against old and dark China." Guns are firing from all the ships; foreign bands receive the French with the "Marseillaise." The last of the military chiefs expected at this great meeting of the allies arrives, Field Marshal von Waldersee; and the cannon fire again, and the ships' bands receive him with the German national air. The landing takes place at Ning-hai, at the end of the Gulf of Petchili, "and on this shore there is a confusion and a Babel such as has never been seen in former epochs of history." Cossacks, Austrians, Germans, English midshipmen, are to be seen among the French sailors; little Japanese soldiers, astonishing in their new European uniforms; fair ladies of the Red Cross; bersaglieri of Naples, with cock's feathers in their colonial helmets. The flags of the seven allied Powers follow each in alphabetical order, at various distances, on the landing: Allemagne [Germany], Austria, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Russia. After visiting what may be called the ruins of Taku ("Takou n'existe plus"), Loti takes the train as far as Tientsin. The Boxers having destroyed the railway between Tientsin and Pekin, he is obliged to continue his journey in a boat on the Pei-ho. He has time to make at Tientsin a visit to what he calls two goddesses of the Boxers, two prisoners kept in a corner of the palace of the Viceroys of Petchili.

"In the midst of a lamentable disorder, in a half-dark room where the evening sun cannot enter, two poor women, two sisters resembling each other, are sitting, with their heads down, in a pose of supreme consternation—one on a chair, the other on the edge of an ebony bed on which they both sleep at night. They wear humble black gowns, but here and there, on the floor, lie shining silks thrown about like lost objects, tunics embroidered with great flowers and golden dragons. They are, both, sorts of Jeannes d'Arc—if it be not blasphemous to pronounce with regard to them this ideally pure name; they were fetish girls placed in the pagodas riddled with shells in order to protect the altars; inspired women who marched to the firing line in order to encourage the soldiers. They were the goddesses of these incomprehensible Boxers, alike atrocious and admirable, hysterical defenders of Chinese fatherland, maddened by hatred and terror of the foreigner, who one day ran away without fighting, and the next, with demoniac shrieks, threw themselves with swords against a rain of shells, against troops ten times more numerous than themselves."

These extraordinary prisoners had become the property, the curious *bibelot*, says Loti, of the seven allied Powers. They were not maltreated, only shut up; they tried to commit suicide. Loti speaks of them with a sort of respect; he cannot help being moved by their despair; he feels that he is almost guilty of an impropriety in looking so long at them. "There are," he says," such abysses of incomprehension between European officers and the Boxers' goddesses that even our compassion cannot be explained to them. We had come to be amused by a curious spectacle, and we go away silently, cherishing with heart pang the image of the two poor forlorn creatures, imprisoned in the room where the night enters."

On the river, Loti has much to observe. He passes by Tong-Chow, the "city of celestial purity." The approach to it was rather frightful. "Out of a junk hangs a long dead arm with a bluish tint; dead cows are brought down by the current, swollen and stinking. A cemetery must have been violated close by, for on the mud of the shore are seen broken coffins." Tong-Chow was one of those immense Chinese cities, more populous than many capitals of Europe, whose name is hardly known to us. "To-day it is a phantom city; on drawing near, you are not long in seeing that all is now ruin—nothing but soldiers, invaders, guns. Cossacks, riding captured horses, are galloping furiously, like madmen, with savage screams." The "city of celestial purity" received the first shock of the allies, of the Japanese, "heroic little soldiers, of whom I would not speak ill, but who destroy and kill as in old times did the barbarian armies." "I would even less," Loti says, "speak ill of our friends the Russians, but they have sent here Cossacks from the neighborhood of Tartary; Siberians, half-Mongols, all admirable under fire, but who still understand war in the Asiatic fashion."

Loti arrives at last before Pekin. "The wall of Pekin stupefies us; it is gigantic, of Babylonian aspect, black under the dead light of the autumnal and snowy morning. It rises against the sky like the cathedrals, but it extends far, far away, for leagues, always the same." The city is entered through double, triple, tunnel-like gates, surmounted by donjons of five stories, with strange curved roofs, black and colossal. In the partition of the mysterious "Yellow City" made by the chiefs of the allies, a palace of the Empress was given to the French General, and Loti receives his hospitality. As the General has to go for a fortnight to Tientsin, Loti remains for two weeks alone, with his aide-de-camp, in this fairy residence, and we owe to this circumstance descriptions of which I despair of giving an idea, and which must be read

in the text. Imagine Loti, with his extraordinary powers of observation, in a sort of temple, impenetrable to all before the war, "where only the Emperors used to go once a year, for a week, to prepare themselves for a solemn sacrifice by rites and purifications."

Everything is extraordinary in the Imperial City. Loti has, however, such a keen faculty of adaptation that everything becomes almost natural to him. Writing from the palace, which has become for a while his headquarters, he says:

"In this inaccessible place, where it would once have seemed folly to think that I should come to live, everything seems already familiar. The presence of the great alabaster goddess in the obscure temple, the daily visit of a cat, the silence of the surroundings, the dull light of the October sun, the agony of the last butterflies on the windows, the sparrows which have their nest on the enamelled roofs, the flying of the dead leaves, the falling of the little balsamic needles of the cedars—what a strange destiny, when you reflect, has made me for a few days the master here."

The most impressive chapter is on Loti's visit to the tombs of the Emperors. "Here is the sacred wood, with its quietness and mystery. . . . What marvellous poets of death are these Chinese, who prepare such asylums for it." There are, it seems, in the vaults of the four tombs visited by Loti, treasures, precious stones, accumulations of gold and silver. "Those," says Loti, "who are authorities in matters of Chinese curiosities, tell our generals that round the corpse of a single Emperor one could find the value of the ransom claimed by Europe. Fortunately for our Occidental honor, none of the allies wished to employ these means." The tombs were respected. "The old Emperors, behind their eternal walls, heard not far from them the trumpets and the drums of the 'barbarian armies'; but they went to sleep again in their night, as quiet as before, in the midst of the inanity of their fabulous wealth."

Correspondence.

THE LAW AGAINST PRESIDENTIAL ASSASSINS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In support of Senator Bacon's argument against the Constitutional validity of a Congressional law punishing attempts on the life of the President or of any officer in the line of succession, I beg to submit a few remarks.

The power of Congress to make such a law can be derived only from the words at the end of article i., section 8: "To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution . . . powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States or in any department or officer thereof." If Congress cannot make a law punishing attempts on the life of the President, Vice-President, etc., with death, it is debarred by this clause in article iii., section 3:

"Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, except on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court."

To understand the object of this clause, we must look back to the English law of treason, as it stood at the time of the Revolution under the statute of 25 Edward III. There were five sorts of treason: two of these were acts against the King's wife or his eldest daughter, wholly inapplicable in a republic; the other three were: "Compassing or imagining the death of the King; levying war against him; adhering to his enemies [meaning foreign enemies], giving them aid and comfort." The statute of Edward III. also required two witnesses, though not to the same overt act. The plain object and effect of putting the above clause into our Constitution seems to have been to deny that any one person's life represents the life of the American Commonwealth in the sense in which that of the English King represents the public life of England. Of course, when war is going on between the United States and a force of rebels, an attempt on the life of the President in aid of the rebellion would be an act of war, and treasonable as such; or, if there was a war with a foreign Power, such an attempt in the interest of the foreign enemy would be an act of "adhering to the enemies of the United States, giving them aid and comfort," and the courts would so decide. But Congress has no power to define treason; the courts alone can construe the words of the Constitution which define it. If the acts of Czolgosz and Guiteau were acts of war, the Federal courts could hold them to be such without any assistance from an act of Congress; if they were not acts of war, a Congressional law cannot stamp them as such.

To say that such acts, whether the attempt be successful or not, are not treason, but shall nevertheless be punished with death, would make the safeguards which the Constitution throws around persons charged with treason a mockery, a delusion, and a snare. For if the crime is a mere felony, and not treason, the accused man may be convicted upon the testimony of a single witness, or upon the proof of an admission not made in open court. In fact, the bill now before Congress does not contain the safeguards against hasty convictions which English and American law has, ever since 1352, thrown around those accused of the highest crime known to the law. L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., March 14, 1902.

THE TRUST OF GIRARD COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The endowment of Girard College has, I think, usually been considered by those who know its provisions as an unfortunate example of tying the hands of administrators. Here was a man, grown rich by dealing in negro slaves and liquor, who specifically excluded from the benefits of his benevolence to Philadelphia the descendants of those slaves whom his rum had bought and his ships had transported.

If, however, as President Louis Wagner asserts, a considerable discretion is left to his board to make "material modifications" in the original terms of this great gift, would it not be a most excellent step for the directors to cease to limit the benefits of this institution to white orphans? Surely a city with the third largest negro population in the Union owes as much to its black folk as to its Irish, Russians, and Italians. Consider, too, the "poetic justice"!—Very respectfully,

W. E. B. Du Bois.

Atlanta University, Ga., March 15, 1902.

Notes.

Lewis, Scribner & Co., New York, are to publish for the Arctic Club of America 'The Wide World,' a collection of papers on personal experiences within the Arctic Circle by Admiral Schley, Walter Wellman, and others, with profuse photographic illustrations. They have also in preparation 'Opportunities in the Colonies and in Cuba,' with an introduction by Gen. Leonard Wood and a section on Porto Rico by ex-Gov. Allen.

"Lewis and Clark" is certainly in the air, as we can now announce the third reprint (second from the edition of 1814) contemplated this year. It will initiate the "Commonwealth Library," projected by the New Amsterdam Book Company to "preserve in popular form a wealth of valuable history of early American exploration," and to "cover works in almost every department of literature excepting fiction."

Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, 18 Tremont Street, Boston, purposes issuing ten volumes entitled "Breviary Treasures," including Anacreon's Odes, selections from the 'Gesta Romanorum,' Virgil's Eclogues, the 'Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius,' etc. The issues (one large-paper) will be for subscribers only.

T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s edition of Poe's complete works, under the supervision of Prof. James A. Harrison of the University of Virginia, is nearly ready.

'The Empire of Business,' by Andrew Carnegie, and 'Nature Portraits,' choice camera shots, reproduced in photogravure, with 48 pages of text, are in the press of Doubleday, Page & Co.

A third of the twelve crown octavo volumes constituting the "Oriental Series" of the J. B. Millet Co., Boston, is just appearing. 'Japan and China; Their History, Arts, Sciences, Manners, Customs, Laws, Religions, and Literatures,' is the real title. The author is Capt. F. Brinkley of Tokyo.

James Pott & Co. will issue directly 'Authors of Our Day in Their Homes,' from President Roosevelt to Winston Churchill, edited by Francis W. Halsey.

An artistic edition of the 'Song of Songs,' with an introduction by FitzRoy Carrington, and with Burne-Jones's illustrations, and 'The True Napoleon,' by Charles Josselyn, are in the press of R. H. Russell.

The Rev. Thomas Davidson bespeaks for 'Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language,' which he has edited in one volume (Philadelphia: Lippincott), the consideration that may be assumed to be due to his third experience in this sort of work. It is, in fact, a handy and serviceable compilation in 2,400 columns of not too fine type. Pronunciation and etymology are both looked after. Where there was so much need of condensation, it is observable, in the editor's peculiar province, how much space is allowed to minor religious sects, such as Muggletonian and Mormon (eight lines each), Glassite or Sandemanian (seven lines), Plymouth Brethren (five). The better known are dismissed in two or three lines,

with a slight inconsistency in attaching the definition now to the denomination (Methodism, Universalism), now to the member (Unitarian). Phrases are well cared for, but we miss either "lie" or "lay of the land." The Oxford Dictionary has been followed in its remarkable omission of "anti-slavery," certainly one of the best-worked of the *anti* epithets of the nineteenth century. The "reader's handbook" feature is exemplified under Seven—seven sleepers, seven wonders, seven wise masters, Seven Years' War, etc. The dictionary is judiciously illustrated, and there are the usual appendixes, including (for British latitudes) correct ceremonious forms of address, and a table of equivalents of French and English measures.

An old favorite, and, except for the late Henry Morley's books of selections, alone in its field—'Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literature'—is to be reissued in three large volumes, of which the first, covering the period from the "Wanderer's Song" to Dryden, is at hand. The work has undergone a very thorough revision, under the general editorial supervision of Dr. David Patrick. The sections on Old and Middle English literature have been greatly expanded, through the care of Dr. Stopford Brooke and Mr. A. W. Pollard, respectively. Other new collaborators are Messrs. Edmund Gosse, Sidney Lee, Andrew Lang, A. H. Bullen, George Saintsbury, and the late S. R. Gardiner and Francis Hindes Groome. The bibliographies have been brought up to date, and numerous portraits and facsimiles of manuscripts added. Just what course has been taken with the text of the extracts is not fully explained. A certain inconsistency in orthography was here inevitable, but a student would wish to know just how far the Cyclopædia text may safely be cited. The old awkward arrangement by which the same author might be distributed among widely separated parts of the work—as poet, dramatist, and prose-writer, for example—has been done away with in favor of the biographical plan; an obvious improvement. American and British colonial writers will find their appropriate places in the succeeding volumes, beside their home-keeping brethren. In this rejuvenated form this sixty-year-old work need not fear the competition of the various libraries of the world's best literature. A cyclopædia is not for light reading, so one need not deplore the unduly great weight of this large octavo. The Chambers of Edinburgh and Lippincotts of Philadelphia unite in the publication.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have gathered a pretty nosegay of 'Right Reading: Words of Good Counsel' drawn from ten authorities—Sir A. Helps, Carlyle, I. Disraeli, Emerson, Schopenhauer, Ruskin, J. C. Hare, Morley, Lowell, and Frederic Harrison. These names are an assurance of good reading, and something in so much advice will leave a profitable mark upon the mind of almost any one. Pithy and plausible as Emerson is (the passage is from his "Society and Solitude"), what protest might be raised—must be raised—to each one of his "three practical rules," viz., "Never read any book that is not a year old; Never read any but famed books; Never read any but what you like." "For instance," says John Morley, on a later page, "it is a mistake to think that every book that has a great name in the history of books or of thought is worth reading. Some of the most famous books are least worth reading. Their fame was due to their doing something that needed in their day to be done."

R. L. Stevenson's 'Aes Triplex, and Other Essays' has been issued by Thomas B. Mosher, Portland, in a side-pocket (almost vest-pocket) edition that will commend itself to lovers of the tasteful as well as of Stevenson.

Procter's 'History of the Book of Common Prayer' has passed through three editions, and been reprinted twenty times since its first publication, in 1855, a testimony to its popularity. A fourth edition, by Mr. Walter Howard Frere (Macmillan) has been considerably enlarged, and it is manifest that Mr. Frere has taken great pains to give full and accurate information, his list of principal authorities containing more than fifty titles. It is also plain that he prefers the first Prayer-Book of King Edward VI., of 1549, to the second, of 1552, and, wherever there is room for difference of opinion, he leans decidedly to so-called "High Church" if not ritualistic views. All of Part II., on "The Sources and Rationale of the Offices," has been recast. Its five chapters have been increased to nine, numbered continuously with those of Part 1. We miss sundry tables in the former appendix, and the glossarial index, which might have been retained as needful for certain terms. The section dealing with hymns and metrical psalms has been omitted, as full information can be obtained from the 'Dictionary of Hymnology.' Omitted, further, is the account of the adaptations made from the Prayer-Book for the use of Nonconformist congregations, as it was incomplete and space was lacking for a fuller treatment. Mr. Frere has traced the origin of much of the Prayer-Book to the old Service-Books, "of which," as he says, "it was the lineal descendant." The curious reader might supplement his account, especially of the Hampton Court Conference and the Savoy Conference, from Cardwell's 'History of Conferences on the Book of Common Prayer, from 1558 to 1690,' and, for the details of the successive revisions, from Parker's 'Introduction to the Revisions of the Book of Common Prayer,' not overlooking Bishop Dowden's recent compendious 'Workmanship of the Prayer-Book.'

'Hochelaga Depicta' is a sketch of the early history of Montreal, and a description of its actual state some sixty years ago. The volume was prepared by the Rev. Newton Bosworth, a Baptist clergyman, and first saw the light in 1839. It has long been out of print, and usually brings at auction more than ten times the price which it originally cost. We have received a reprint of this book from a Toronto firm (Congdon & Britnell), and it would appear from a fly-leaf announcement that other rare items of Canadiana are to be likewise reproduced. At least, the heading runs, "Facsimile Reprints of Early Canadian Books, No. 1." Canadian incunabula of all sorts are beginning to creep up in value, and a project to reproduce some of the most valuable pieces of early historical literature should receive encouragement. Typographically, this new edition of 'Hochelaga Depicta' is well executed, but the plates are decidedly inferior to those of the first edition. We have also noticed one or two things which might call down the wrath of that fastidious person, the expert bibliographer. For instance, the map which, in the original, faces page 58, is placed opposite page 91 in the reprint. Similarly, at pages 100 and 177, the plates are made to face the wrong way. These are simply changes of arrangement, and have no bearing whatever upon the value of the contents. We mention them because a reprint is tested by comparison with the original. As a work on local topography 'Hochelaga Depicta' is a classic, and we are glad that it has once more been made available at a reasonable price. The edition is limited to 500 copies.

In covers of Quaker drab, adorned with a whaler and a gull, comes a second, enlarged and well-illustrated edition of Lydia S. Hinchman's 'Early Settlers of Nantucket' (Philadelphia: Ferris & Leech). In this day of D. R.'s and D. A. R.'s, proving by their works their inheritance of belligerency, it is pleasant to know that there are some present-day Americans who come of peace-loving Quakers and are proud to claim their lineage. This book is, in fact, chiefly a genealogy, but carries enough of "customs, documents, and incidents" to give it a general interest. The little island has had a monotonous and yet a strenuous history. Its whaling voyages were a perpetual strain on sailors and families alike, and attempted neutrality in the Revolution brought by no means peace and quiet. Those who believe in heredity should keep an eye on the ladies of to-day mentioned in the index of this book, for they all come of Nantucket ancestry. When the men were gone a-whaling for years at a time, the women, says an old writer here quoted, managed their husbands' business with dexterity. "This ripens their judgment and justly entitles them to a rank superior to other wives." The genealogies given are careful and elaborate, and the errors evident on our cursory examination are few and unimportant. We foresee some heart-burnings among those who can claim only three descents from Tristram Coffin, for some there be who have four or five. The stranger to Nantucket ancestry will be spared these anxieties, and will read of the early settlers and the rise and fall of the Quaker power with sheer pleasure in sea breeze and Friends' calm. The island has now become little more than an old homestead, whose children are scattered far and wide. The last Indian died in 1854, and now, we are told, the last Quaker is gone, and apparently the last whaler also.

Noyes, Platt & Co., Boston, send us 'American Mural Painting: A Study of the Important Decorations by Distinguished Artists in the United States,' by Pauline King. From their close relations with Curtis & Cameron, owners of the right of reproduction of most of the important mural paintings in this country, Noyes, Platt & Co. had unusual facilities for the production of such a book as this, while Miss King's wide acquaintanceship among artists has given her a similar advantage. In a work which owes so much to the courtesy of the artists written of, one could hardly expect much criticism, and the text is naturally rather colorless. There is, however, considerable discrimination in the bestowal of praise, and the statements of fact seem generally correct. The illustrations are fairly successful half-tone reproductions of photographs, and

their selection covers the ground pretty thoroughly. The book makes an acceptable record of an important movement in American art.

The first number of *Les Arts*, published by Goupil & Co., Paris and New York, gives a fairly favorable impression of the enterprise. This new monthly is to cover the whole range of the plastic and graphic arts, with especial attention to private collections, current exhibitions, and additions to the museums. In the present number M. André Michel describes the proper use of works of art, their chief end in his estimation being the public museums; Paul Villars begins an account of Mr. Alfred de Rothschild's collections of eighteenth-century painting; Gaston Migeon describes recent accessions to the Louvre; the veteran curator, M. E. Moliner, comments upon remarkable examples of eighteenth-century French furniture in foreign possession; the great Delacroix is M. Maurice Hamel's subject, and the late J.-C. Cazin is M. Thiébault-Sisson's; Roger Marx writes on the renaissance of the decorative arts, chiefly of goldsmithry, and a department of news notes on sales and matters of current art interest completes the table of contents. All the articles are of exemplary brevity, and the magazine, in spite of its notable list of contributors, will evidently depend chiefly upon its pictorial features. The illustrations of the present number are well chosen, and, from their large scale, useful, but all of them are in half-tone of very ordinary execution. An English version, too obviously "made in France," is appended.

The promise of a really authoritative periodical of English genealogy and family history will be received with general satisfaction. This is given us in the announcement of the *Ancestor*, a quarterly to be edited by Mr. Oswald Barron and published by Archibald Constable & Co., London, who have recently distinguished themselves by similar undertakings, notably by the Victoria County Histories. Mr. Barron's unusual knowledge in the field to be covered is well known to many who are interested in it. The first number of the new periodical, which will be illustrated, is announced for March 25, and the list of contributors, including among others Sir George Sitwell, Sir H. Maxwell-Lyte, Mr. J. Horace Round, and Mr. St. John Hope, besides the editor, certainly supports the promise of accuracy and authority.

The latest number of the *Litterarhistorische Forschungen* is a study of 'Luigi Pulci and the Morgante Maggiore,' by Lewis Einstein (Berlin: Felber). The definitive monograph on Pulci is still to be written, but, as an introductory survey of the subject, Mr. Einstein's work is not without merit. Two introductory chapters deal with the life and minor works of Pulci, and give a succinct account of his gifted but less celebrated brothers, Luca and Bernardo; the succeeding chapters are devoted to the 'Morgante Maggiore,' its sources and its general influence; and the volume closes with an interesting study of Pulci's mind and art. Though published abroad, this essay was evidently written for the master's degree at an American university, and, while showing some of the crudities which usually characterize such productions, it has a literary flavor too often lacking in German dissertations. Pulci has been so generally ignored by the literary specialist that a brief monograph devoted to his life and works cannot fail to receive a welcome from the student of the Renaissance.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, number two, opens with an appreciative review, by Dr. K. Sapper, of the report by Dr. Charles W. Hayes on the geology and topography of the Nicaragua Canal route. He characterizes it as containing "the most exact and reliable information which has ever been given of a portion of Central America." Other articles are a description of the Landes in southwestern France, and an account, by Professor von Drygalski, of the equipment of the German Antarctic expedition and the incidents of the voyage to Cape Town.

"The *momentary* government of Florida, for *temporary* is too strong a term," is the happy phrase with which President Monroe described the political condition of our new territory in a manuscript letter preserved in the Boston Public Library and now printed in the March Bulletin. It was written immediately after we took possession, and refers to a conflict of authority which had already arisen between Gen. Jackson and the Federal Judge Fromentin. The President says that his idea is that, "under the law of the last session," the United States jurisdiction extended "to revenue and the slave trade only; . . . that until the next meeting of Congress, and further provision being made, the laws of Spain were to govern there." Among the other documents printed is a letter from Aaron Burr to Gov. Alston, denouncing the proposed nomination of Monroe for the Presidency by a "Congressional caucus," dominated by a "certain Junto of Actual and factitious Virginians [who] having had possession of the Govt for 24 years consider the U. S. as their property, and by bawling 'Support the Admn' have so long succeeded in duping the republican public." Burr's characterization of Monroe is a remarkable piece of invective. He recommends the independent nomination of Jackson, not because of any "exclusive attachment" to him, but "to break down this Vile combination which rules & degrades the U. S." Monroe's Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, writes of the great difficulty in securing ministers to the principal European Courts, because of the meagreness of the salary attached to the office. Referring to the declining of the missions to England and Russia by men of great ability, he adds: "The state of things will be felt in consequences which may cost the Nation Millions for every thousand saved by their parsimony in this instance."

The crime of personation is one of the most serious difficulties with which the Government of northern Nigeria has to contend. Sir F. Lugard, the Imperial High Commissioner, says that, throughout the protectorate, it frequently happens that "a man wearing a fez and a pair of trousers comes to a village and announces that he has been sent by the white men. He may remain there for months, levying blackmail from the ignorant natives," threatening, in case of their refusal to comply with his demands, their extermination by the forces of the protectorate. It is his conviction that, in both East and West Africa, "much injustice and oppression has been unwittingly done by our forces," acting on false accusations by these personators—an evil which can be checked only by "patient and unwearying investigation by properly trained political officers with good interpreters." The appointment of such able and experienced men he strongly urges. The whole protectorate is being organized under *native* government, a white civil resident being placed with each important chief. He simply sees that there is no flagrant abuse of power, and reports in case of an utterly incompetent chief. This is absolutely different from the Russian way in Mantchuria and the German way in China, and is characteristic of the English. A great extension of the railway system is advocated in the interest of the peaceful development of the country.

Mr. Max Williams of No. 397 Fifth Avenue sends us four large color prints, in which Mr. Stuart Travis has touched with real humor some of the extravagant possibilities of the automobile craze. Perhaps the most amusing is "The Interrupted Hunt": the fox is proudly seated in a runaway (or is it an abandoned?) motor-carriage, while the hunt is thrown into dire confusion by the crossing automobiles. Other titles are "The Luncheon," "The Return from the Links," and "The Meet at the Black Swan"—a chapter of ludicrous accidents. Mr. Travis shows a genuine comic sense, which is not common among our illustrators, and his clever renewal of the style of the old sporting prints will decorate tastefully any room for which they are appropriate.

—The Fifth Annual Report of the Commissioners of Fisheries, Game, and Forests of the State of New York, covering the year ending September 30, 1899, and now published, comes as a posthumous work, for the Commission reporting is no more. Their account of the last year of their labors has travelled slowly through the press, and appears simultaneously with the Report of their successors for the year 1901. The latter, the Seventh Report, is a businesslike pamphlet of 93 pages. The Fifth Report is, like its predecessors, a quarto of nearly 500 pages, expensively presented in a limited edition, and adorned with numerous illustrations, mostly relevant, including the usual colored plates of fish and birds. Among the more valuable articles accompanying the Report, we note "Timber Product of the Adirondacks," by the Superintendent of State Forests; "Shad Culture in the Hudson River," by A. N. Cheney; and "The Commercial Fisheries of Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, and the Niagara and St. Lawrence Rivers," by John N. Cobb. The value of the Report itself is minimized by the delay and manner of issuing it. This accords, however, with the general unwisdom with which the State administers the Forest Preserve. It would be difficult to find a more striking example of waste of a valuable property. The Constitution of the State, lest what remains should be destroyed, forbids the use of the axe in the decrepit forests which the State has acquired, and thus prevents both the gaining of a revenue from the woods and their proper care. It is as if the Constitution should direct that the Capitol should be kept closed for fear the legislators

should make way with the staircase. In the Adirondacks the pine has been a rare tree for decades, and now the spruce is rapidly disappearing. The hard woods which remain are to some extent a hindrance to the restoration of the soft woods, while the hard woods themselves have neither the economic nor the hygienic value of the evergreens which they repress. Hence the removal of a portion of the hard woods is important in forestry work. Yet it appears that, though many inhabitants of the Adirondacks have no other resource for fuel, they may not use the beech and maple which cumber the ground, and of which the removal would be an advantage to the State.

—The proper care of the forests, and the financial interests of the State, alike demand the introduction of modern forestry methods in the Adirondacks; and these methods include the removal of ripe and worthless trees, and the planting of young trees of the valuable species in their place. There is probably some truth in the argument that the axe of the woodcutter would be subject to the axe of the politician. Yet, since the State will probably continue its present form of government, the remedy should be sought not in a non-possumus, but in educating the people to a knowledge of and an interest in this great property of theirs. To this end, the State Reports should be practical in their nature, prompt in their publication, and disseminated among the people as widely as possible, even though the expense of such distribution should require the omission of colored plates and of the names of some of the persons who three years ago paid a dollar apiece for the privilege of catching minnows with a net in Lake Ontario.

—'Napoleon's Letters to Josephine, 1796-1812,' have been collected and translated with notes from contemporary sources by Mr. Henry Foljambe Hall (Dutton). The bulk of the correspondence as it is now printed comes from the Collection Didot, which has been available ever since 1833, and which was largely drawn upon under the Second Empire by the commission that edited the 'Correspondance de Napoléon I.' Mr. Hall also accepts as authentic the love-letters of 1796 as they were published by Charles Tennant in 1824. A few other letters have been brought together from various sources, but none of them are very important even if one were willing to admit that they are genuine. The Didot series seems by far the most authentic, and it is certainly the most colorless. Mr. Hall is an ardent admirer of Napoleon, and in his introduction, which must be styled too discursive, he collects praises of him by all sorts of persons, ranging from Wieland and Johann von Müller to the present Archbishop of Canterbury. In this way he prepares his readers for disappointment because the Emperor's genius, however colossal in other respects, does not reveal itself in the letters which follow. The fervid epistles published by Tennant are commonplace in both their sentiment and their diction. If we rule them out as being under suspicion, little remains save hurried notes from the seat of war. Here is a fair example, in Mr. Hall's translation: "I am at Posen [1806], capital of Great Poland. The cold weather has set in; I am in good health. I am about to take a circuit round Poland. My troops are at the gates of Warsaw. Adieu, dear; very kindest regards, and a hearty embrace." Taken one with another, the letters of the Marengo campaign and succeeding years will average hardly ten lines in length. The general nature of the relations between Napoleon and Josephine at different periods is so well understood that there is no need to dwell upon it here. However affectionate Napoleon may have been in his early married life and however considerate afterwards, he did not belong to his family but to the public. As he once said to Gallois: "Je suis tout à fait un être politique." Mr. Hall's translations are not remarkably good, but his numerous notes may prove useful to those who are beyond the reach of the 'Correspondance de Napoléon I.' There is a singular slip in the introduction where Mr. Hall says: "Of Napoleon's goodness we have the well-weighed verdict of Lord Acton, that it was 'the most splendid that has appeared on earth.'" This is apparently a misprint, but it needs to be corrected. Lord Acton at the close of that remarkable article in which he reviewed Ropes and Seeley side by side, actually did term Napoleon "the most splendid genius that has appeared on earth."

—The interests of political and social reform in England have lost a devoted friend by the death, in his seventy-fifth year, of Peter W. Clayden, formerly a distinguished member of the editorial staff of the London *Daily News*. The services rendered by Mr. Clayden to the cause of the North deserve especially to be held in remembrance in America. When the civil war broke out, he was holding a pastorate in a provincial town, but had contributed occasionally to the press. Miss Harriet Martineau, whose friendship he had gained through his literary work, had been invited to contribute an article on the war to the *Edinburgh Review*. Knowing Mr. Clayden's enthusiasm and ability, she suggested that he should write it instead. "But how do I know," asked Mr. Henry Reeve, the editor, "that a young Unitarian minister at Nottingham can write an article for the *Edinburgh Review?*" Harriet Martineau replied: "Mr. Clayden shall do it, and get it done in very good time. If, when you come to read it, you do not like his work, I will write an article for you myself." The article was ready a month before it was wanted, and led Mr. Reeve to thank Miss Martineau for giving him a new writer. His appointment as an editorial writer on the *Daily News* was in succession to Miss Martineau and on her recommendation. The first articles he wrote for that paper also dealt with the American crisis. From 1868 to 1887 Mr. Clayden wrote leading articles for the *Daily News*, and held the post of assistant editor. As an indication of his industry, it may be mentioned that one year his contributions amounted to 453, and that for part of that period he went three days a week to Reading to edit a Liberal paper, which he successfully established in that town, returning without fail to London in time to be at the *Daily News* office at four o'clock. From 1887 until his retirement in 1896 he was night editor of the latter paper, and directed its policy. During the last years of his life, Mr. Clayden was by no means idle, having been Secretary of the "Liberal Forwards"—an association formed to promote the fulfilment of British responsibilities toward Armenia—and having been still actively engaged in many other Liberal movements.

—No problem in the government of uncivilized races is so difficult, now that slavery is out of the question, as how to induce the native to work. He has learned only to fight and to hunt, while the women have worked. But when he is prevented from fighting, and the game has disappeared before civilization, and his new rulers provide for his few wants, as is the case with our Indians and the South African natives, the whole male race sinks inevitably into confirmed idleness. There is practically no agriculture in South Africa because the native will not work upon the land. The natives employed in the Rand mines, some 100,000 in number, come almost wholly from the Portuguese territory. They are willing to brave all the hardships and dangers of the long journey from their homes for the sake of high wages, which offer no inducement to the neighboring British native. As the mines will soon require a much larger number of workmen (the London *Times* correspondent says 250,000), the Government has devised a plan by which it is hoped this labor will be obtained regularly and under favorable conditions. A Department of Native Affairs has been created, and a man of great experience in ruling Africans, Sir Godfrey Lagden, placed in control. The employers have formed a Native Labor Association, authorized to speak and act for the entire mining industry, which will send out recruiting agents having Government licenses. An agreement has been made with the Portuguese Government for the regulation of this recruitment, as well as for the collection, protection, registration, and transport by train of the native gangs. The Association also appoints licensed overseers of the native quarters, over whom is a corps of Government inspectors. Natives may apply to these personally in any case of abuse, and it will be their business to investigate and report upon all causes of complaint. The absolute possession of his wages without deductions will also be guaranteed to the native workman. It is hoped that by this system a steady supply of labor will be gained, and, gradually, that the knowledge of the easier and safer conditions under which work is done may spread through the British tribes and encourage them to come out to work.

—The recent celebration of the centenary of the Danish Vaccination Institute deserves notice, if for nothing else, because of the valuable sketch of vaccination in Denmark, published by the present director, Dr. Bondesen. Five years after Jenner had made his first successful experiment, and while his countrymen were still skeptical, a royal commission was appointed in Denmark to investigate the whole subject, and the result was the establishment of the Institute and the introduction of free vaccination in Denmark. The movement spread rapidly, and met everywhere with the greatest enthusiasm, many laymen acting as vaccinators. Among these was the wealthy and influential Count Ahlefeldt-Laurvigen, who vaccinated no fewer than three hundred persons. The most remarkable Danish vaccinator, however, was the public executioner in Odense,

who probably thought that his professional work would serve him in good stead for preparation. He was a regularly authorized agent, and a facsimile of one of his certificates of vaccination is given in the sketch. Many of the country clergy and their wives, and even peasants, were among the active followers of Jenner. Not the least striking feature of the history of vaccination in Denmark is the apparently universal favor with which it was received and has ever since been held. If there have been opponents, they have not made themselves felt. From an early period, however, the Danish medical profession, from business motives, opposed vaccination by laymen, and since 1823 the work has been confined to physicians. Between 1810 and 1824 no cases of smallpox occurred in Denmark. The smallpox epidemic of 1833 led to the introduction of revaccination. The last important improvement in the Danish system of vaccination was the substitution of animal lymph, the preparation of which is intrusted to the Institute, in Copenhagen, from which it is sent all over Denmark. Heavy penalties are provided for the use of any other lymph. The annual budget of the Copenhagen Institute, which provides for a population of more than two millions, is less than $3,000.

MRS. FAWCETT'S LIFE OF MOLESWORTH.

Life of the Right Hon. Sir William Molesworth, Bart., M.P., F.R.S. By Mrs. Fawcett, LL.D. Macmillan Co. 1901.

Mrs. Fawcett's book raises two questions: First, Was it worth while to draw a literary portrait of Sir William Molesworth?

To this inquiry a critic may return an unhesitating and an affirmative answer. Molesworth's name is well-nigh forgotten, and it never at any time made any great impression on the general public; he was never known to English electors as was Brougham, or Palmerston, or Gladstone, or Bright, or Cobden. Even in the world of philosophic literature he did not fill a very large space; he never came near to the position of a thinker like Bentham, he was never known to thoughtful readers as was such a successful exponent of the ideas of a school as John Mill. In truth, the amount of his actual achievement in the sphere, either of politics or of letters, was small. But, for all that, Molesworth exhibited a peculiarity, or even an originality, of character which gives him a right to a portrait in any gallery of English worthies. He united qualities which have hardly ever been found in combination; he had the merits and demerits of a country gentleman, and at the same time the virtues and the defects of a fanatical Benthamite. He was at once a squire and a philosophic radical. It is this combination which gives the flavor of originality to his acts, his words, and his thoughts.

Let the reader think for a moment how unprecedented was, in 1830, a turn of mind which strikes one as strange even in 1902. The English squire was, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, a natural-born Tory; his interests were of necessity the pleasures and duties of a country landowner. He might, indeed, under the stress of circumstances (though this was rare), become a Whig, but even then he was occupied in the enjoyments and pursuits of country life, and never a bookworm, a philosopher, or a radical. Now if you look at Molesworth's life from one side, and especially if you dwell upon the anecdotes, only too few, which Mrs. Fawcett has collected of his youth, you perceive at once that he inherited the tastes and showed the traditions of a country gentleman. He was, it is true, turbulent and pugnacious. So was Bismarck, who owed half his strength to his possessing the qualities of a Prussian squire. Molesworth was also, like other young gentlemen of his age, determined to enjoy life. The one striking feature of his early manhood is the vigor with which he threw himself into any pursuit whatever that roused his feelings or excited his interest. He was at any moment ready to fight a duel, and challenged and fought his college tutor. No one was killed, but the duel was a very serious matter, and a Highland servant devoted to Sir William had made up his mind that, if his master fell, he, McLean, would slay Sir William's antagonist. While fighting his tutor, Molesworth, whose father was dead, kindly patronized his mother, and wrote to her the assurance of his being highly satisfied with her conduct throughout the whole affair. She well deserved this praise, for she had entered into the spirit of the fray, and, when asked to interpose, replied that she never could advise what hereafter might be deemed injurious to her son's honor. Twice, or even thrice, he was again on the verge of a duel. This, the reader should note, was all in keeping with the code then adopted by gentlemen. Both Scott and Macaulay—much more pacific persons than Molesworth—were prepared, when honor required it, to go out and kill, or, at any rate, try to kill, their man.

But Sir William was no mere fighter; he mixed in society, foreign and English; he delighted in social intercourse; he went to balls and dinners; he enjoyed all the pleasures of life. Above all, he felt keenly the dignity and the responsibilities attaching to a country gentleman of good lineage and to the heir of a good estate. But Molesworth was also a philosophic radical; and adopting, as he did, with all his natural vehemence, the dogmas of the sect which he had joined, he was, from many points of view, everything which a country gentleman was then most certain to condemn. He was a democrat; he wished to destroy the state of society in which English squires delighted. He revelled in argument, and his logical training supplied him with arms for an assault on all the institutions which an English country gentleman held in honor. He was a bookworm, but he had no love for literature; he might be called a scholar, but he thought little or nothing of the sort of scholarship which English gentlemen, imbued with prejudices or principles, picked up at Oxford or Cambridge.

Then, too, the future editor of Hobbes, the admirer of Grote, and the disciple of James Mill, was a freethinker. It is hardly possible for a modern reader to understand the unpopularity which Molesworth's type of radicalism was certain to excite among the gentlemen of Cornwall. How deep was the prejudice against the philosophic radicals may be best understood by recalling to our minds the attitude towards them of men as fair and liberal-minded as Macaulay and Frederick Denison Maurice. The author of the celebrated articles on Utilitarianism, who was himself at bottom a utilitarian, derides Bentham's disciples as the foes of polite literature and the advocates of logical pedantry; and Maurice, in his unread and almost unreadable novel, 'Eustace Conway,' betrays the belief that a utilitarian was likely to be a scoundrel. The truth is, that the philosophic radicals, with all their great merits, were doctrinaires. They were at once advocates of popular rights and yet themselves unpopular. They, moreover, suffered under the imputation, not altogether unfounded, of a skepticism which the outspoken brutality of 1830 called atheism, and the milder and fairer language of 1902 would term agnosticism; and Molesworth, on this point, as on every other, shared the unpopularity of his associates. He adopted all the political ideas which were then most unpopular in the English gentry. He was an advocate of the ballot, he favored free trade; he desired democratic changes which went far beyond the Reform Act of 1832; he detested and abused the Whigs, he founded the *Westminster Review*, and, from his vigorous and successful attempts to secure for the colonies something like practical independence as well as immunity from the importation of convicts, appeared to most of his contemporaries, and certainly to his political opponents, to be hostile to the greatness of the empire. A modern Liberal, indeed, may hold that Molesworth, in common with the philosophic radicals, was, as regards many political doctrines, in advance of his age.

But an observer who is more interested in human nature than in politics will care less to determine whether Molesworth was politically right or wrong than to understand and note the trick of fate by which a Cornish squire became a Benthamite radical. Nor will such an observer fail to note that it is the combination of incongruous qualities which gives an interest to Molesworth's character, and even to his statesmanship. He was a philosophic radical, but a philosophic radical with a difference. He shared sentiments which James Mill would have condemned as prejudices, and which John Mill, in spite of all his desire to give and receive sympathy, would never have been able to understand. Molesworth, from the beginning to the end of his life, when his last directions were that his funeral, though plain and unostentatious, should be "like a gentleman's," remained the Cornish squire. His portrait was well worth drawing, and Mrs. Fawcett's picture of the man as an individual is, if not exactly powerful, at least full of sympathy and interest.

Secondly—Has Mrs. Fawcett given us a just estimate of her hero? The fact that Molesworth is her "hero" makes it all but impossible to return to this inquiry a favorable reply. Hero-worship is in itself the negation of fairness; the worshipper is sure to fall into one at least of two errors—he either erects too high a pedestal for his idol, or tries to exalt the object of his admiration by unduly depreciating every possible competitor for fame. Mrs. Fawcett falls into both these errors. She assuredly gives to Molesworth a higher place than he would have claimed for himself or than would be assigned to him by any impartial critic. Even as a thinker

and writer, he did not stand in the first rank among the men of his school. He attracts little if any attention from inquirers who, like Leslie Stephen, have made a special study of Utilitarianism. He published a meritorious edition of Hobbes's work. He meant to publish a life of Hobbes, but he died without accomplishing his intention. He never exerted anything like the influence of John Mill, and he never accomplished in the world of letters anything equivalent to the work of Grote. In politics he did not become a leader. He did good work in the improvement of Britain's colonial system, and might have done more had he not died comparatively young. But with speculations about what might have been, a wise man will not greatly trouble himself.

It would be folly and ingratitude to depreciate Molesworth's labors; he did a great deal more for the good of the country than do most M. Ps. But to suppose that his efforts on behalf, for instance, of free trade can be placed side by side with the labors of Bright or of Cobden, would argue on the part of a critic a lack of all sense of proportion. The Corn Laws might have remained unrepealed till to-day if the academical arguments of the philosophic radicals had not been reinforced or superseded by the enthusiasm, the harangues, and the noisy agitation of the Anti-Corn-Law League. But Molesworth, Mrs. Fawcett is obviously convinced, is not to be confounded with the Manchester school, whose services to the country she does not at all fully appreciate. The distinction which she obviously draws, and insists upon far too strongly, between the principles of Molesworth and the political doctrines with which the Manchester school is identified, is, in a very limited sense, real, but Mrs. Fawcett makes far too much of it. The distinction, such as it is, lies in the fact that Molesworth did not, at any rate in the later part of his career, share Cobden's belief in the lasting reign of peace, and, further, that he entertained a certain sympathy with the imperial greatness of England. But when you look at the matter dispassionately, it is extremely difficult to believe that Molesworth was, as we gather his biographer believes, an Imperialist born before his time.

We doubt very much whether he himself would have drawn, and whether either his critics or his admirers did in fact draw, the distinction, which seems so important to Mrs. Fawcett, between Molesworth and other radicals. He, it is true, separated from Cobden and Bright on the question of the Crimean War, and, though that war meets fewer defenders now than it did when it was undertaken, it is quite arguable that Molesworth was in the right. What is certain is that many radicals were supporters of a war which seemed to them to be resistance to Russian aggression. On any other point it is a little difficult to see where it was that Molesworth differed fundamentally from Cobden and Bright. He attacked the Colonial Office, and wished that the English colonies should as soon as possible receive responsible government and be allowed to manage their own local affairs. So did Cobden and Bright. He clearly believed, as appears from the well-known speech of April 10, 1851, to which Mrs. Fawcett makes constant reference, that the colonies cost England much useless expense; he was firmly convinced that England's Colonial Empire ought not to be extended, and especially that it ought not to be extended in South Africa. In all this he occupied exactly the same position, whether we hold the position right or wrong, as the Manchester radicals. He no doubt entertained a vague hope that the colonies, if left to themselves, might come to the aid of the mother country in any just and necessary war; and in this hope he differed, let us admit, from the Manchester School. But, after all, we must not attach too much importance to a hope supported, as it happens, by a fallacious argument which was obviously meant to conciliate opponents. The great speech of 1851 might in its general tone have been endorsed by Cobden or Bright; and, after all, Molesworth's views as to South Africa in 1852 and 1854 are decisive as to his whole position. It is vain to deny that he showed himself at that time precisely what is, in the slang of to-day, called a "Little Englander." His attack on Sir Harry Smith cannot be overlooked. It is exactly the kind of attack which is now directed against Sir Alfred Milner. Whether the attack can be held in either case or in both cases justifiable, is a point which we have not the least intention of arguing. All that we insist upon is that Mrs. Fawcett's honest statement of Molesworth's attitude about South Africa is fatal to her general estimate of his statesmanship. He published in May, 1854, the notes of a speech never delivered in defence of the abandonment of the Orange River territory. In 1878 Kruger was in England to protest against the annexation of the Transvaal; he obtained from Molesworth's widow leave to republish the Notes. Certainly Kruger did not believe that Molesworth was an advocate of Imperialism, and in this matter we agree rather with Kruger than with Mrs. Fawcett.

MORE FICTION.

The New Americans. By Alfred Hodder. The Macmillan Co.

Under the Skylights. By Henry B. Fuller. D. Appleton & Co.

Circumstance. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. The Century Co.

The Marrow of Tradition. By Charles W. Chesnutt. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

In Great Waters. By Thomas A. Janvier. Harper & Brothers.

Orloff and his Wife. By Maxim Gorky. Translated from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood. Charles Scribner's Sons.

In 'The New Americans,' nationality is rather over-emphasized. The people sometimes appear more like pilgrims from a remote planet than like children of the race that calls earth its mother. Richardson classified human beings as "men, women, and Italians," and Mr. Hodder seems to accept the classification, substituting Americans for Italians. The Americanism of those citizens of Cincinnati who are selected for representation is not external, a thing obvious and objectionable to the eye and ear; it is a mental attitude, an air of rejecting experience and of individual capacity to adjust the disordered Universe; it is a sort of predominating egotism of the intelligence, which plays havoc with human relations and rather crowds out human instincts. Such characterization, so far as it goes, is not unjust, but it does not go far enough; it creates a false impression as to fact, and it represents people so artificially that it is impossible to like or dislike them, or to care a straw about them. A fair inference from the book is that the author has been inspired more by critical than by creative purpose, and that his first intention has been to free his mind of a load of observation. His eye is particularly and sternly fixed on American women. Early in the work he sounds the censorious note. Mrs. Windet, the mother of the hero, Alan Windet, had managed (one is not definitely told how) to fall short of her husband's ideal of a wife. Since Mr. Windet had expected her to be "an embodied counsel of perfection," the author, we think, treats her failure with undue severity. "She had undertaken that function readily enough," he says; "all women undertake it with a readiness that is amazing, if one considers the sheer ignorance in which they contrive to live. They seem to assume that freedom from error is a quality of sex, like an absence of beard."

Mr. Windet never forgave his wife for disappointing him. The poor woman tried to run away, but he captured her and kept her henceforth as closely a prisoner as if she were chained to a stake. Dealing with a new generation, Mr. Hodder continues to testify; neither youth nor beauty nor talent can bribe him to equivocate. Thus does he introduce his heroine, Miss Cecily Elderlin, a young woman on whom the gods had showered gifts: "She was young and 'paid with her person' [a frequent phrase on New American lips]. She paid presumably as little as she could. She was one of the 'nice girls' who make it a point of honor to go through life quietly demanding everything and giving nothing. She was a prodigious egoist, who fancied she had earned the kingdom of heaven if she consented reluctantly to be adored." When Miss Elderlin rejects Alan Windet it is explained that "she possessed the current American conception that a woman is by birthright something for some one else to dedicate himself to and to do things for." When she resents a commonplace remark, we are informed that "she was always offended by an accent on a difference in sex: it was as if she thought the Deity had made a blunder in creating them male and female, though she was not averse to accepting the advantages of being a woman."

This kind of criticism is unquestionably animated, and we quote it neither to agree nor to dissent, but to show Mr. Hodder's indifference to the generally accepted canon of fiction which prescribes for the author an impartial attitude towards his characters. But his whole conception of the art of fiction is mistaken. The characterization is one-sided, and therefore inadequate; the story is involved, and the motives of action are so obscure that it is almost hopeless to find out what any one is driving at. Everybody and everything is over-analyzed, over-described, and, after all, we have no impression of life, only an elaborate statement of the author's opinions about life. So many of these opinions are worth expression that one may overlook Mr. Hodder's error about the form in which they should be cast. If he has failed to write a good novel, he has

succeeded in writing an interesting and frequently amusing book.

Mr. Fuller's critical spirit is as keen as Mr. Hodder's, but far more genial, sympathetic, and retiring. It knows that in fiction it is entitled only to indirect expression, and that one of its most becoming garments is a cheerful and kindly satire. In the art of impersonal representation of life, Mr. Fuller has, indeed, very great skill, which he uses with a freedom, variety, and assurance most uncommon and enjoyable. That rage for culture which testifies at once pathetically and humorously to America's newness provides a motive for the tales collected in the volume entitled 'Under the Skylights.' The motive is developed through comedy which has just enough seriousness to intimate that the author has no intention of sneering at his people or belittling their aims and aspirations. It is, however, clear that he takes a lightly cynical view of the earnest literary movement, the home-art movement, the higher-life movement—every popular movement except that towards the palatial residence of Mrs. Palmer Pence, when that sumptuous person deigned to proffer tea to a thirsting mob about five o'clock in the afternoon. Even Abner Joyce, the son of the soil, the impassioned denouncer of the "unearned increment," the uncompromising "veritist" in life and letters, at last conforms. It is true that he stuck out, that he had his price. A cup of tea and a handshake could not undermine his principles, but a dinner, a dinner given with special reference to the author of 'This Weary World,' fetched him, and ranged him for ever on the side of Mammon. Such a climax must offend idealists, but no one who has looked the world in the face detects any glaring improbability. The characters of the first tale reappear in the second, which is too long and diffuse, and not justified by the central incident. The third tale, "Dr. Gowdy and the Squash," is well known. The satire is extravagant, and so the story passes for innocent farce.

In his novel 'Circumstance,' Dr. Mitchell's philosophical purpose is to illustrate the effect of circumstance on character. It may be that in working out an exciting plot he has lost sight of this purpose; at all events, its presence does not distract attention from the intrigues and manœuvres of a very competent adventuress called Mrs. Hunter. The lady's character appears to have been formed to control circumstances, indeed to mould them to her will. In the end she was partially defeated, but it took all the energy and intelligence of a large family, a Philadelphian family, to check her career of triumphant crime. The Philadelphians are depicted as very nice, moral, domestic people, constitutionally unfitted to do battle with such a circumstance as Mrs. Hunter. Two maiden ladies, combating pride and poverty, are delicately drawn, and the love affair of Miss Clementina is managed with great discretion.

The medium of fiction is used by the author of 'The Marrow of Tradition' to make a statement of existing relations between negroes and whites in several of the Southern States. Plot, characters, and situations are all conceived with this object in view. The combination of fiction and fact is not perfect, but it is closer and smoother than in most of the current purpose novels. The characterization of both races is excellent, and to many of the scenes the author has given a genuine dramatic touch, the touch that thrills and convinces. In statement of conditions and in criticism Mr. Chesnutt is calm, acute, and just—surprisingly so when he discusses lynch law and disfranchisement by the "grandfather clause" and other ingenious methods. The tone of his argument throughout is admirable, and the expression often eloquent. While his novel is inferior to his short stories in form and method, it shows more vigorously than they do the capacity for cool observation and reflection.

Mr. Janvier is not a too prolific writer; therefore, perhaps, his work suggests by its careful finish leisure for doing it and a personal pleasure derived from doing it well. Throughout his volume of tales of Great Waters, the predominating note is sombre, melancholy, tragic. One, "A Duluth Tragedy," is a pearl of price among stories. The tragedy of event develops itself naturally, inevitably, from the contrast and contact of the inexperienced, passionate, self-reliant Ulrica Ashley and George Maltham, a man not wicked, but weak, and rash enough to suppose that he might play with fire and escape being burned. It would be hard to find in fiction a situation more finely rendered than that where Ulrica steers her boat into the jaws of death. Any one might show the propriety, even righteousness, of Maltham's doom; but in letting Ulrica share it, in making the reader feel that she must share it, Mr. Janvier justifies a bold experiment. Maltham, when, at last, he knew what Ulrica meant to do, grasped the tiller and tried to shift the helm. Ulrica struck him down; he fell backward and lay in a heap miserably whining. "The complaining noise that he made annoyed her. For the last time she looked at him, burning him for an instant with her glowing eyes. Then her look was fixed on the great oncoming waves again, and she cast him out from her mind."

It is not very long since, in popular conception, imaginative literature was a form of expression from which pleasure of one kind or another could be extracted. Gradually this conception has been modified, and we have come to accept it as a very doubtful contributor to the sum of human happiness. It has been left for the Russian, Maxim Gorky, to convert it into an instrument of torture. The life represented in his tales of the "Barefoot Brigade" is at best degraded and painful; at worst, indecent and hideous. To read it is to be overcome with a disgust for life, for any scheme of existence that admits such possibilities. The representation has no appearance of exaggeration, of an unscrupulous desire for effect; it gives the impression of literal truth; it creates a positive belief in the fact. No doubt this is what Gorky means to do, and, if to do it is to be a great force in literature, let none dispute his greatness. Fortunately for us, at least, who cherish the English tradition, there is still room and time to protest. For us, in the estimation of greatness, there are still to be considered the quality of the subject, the ideas and the ideals presented to us. The day has not yet come for us to crown the vivid reporter of the filthy lives of more or less professional tramps. On first acquaintance, Gorky's tramps are rather interesting, because of their curiosity about the mystery of life, which suggests a spirituality trying to escape and to rise above their wretched material condition. But it never does rise, and what seems an interesting and redeeming individual attribute is nothing but a national trait that makes itself an excuse for vice. Gorky may or may not think it an excuse; one cannot tell. He is almost perfectly the impersonal artist or reporter, who tells what he sees and knows, adding neither judgment nor apology. It is not to be predicted that he may never apply this art to the rendering of the more hopeful and beautiful aspects of life; but in his translated work, at least, limitations are distinctly hinted. His occasional sketches of presumably refined persons with civilized habits are awkward, imperfect, sometimes not quite intelligible. He does not understand, probably does not perceive, emotions in which the intellect and what we call character are involved. He really grasps nothing in men and women except animalism, sensuality, materialism. He appears, indeed, chiefly as a born captain of the "Barefoot Brigade."

Financial Crises. By Theodore E. Burton. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

Mr. Burton has written a very interesting book. His table of bibliography shows that, in collecting his facts, he has examined a great number of authorities; and while it is not to be expected that his theories based on these facts should prove acceptable to all who have studied the subject, it must be admitted that they are in the main reasonable and plausible. The case is a difficult one, and from time immemorial financial doctors have disagreed as to the diagnosis and as to the proper remedies. It is not even possible to get all authorities to agree as to the fact that certain years were prosperous, and other years the reverse. But Mr. Burton is able to show pretty clearly that in many historic crises, such as those of 1825, 1837, 1847, 1857, 1866, 1873, 1884, and 1893, the sequence of phenomena was practically identical: first, a wild speculation, continuing in some cases for several years, followed by a panic due to a serious failure or defalcation, and that again followed by several years of depression. The earlier stages have been well described by Walter Bagehot: "A great many stupid people have a great deal of stupid money, and at intervals this blind capital is particularly large and craving; it seeks for some one to devour it and there is plethora; it finds some one and there is speculation; it is devoured and there is panic." This is probably as good an explanation as can be given of that extraordinary speculative mania which at certain times takes possession of a whole people, and, if unchecked, leads them headlong over the financial precipice. In the opinion of many good judges, the Northern Pacific corner of May, 1901, was a blessing in disguise, because it ended abruptly a wild speculation which would otherwise have ended in serious and widespread disaster.

One of the best-known periods of excessive speculation was that of 1720, which produced the South Sea bubble. Day after

day new companies were organized for every imaginable purpose—companies to make salt water fresh, companies to import jackasses from Spain, companies to make wheels of perpetual motion, and so on. But the climax was reached by an ingenious gentleman who one morning secured a thousand subscribers at two guineas apiece "for an undertaking which shall in due time be revealed." Here we have the original of the blind pool, not unknown to Wall Street, and it seems scarcely necessary to add that the projectors decamped with the two thousand guineas the same afternoon. Financial history repeats itself continually, because the son rarely profits by the experience of the father; and so we read that in the similar speculative period of 1825 a prospectus was issued of a company to be formed for the draining of the Red Sea, and the recovery of the gold and jewels left by Pharaoh's army.

"Black Friday" is connected in many minds with the idea of financial panic, and the connection is one of long standing. The original Black Friday was December 6, 1745, when the advance of the Young Pretender's army towards London caused a serious panic. Then there was another Black Friday in London on May 11, 1866, not, as Mr. Burton says, the day of the failure of Overend, Gurney & Co., but the day after. That important firm failed on Thursday afternoon, and, the fact being telegraphed everywhere, caused a terrible panic and many other failures the next day. Soon after came New York's Black Friday, September 24, 1869, when Jay Gould's attempt to corner gold caused acute distress in Wall Street.

In comparing earlier and later panics, Mr. Burton takes the ground that the coöperation of banking institutions, the greater quantity and mobility of capital and superior means of communication, have diminished the force of crises; but it is doubtful if this theory can be maintained. The most recent crisis in this country—that of 1893—was as long-continued and probably as disastrous from every point of view as any of its predecessors, and the enormous volume of modern transactions certainly tends to increased liabilities on the part of the firms and corporations which fail.

We have said that Mr. Burton's theory of crises is in the main a reasonable and plausible one, but we cannot admit the soundness of all his arguments. For instance, on page 155, he makes the statement that "the United States is not a debtor country, as formerly." If he means by this that it is not a debtor country to the same extent as formerly, no exception can be taken; but if he means, as we imagine he does, that it is not a debtor country in the sense that it holds the obligations of other countries to the same extent that other countries hold its obligations, then the statement is very misleading. The best authorities are of the opinion that, although the amount has been largely reduced of late years, there still remains a European investment in American securities of at least a billion of dollars over and above the small amount of American money which has been invested in European securities. The accuracy of this estimate can easily be verified by an examination of the stock ledgers of railroad companies, and by the amount of coupons received from abroad for collection. Again, at page 219, he speaks of an export of gold for investment abroad *contemporaneously with a low rate of exchange;* but surely this is a contradiction in terms. No export of gold can take place contemporaneously with a low rate of exchange unless the country receiving the gold is willing to pay a premium for it sufficiently high to convert an apparently low rate of exchange into an actually high rate; and such a premium corresponds to the expenditure of power required to force water up hill.

After describing the different crises that have occurred in the United States, Mr. Burton gives his opinion of the present outlook, or rather of the outlook at the time he was writing last summer. Among the unfavorable indications, he mentions the gross over-capitalization of new companies, the absorption of capital for increase of production or future profits, and the diminished activity and purchasing power in other countries with which we have close business relations; all of which conditions have been noted prior to the advent of crises in the past. On the other hand, he considers our financial position excellent, and adds that "large balances abroad furnish a valuable reserve upon which to draw in case of danger." Our financial position to-day can hardly be considered excellent, in view of the diminishing reserves which the banks hold against the greatest volume of deposits ever recorded; and as to the large balances abroad, they did not exist last summer, and they do not exist to-day, except in the imagination of writers of Wall Street news items whose interests lead them to take a cheerful view of the stock market. A much more important point in our favor is the increasing domestic production of gold. This has enabled us, without serious embarrassment, to pay Europe for the vast mass of American securities returned in the last few years, and may enable us to continue business on the present extended scale, in spite of the narrow banking margin, *provided no accident happens.* But, as M. Leroy-Beaulieu has well said, "Every machine moving at great pace and at the maximum of its speed runs the risk of derangement," and there are many thoughtful people, here and elsewhere, who are watching the rapid movement of the American financial machine with growing apprehension.

We have to thank Mr. Burton for an index and for a number of valuable statistical tables, in one of which, on page 345, we note a misprint; the United States wheat crop of 1893 being given as 896 millions of bushels instead of 396 millions.

Cecil Rhodes: A Study of a Career. By Howard Hensman. Harper & Bros. 1902.

The author of this biography informs us that he is indebted to a sister of Mr. Rhodes for some of his information; but the debt is not a large one. Nothing of consequence is told which has not already appeared in print, nor is the matter very interesting. If Mr. Rhodes directed the preparation of this sketch, he did not in selecting a biographer display the business sagacity with which he is credited. Mr. Hensman seems to be unpractised in literary composition, and he does not understand the art of drawing a character. Boswell achieved a great success by chronicling the particulars of the daily life of his hero, but such a success cannot easily be repeated, for modern life is less picturesque than in Dr. Johnson's day, and there are few characters so strongly marked as his.

Regarded in his private capacity, Mr. Rhodes seems to have been a boy like other boys and to be a man like other men. Thus, we are told that at school he was weak in mathematics, but strong in religion, French, the classics, history, and geography. Many such boys have existed. On several occasions he took part in the school sports—a not unparalleled occurrence. He had a disinclination to be behind any of his rivals—a disposition observable in many boys. "His temper was, in the main, genial and sunny; but at times he had outbursts of that imperiousness of will which has marked his later career, and was wont to chafe somewhat at the admonitions of his masters." On one occasion he went so far as to make a motion to throw a book at a teacher, but thought better of it. There is nothing remarkable in all this.

Mr. Hensman attends his hero through later life with similar inept assiduity. Those who are curious concerning his habits and belongings may read of them here, and may listen to many assertions of his greatness. But when it comes to a really critical attempt to characterize the man, his biographer collapses. "The truth is," he confesses, "that Rhodes is a bundle of inconsistencies, and that we no sooner feel that at length we have estimated his character correctly and fathomed all its depths, than he does something which upsets the whole of our calculations, and it is necessary to begin all over again."

We do not think the case quite so bad as this. So far from being inscrutable, Mr. Rhodes is easily comprehended. His distinction is that of a man who got rich through acquiring a diamond mine by methods quite familiar in our own financial world, and described as "cornering," "freezing out," "getting the cinch," and by other expressive epithets. Having secured the continuance of his prosperity by developing a system of slave labor, he conceived the ambitious design of exploiting the continent of Africa, for which undertaking he naturally thought the assistance of the British Government would be indispensable. As Sir William Harcourt said of his schemes, "All he asks us to do is to give up free trade and restore slavery." So far, he has got only half what he asked, but he may yet have the whole. In order to attain his purpose, he projected a telegraph line and a railway "from the Cape to Cairo," obtained title to the vast desert known by his name, and instigated the notorious Jameson raid. His "Chartered Company" has been a failure, and his attack on the Transvaal Republic has cost his country a thousand millions of dollars, untold numbers of lives, and the regard of England's truest friends. She has incurred the enmity of Europe and the undying hatred of the Dutch people of South Africa. These are very considerable achievements, but it does not yet appear that they will win Mr. Rhodes the gratitude of posterity.

Little doubt exists that if Africa is to be successfully exploited, it must be done by slave labor. Mr. Rhodes's plan is simple. Let a hut-tax or a poll-tax be enforced, and the natives will discover the advantages of working. They will not work unless forced; therefore, let them be forced.

Even Mr. Hensman recoils at the pitiful reluctance of the natives to work under ground; they have a childish fear of the dark, it seems. But as diamonds cannot be mined without slave labor, their scruples must be disregarded. Naturally enough, Mr. Rhodes considers that alcoholic drinks should be kept from the natives; no slaveholder in our own country would have tolerated drinking on his plantation. But whatever credit belongs to Mr. Rhodes for prohibiting the sale of drink to the natives we cheerfully accord him. He needs all the entries to his credit that he can get.

The investigation into the Jameson raid, it will be remembered, was suddenly interrupted. It was whispered, whether truly or falsely, that if it had not been stopped, revelations would have been made which would have shaken the very institution of royalty. At all events, we do not know, and probably shall not know, all that Mr. Rhodes did. The Select Committee of the House of Commons found that "he deceived the High Commissioner representing the Imperial Government, he concealed his views from his colleagues in the Colonial Ministry and from the Board of the British South Africa Company, and led his subordinates to believe that his plans were approved by his superiors." On this Mr. Hensman comments as follows: "No little surprise was occasioned by the remark of Mr. Chamberlain, during his speech, that, however much Mr. Rhodes might have failed in his duties as a public man, there was nothing in the whole affair which redounded to his private dishonor. Certain small and unimportant sections professed astonishment at this statement. It is so easy to astonish some people."

The Passing and the Permanent in Religion. By Minot Judson Savage, D.D. (Harvard). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

Dr. Savage's title is probably a conscious variant of Theodore Parker's "Transient and Permanent in Christianity," the title of Parker's epoch-making sermon of May 19, 1841. The sub-title has a quaint, old-fashioned air: "A plain treatment of the great essentials of religion, being a sifting from these of such things as cannot outlive the results of scientific, historical, and critical study, so making more clearly seen the things that cannot be shaken." Many will think Dr. Savage too confident in his persuasion that without scientific, historical, and critical justification certain things cannot survive. The view of Macaulay's New Zealander from the broken arch of London bridge is likelier to be true. The indolent reviewer could not do better than to borrow from Dr. Savage's preface a description of the matter and the manner of his book. As we turn its pages, we find it easy to understand why the author's preaching should be so attractive. It could not be more simple than it is. The presentation of the preacher's thought is level with his apprehension of reality. He never attempts to say anything that he cannot say comprehensibly. Nothing is painfully suggested. The reader or hearer gets all there is, or all the preacher has himself acquired, as to one subject or another. Moreover, the tone is genial, optimistic, to a remarkable degree. To Dr. Savage, the whole business of life, death, and immortality is a very simple one. If there are mysteries, they can be easily explored. If difficulties are presented, it is for the fun of bringing them to naught; that is what they are for. The sermons are well calculated for a congregation of multi-millionaires. They are full to overflowing with the confident self-satisfaction of the time. We are a great people. There was never so much goodness or so much happiness before. Everything is very much as it should be, except the traditional theology, and that is on its last legs. In his last chapter, Dr. Savage pictures the heaven of his ideal as a still greater New York.

Each sermon-chapter follows the same general plan, which is to set aside the traditional form in deference to some higher, which is assumed to be the permanent reality. There is ample recognition of the traditional systems as feeling after God, if haply they might find him. The text of the first sermon might well have been Schiller's epigram—

"Which my religion? None of those you name;
'Tis so, in fact, because I have religion."

The leading thought—that religion is inescapable—is presented in an impressive manner. In the second chapter Dr. Savage does not make the common liberal antithesis between theology and religion, but regards theology, equally with religion, as something necessary and permanent—religion's intellectual form.

The chapters on worship and prayer are two of the worthiest in the book. That called "Hells" spends too much time on the hells that have burned out, and not enough on the very real and present hell of Swedenborg's conception, when he said, "They that are in sin are in the punishment of sin." In general, there is more emphasis upon the negative than on the positive side. In "The Resurrection Life"—a strange misnomer for the persistence of a spiritual self—Dr. Savage's confident spiritualism helps him to no detail. He simply projects upon the void his personal ideal of an agreeable and happy life; not perfectly happy—here the best touch—so long as there is anywhere unhappiness. But where we can know nothing, a more restrained imagination would, perhaps, be more reverent. There is an appendix which gives horrible examples in proof that Dr. Savage, when describing the traditional hell, was not using the worst words he knew by a good deal.

A Treatise on International Public Law. By Hannis Taylor. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1901.

During the last fifty years, in the view of this author, international law has passed through a more marked and rapid development than in any other single epoch in its entire history. To understand this development, however, it is necessary to regard the existing state system in the light furnished by an examination of its three predecessors—Greek, Roman, and Mediæval—"whose individual histories constitute only distinct stages in one unbroken and progressive development." Such an examination is made by Mr. Taylor in a summary statement of the early history of international usages; but we do not observe that any definite principles of development are deduced from this history, or applied to the elucidation of its later stages. We know, in a general way, that the rules of diplomatic intercourse have been formulated, that sovereignty and jurisdiction in relation to persons and things have been defined, that the rights and duties of neutrals have been particularized. But we get little new light from this treatise on the causes which have produced these effects, their origin and future operation; and the really valuable results of the author's scholarly labors are rather concealed than displayed by his pompous platitudes.

Let us take, for example, his comments on the extraordinary performance of President Cleveland in regard to the question of the boundary of Venezuela. The principle governing the action of our Government here seems to be derived from the proposition that "our marvellous national development entitled us to rank as a world-power." Most writers on international law have assumed that the United States has long been as much of a "world-power" as any other state; but they have not included among the doctrines of their science the proposition that the United States is the only sovereign state in the western hemisphere. Mr. Cleveland said, "Practically the principle for which we contend has peculiar, if not exclusive, relation to the United States," which would remove it from the category of law. For the essence of law is its application to a class of persons or phenomena; and a principle applying exclusively to one case is subversive of this notion. According to Mr. Cleveland's theory, every nation to the south of us is subject to our "overlordship," and maintains its existence only by our consent. As this author explicitly admits, our Government has the right of final judgment concerning intervention, and "intervention is a hostile act, which the state interfered with may treat as an act of war." This may or may not be called the "Monroe Doctrine," and it may or may not be recognized as a fact by other nations; but it illustrates the principle that might makes right, and is inconsistent with every definition of justice.

In accordance with this theory of the development of international law, no reference is made to the war with Mexico, beyond a suggestion that it was undertaken by our Government in "self-defence." We find that the burning of the palace of the Emperor of China in 1860 was unjustifiable, but we observe no allusion to recent events in that country, or to the principles of international law which they involve. As to resistance prolonged unreasonably, it is intimated that quarter should be granted to those finally captured, and that "the better opinion" forbids inhumanity when a civilized Power makes reprisals on barbarians. Curiously enough, the name of Aguinaldo is mentioned in a paragraph wherein it is laid down that "it is unlawful to bribe or otherwise seduce generals, soldiers, or people of the opposing belligerent." This follows a statement that injury by treachery is never permissible, and that gaining admission within the enemy's lines by false pretences or disguises is forbidden. But the capture of Aguinaldo is not mentioned; and if our Government is to do whatever is right in its own judgment, by virtue of its might, we know not why it may not change the laws of war. Another omission which we have noted is that of the case of the *Itata*, important for several reasons. We may add that it is creditable to the author that he justifies Lincoln's threat to execute

Southern prisoners in retaliation for the refusal of quarter to black soldiers, although he disapproves of the arming of the slaves.

The comments on the *Alabama* case are of peculiar interest because of Mr. Taylor's personal acquaintance with Capt. Semmes, whom he describes as one of the most astute and accomplished lawyers of his time. His criticism of this case and of the development of international law concerning the duties of neutrals toward belligerents is intelligent and thorough, and contains perhaps the best condensed review of the subject available. In general, we may say that the treatise covers the ground pretty completely, its pages numbering nearly 800. The authorities are conveniently cited in footnotes. The index is unusually full, covering 115 pages, and there is also a list of authorities cited. The treatise will no doubt prove a useful manual, especially for reference, although the author's opinions may not always command respect.

Early Renaissance Architecture in England: A Historical and Descriptive Account of the Tudor, Elizabethan, and Jacobean Periods, 1500-1625. For the Use of Students and Others. By J. Alfred Gotch, F.S.A. With 87 collotype and other plates, and 230 illustrations in the text. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. xxii, 281.

Although it has been disputed whether there ever was a true Renaissance of the arts in England, the English writers who are the most accurate and the most enthusiastic of our time, are accepting the term Renaissance architecture for all the buildings and their details—all the tombs, garden terraces, and decorative art generally—which come in date after the first introduction of classical forms from Italy into England. As with Mr. Blomfield, so with Messrs. Belcher and Macartney, and with the author of the work before us. What we have to consider is, whether the term Renaissance has been properly applied in these cases. About this it is evident that there must be differences of opinion.

The true Renaissance is the Italian movement dating from 1420 to about the beginning of the sixteenth century, and losing itself then in the completed cinquecento style which cannot in strictness be associated with the "revival," being an ultimate result. The appearance of classical details, with the change in general design in the north—that is to say, in the countries which we now know as France, Germany, Belgium, Holland, Sweden—is about eighty-five years later than in Italy; but the term Renaissance is with great propriety extended to cover it because it was inspired by almost exactly the same motives as in Italy. It is not possible to detect in the history of English art any such universal change; the Gothic taste held on and influenced all the buildings of the British Isles down to the time of the outbreak of the Civil War, when the few designs made by Inigo Jones and by one or two men of his time who were "Italianate" in their feelings and experience, are to be compared, if at all, with the classically inspired buildings of the Continent. If, so far as style is concerned, the term Renaissance were to be applied to anything English, it should be applied to these—to designs like that for Whitehall Palace, of which only the "Banqueting House" was ever built; but this design was not made until after the middle of the seventeenth century. On the other hand, if the term Renaissance is to be applied not to the style of any given building but to a changing spirit in the significance of design, then the Renaissance begins in England in sculptured detail, as early as 1520, while the first piece of non-Gothic design in general forms as well as in detail is, as selected and given by Mr. Gotch, the screen in King's College Chapel, Cambridge (plate viii.); this screen being dated by him 1532-36. It is evident that the term should be applied rather to this and its contemporary buildings, and that we are driven to accept, as the time of the Renaissance, a long historical period, during which Gothic details were used side by side with those of very positive non-Gothic character; during which the proportion and the grouping of country houses were still mediæval, while the horizontal cornice, the flat roof, and the classical order came into royal palace and London front; during which mediæval feeling and mediæval methods of work held their own successfully against the invading taste for neo-classic design. This is the Renaissance in England; and it covers the whole space between the accession of Henry VIII., 1509, and the beginning of the serious struggle between Charles and his Parliament, about 1635, or between 1500 and 1625, as the title-page will have it. Mr. Gotch stops with the end of the reign of James I.; and to make even dates covering exactly a century and a quarter, he begins with the year 1500. Nothing can be said against these limits given for the early Renaissance, but it must be remarked that what the English writers call the early Renaissance should, in our opinion, be called the Renaissance alone, without qualifying term, while the art of the epoch following the Civil War should be called by some other name. The term Renaissance expresses the single idea of a rejuvenation of art, of a commencement on new lines, of a fresh start; and there is no reason in the world for extending it, as is too common in English writing, to cover the periods of decline and even of decay.

Mr. Gotch is the author of a folio work entitled 'The Architecture of the Renaissance in England,' devoted to large photographic views of English buildings, exteriors and interiors, general views, and details, with descriptive text and an introductory essay. The present work is altogether different in character, and the assurance given in the preface can be taken literally; namely, that the two works have nothing in common beyond the fact that they cover nearly the same period. The more recent is an historical handbook, and one of extraordinary value for its thorough examination into the true history of the time, unswayed more than is reasonable by the dignified or pretentious character of buildings which still exist in their entirety. Thus, it is easy to trace the development of Elizabethan architecture in the pages beginning with "The Invasion of the Foreign Style" (page 10) through the next chapter, which deals with "The Development of the House Plan," and then through a series of chapters which deal with the details until chapter xi. takes up afresh the subject of the plan in connection with the work of John Thorpe and the later sixteenth century. The book is of necessity devoted mainly to domestic architecture. It is plainly stated on page 215 that there is no ecclesiastical architecture of early Renaissance character in England; nor is this the first occurrence of this statement. In fact, the disposition which the English show to this day to build churches in some modification of mediæval style, while the domestic and civic buildings near at hand are neo-classic in some form, took its origin in the early days. Moreover, the full classical treatment even of civic buildings was never accepted during all this Renaissance period. As is stated on page 95, "An Elizabethan house could no more have been designed by Palladio or Du Cerceau or Vriese than a play like those which Shakspere gave us could have been written by one of the novelists, essayists, or dramatists of Italy, France, or Germany." In this fact, however, in this very impurity of style, this mingling of different and even hostile elements, is found the true charm of the Elizabethan and Jacobean architecture. This architecture, taken altogether, is the latest instance in which Europeans have allowed themselves to work according to accepted traditions of cutting stone and wood and fitting parts together. It is the latest workman's style in Europe.

The book can be read continuously by any person interested in history as a narrative. Students who ask for synopses and tables of facts only, and abhor the idea of story-telling even if the story be true and well told, are not the readers we have now in mind. Here is one side of the life of one small European nation, and the history of this for 125 years is made to cover 266 pages—although, indeed, one-fifth, or perhaps one-fourth, of this space is occupied by text illustrations. It recommends itself to no one to whom the solid object, the tangible, ponderable, and visible work of art is indifferent—for there are many such men, and some of them are found to write about matters of graphic and plastic art. By readers for whom it is intended it can be laid down with a feeling of perfect content with the use they have made of their time.

The Works of Thomas Kyd. Edited from the Original Texts with Introduction, Notes, and Facsimiles, by Frederick S. Boas, M.A., Balliol College, Oxford, Professor of History and English Literature in Queen's College, Belfast; Author of 'Shakspere and his Predecessors,' etc. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1901. Pp. cxvi, 470.

When Klein, some twenty-five years ago, wrote his two volumes on the English Drama in his 'Geschichte des Dramas,' he spoke of Kyd as the "most impersonal of all poets." Since that time, however, our knowledge not only of Kyd but of his fellow-dramatists has been appreciably increased. Mr. Lee's 'Life of Shakspere' has brushed aside the imaginative inferences from the plays which tried to pass as biography, and from authenticated facts has given us a real and living man. And the same scholar, with Goodwin, Schick, and others, has brought to light much that was hidden in the life of Kyd. The results of these investigations are embodied by Professor Boas, together with his own, in the Introduction to his edition of the Works of Kyd. There are still twenty-three years

of the dramatist's life which remain a blank, and these Professor Boas seeks to fill in by tracing the course of his poetic development as inferable from his works. At best, this is fragmentary and cannot be regarded as conclusive. Thus, to infer from the evidence of his plays and translations that he was not college-bred is certainly perilous. A college course does not always make a man a perfect construer, and Kyd's mistakes in translation from Latin, French, and Italian may be paralleled without great difficulty in the works of equally brilliant men who are college graduates. Even if he does speak of Thrasymene as "so dezart," and translates "Marius, l'honneur d'Arpin" as "Marius, Arpin's friend," we should not necessarily infer with Professor Boas that he did not graduate from either of the Universities.

In any case, Kyd's learning, or lack of it, seems to have made him the butt of one bitter writer of invective, the fiery Nash, who, it is generally agreed, was striking at Kyd in his Preface to Greene's "Menaphon" and incidentally furnishing some biography. Nash, as Professor Boas says, was correct enough when he sneered at Kyd as one of those who "intermeddle with Italian translations: wherein how poorelie they have plodded . . . let all indifferent Gentlemen that have travailed in that tongue discerne by their twopenie pamphlets"; but Nash gives too loose a rein to his satirical fancy when he says Kyd "could scarcelie latinize [his] necke verse if [he] should have neede." Accurate scholarship, fortunately, was not a prerequisite to dramatic excellence, though some of the University wits would have had it so; nor was every University wit a perfect Latinist.

The editor of Kyd is beset from the beginning of his work with perplexing problems. As soon as he has gathered together the fragments of his author's life, he meets various disturbing questions about his known works and about those which are to be admitted into the canon. Happily, we know that the "Spanish Tragedy" is by Kyd, but we have to determine its date by internal evidence. Over this seemingly insignificant question much ink has been spilt. Was the play written before or after the Armada? The subtleties of those who fix its date at 1589-90 must, however, vanish, as Professor Boas contends, before the argument that no play dealing with Spanish affairs and written by an Englishman would be likely to contain only trivial references to vague and semi-mythical victories of English arms in the days of John of Gaunt, when the Armada was still fresh in the memory of all England. The date 1585-7, fixed upon by Professor Boas, makes more manifest the influence of Kyd on the development of English tragedy, and it is this which gives importance to the question.

Besides the "Spanish Tragedy," only one other play is known to be Kyd's, and it is his translation of Garnier's "Cornélie." By means of these two plays, accordingly, the canon of his dramas has to be determined. There are, in all, four plays which appear for examination: "Titus Andronicus," "Jeronimo," "Soliman and Perseda," and the suppositional "Ur-Hamlet," the original of Shakspere's play. The first two Professor Boas believes not to be Kyd's; the last two undoubtedly his. The problem is complicated in the case of "Titus" by the admission that we probably have not the earliest form in the present version—and the former alone is attributed to Kyd; and, in the case of the "Ur-Hamlet," by the loss of this play, which is most closely represented by the 1603 Shakspere quarto. There are striking resemblances between all these plays and the "Spanish Tragedy," and also differences. The greatest care must, accordingly, be taken in estimating the relative values of these points of similarity and difference, if from them we are to determine a common or a divided authorship.

In the case of "Jeronimo" the resemblances to the "Spanish Tragedy" are largely suggested by the latter work, to which the former was intended as a forepiece; and the play might readily be composed by a fifth-rate dramatist who wished to profit by the revived popularity of the greater work. Disregarding conventional and accidental correspondences, there are no resemblances between the two plays too subtle to be explained as imitative. The lack of conformity, on the other hand, between certain events in the forepiece and the record of them in the "Spanish Tragedy" might easily be overlooked by a careless imitator, but not by the common author of the two plays.

In his discussion of the authorship of the "Ur-Hamlet," Professor Boas should rest his main argument on the striking similarities of dramatic technique between the 1603 quarto and the "Spanish Tragedy," as supplementary, of course, to the strong evidence of Nash's "Preface." The variations of "Hamlet" from its ultimate source in Belleforest correspond so closely to leading features in the plot of the "Spanish Tragedy" as to be strongly corroborative of the common authorship of these plays. On the whole, Professor Boas presents these arguments forcibly; some of his correspondences are, however, too trivial to carry weight. But it is in the resemblances of phrase between the 1603 quarto and the known works of Kyd that our editor believes he has "practically irresistible internal tests" of Kyd's authorship of the "Ur-Hamlet." To us they do not seem convincing. They might easily be the product of imitation. Such exist in the case of "Jeronimo" and the "Spanish Tragedy," of the 1604 quarto of "Hamlet" and the "Spanish Tragedy." Indeed, Professor Boas himself, in discussing the authorship of "Titus," points out just such resemblances in phrase between this play and the "Spanish Tragedy," but is content to disregard them without explanation as evidence of common authorship. There are, too, resemblances in technique between "Titus" and the "Spanish Tragedy" which are more significant than some of those Professor Boas mentions between the 1603 quarto and the same play, and these, also, he disregards. These smaller matters should be given very little weight in determining authorship. It is the mere jugglery of criticism when they are classed as corroborative evidence in the case of probable common authorship, and as mere imitation in that of probable divided authorship. That which determines us in accepting Kyd as the author of the "Ur-Hamlet" and questioning his complicity in "Titus" is the radical difference between the two plays. "Titus" surpasses in its orgy of horrors and its ingenuity of ferociousness anything in Kyd's accredited works or what we can conceive the "Ur-Hamlet" to have been. This, with the total absence of the comic, would seem to argue most strongly against Kyd's authorship of the play.

In the matter of the text, Professor Boas has left very little to be desired. He has given us the first complete edition of Kyd's works. Hitherto, with the exception of the "Spanish Tragedy," his plays were accessible only in the collections. Of his pamphlets, the "Householder's Philosophy" existed only in the quarto of 1588, and the "Murder of John Brewen" had been reprinted in Collier's "Illustrations of Early English Popular Literature" (1863), and was out of print. The text follows the best quarto in the case of each work, and varies only when necessary. All needless emendations (for which see Fleischer's 'Bemerkungen') are rigidly excluded. The notes are neither too full nor too scanty. There are remarkably few typographical errors. The following have been noted: On p. xciv, line 12, the reference to the "Spanish Tragedy" should be III., xi, *43;* on p. 31, line 60, for "ambituous" read "ambitious"; the footnote on page 69 to line 148 reads; "See Note," but there is no corresponding note; the reference in the note to "Spanish Tragedy" III., vi, 16, should read "52" for "51"; on page 322 the page-heading should be "Act II.," not "Act I."

Musings by Campfire and Wayside. By William Cunningham Gray. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 337. Illustrated.

This volume of *causerie* by the late editor of the *Interior* contains some chapters enlarged from an earlier output of 'Musings,' though much of the contents is now first printed. A portion of the book failed to receive the author's revision, as one may notice by a few misspelled proper names and one misplaced paragraph. These defects are, however, of slight importance. The book has what many of our young Western critics mistake for evidences of culture—a simple, unaffected flow of words, as of chat on a veranda in the twilight between old friends; evidences of good taste, native rather than acquired, of homely common sense, of a genuine love of outdoor life, of latent fires of indignation ready to blaze at the puff of injustice. Some of it is charming, nearly all is pleasant reading, and there is little of the newspaper flavor. It is the apotheosis of the literary column in the Saturday evening edition, a development in words of musings, whimsies quaint or kindly, speculations of a dandelion about the pine tops, of a log-cabin builder about the universe. As a self-revelation of an earnest, kindly nature, free from pedantry yet innocent of training, reverent yet audacious, but without the undertones of strength which are the indications of real power, the book will find a welcome, and doubtless a wide audience. But it is of those which open the door to literature rather than exemplify it, which sound the note of aspiration rather than the pæan of one who stands already on the heights. Of literary finish or the assured confidence of style it has and claims nothing.

It is elegantly printed and tastefully bound; and the illustrations, from photographs by the author, are well reproduced and of a quality akin to the text.

François de Fénelon. By Viscount St. Cyres. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

The life of a great aristocratic prelate of the seventeenth century might easily have tempted a less judicious biographer than Lord St. Cyres into long intrusive disquisition on the great fundamentals implied by Fénelon in successive declarations or acts of conduct. We should then have been presented with an elaborate treatise on questions of state and religion during the *grand siècle*, instead of with the present compact and admirably balanced Life. Its explanatory paragraphs and chapters, though amply detailed, are all designed to aid in the elucidation of a character hitherto treated in altogether too partial a fashion. For, as the author says, the conventional Fénelon, as described either by admirers or by opponents, invariably obscures the real man. Thus (chap. ii.) the eighteenth-century tradition, which placed Fénelon among the great supporters of religious toleration, becomes manifestly ill-founded when one examines, with the assistance of Lord St. Cyres, the essentially clerical character of the Archbishop. Yet we cannot agree with the biographer in attributing freedom of conscience wholly "to men to whom liberty of Prophesying was as the very breath of God," and thus tacitly ruling out the slowly disintegrating effect which the skepticism of such men as Bayle handed as a heritage to the still more destructive and tolerant indifferentism of the age of pure reason (p. 17).

It is in connection with the hackneyed Bossuet-Fénelon quarrel that the writer's analysis is most complete, dealing out even-handed justice to both contestants with an almost sardonic imperturbability of judicial humor; the reader is at first puzzled to guess to which side his sympathies are expected to lean. In the main, however, Lord St. Cyres tends to favor Bossuet, the "dogmatist, not, indeed, in the world's most vulgar sense, but as one who saw in creeds an institution rather than an idea, a measuring-rod rather than a lever, an abstract of all human duties, not their bare beginning" (p. 152). Such a character needs no reading between the lines; it falls, consequently, into natural and immediate antagonism with the "quelquechose d'inachevé, composé de contrastes qui n'ont pu se fondre et s'amalgamer," of which the picture here presented takes the place, possibly for many years, of the conventional portrait, so often drawn in unbroken flowing outline, of the persecuted saint at Cambrai. And the special merit of the biographer's discussion lies in its demonstration of the rigorously logical fashion in which the contrast and hostility grew out of a simple difference in the diagnosing of an elementary pathological case.

In dealing with Fénelon's theory of education, his present biographer easily exposes its leading weakness. Parallels between 'Télémaque' and 'Émile' have often been established; but comparatively few critics dwell with insistence on their common fallacy of bringing up the child in large measure with a view to the subjective gratification in the result to be enjoyed by the preceptor; and an average healthy boy should chafe under a system of scrutiny which reduces the pupil almost to the condition of the prisoners in Bentham's Panopticon scheme. This community of view in Fénelon and Rousseau, we may add, was in the one case derived from the practice of the confessional, while in the other it was a persistent survival of the inquisitorial methods of Geneva. The Swiss theorist was the more fortunate of the two in not seeing the wreck of his endeavors through their failure in a concrete example. Lord St. Cyres goes further in tracing the dependence of Rousseau on Fénelon by representing the latter as, in some respects, a forerunner of Romanticism (pp. 200-202), which restores to Nature something of her primal rights. While joining with the critic in holding that Fénelon's conception of Nature is at bottom in harmony neither with Rousseau nor with Wordsworth, one must also note that an equally wide gulf divides the observer of urban and court life from the man to whom a mere touch of color on the hillside signified a revelation of supreme importance towards the discovery of philosophic truth. Fénelon was one of the least likely of men to become "enslaved to the optic nerve."

In the preface of this volume the general reader is forewarned against the possible aridity of certain chapters devoted to the examination of the abstract principles at stake during the crisis of Fénelon's life. It is precisely in connection with these questions that the scholar will find his chief interest, for Lord St. Cyres has evidently examined not only the great treatises, but in some cases a mass of ephemeral contemporary pamphlets, bearing on such topics as Mme. Guyon and the Mystics, Jansenism and Cartesianism. It is thus that he succeeds in deepening the impression that he seeks to make of the complexity in a nature capable of allying itself now with Mystic, now with Jesuit, and consequently, at a later time, of supplying authoritative foundation for the widely differing contention of Joseph de Maistre and Lamennais.

The style of this volume is not the least of its merits. Possibly, in dealing with the more serious questions, the glitter of sustained wit or epigram might have given way to the glow of genuine interest or fervor; the academic tone of slightly supercilious aloofness suggests comparative coldness to the issues in a country which is not the writer's own. But this also rendered it possible for Lord St. Cyres to give practical fulfilment to the recently expressed wish of another commentator: "Il semble que l'heure de l'impartialité devrait être venue pour la mémoire de Fénelon."

Life of Charles Robinson, the First State Governor of Kansas. By Frank W. Blackmar, Ph.D., Professor of Sociology and Economics in the University of Kansas. Topeka: Crane & Co.

It is an unfortunate aspect of early Kansas history that works on the subject are still being written with greater and greater amplitude of detail, and the time of contraction and condensation has not yet begun. Redpath's 'Life of John Brown' filled 408 pages, Sanborn's 645, Hinton's 752. After some delay, the special admirers of Gov. Robinson are taking their innings, and Professor Blackmar's biography of him mounts up to 438 pages. Like all his predecessors, this new author at once plunges into the petty and somewhat parochial gossip, so often reiterated, as to who is the real hero of Kansas. He says, in the very introduction (p. 17): "As to the Brown-Lane-Robinson controversy, it is not easy to get at the whole truth and cause each man to stand forth in his true light." Nevertheless, he finds it easy, three pages after, like all special advocates, to say that "the verdict of history cannot fail" to make his own hero incomparably the greatest. Having thus stated the case and pronounced the verdict in the very introduction, he proceeds for many pages to multiply details, finding Brown and Lane wrong in everything, and yet presenting them in no really new light.

The essential point of the controversy has been from the beginning the alleged fact that Gov. Robinson did at the time approve of John Brown's part in the so-called "Pottawatomie Massacre," in 1856, on which the whole course of events seemed for a time to turn, and that he held that view of it for twenty-two years, after which he turned upon John Brown and vigorously denounced him for the rest of his own life. Professor Blackmar now concedes (p. 321), that Gov. Robinson wrote to James Hanway as follows, in 1878: "I never had much doubt that Capt. Brown was the author of the blow at Pottawatomie [twenty-two years before], for the reason that he was the only man that comprehended the situation and saw the absolute necessity of some such blow and had the nerve to strike it." Professor Blackmar's vindication of this seeming inconsistency is based on the ground that certain testimony, given by a Mr. Townsley (p. 322), caused the change of Robinson's opinion. The peculiarity is that, while thus relying on Mr. Townsley's evidence for the vindication of his friend, Professor Blackmar does not tell us one word as to who the witness was, when he testified, what his statements were; and does not consider him important enough to be mentioned in his index.

As a matter of fact, Mr. Townsley was simply the wagoner who was employed to drive the party. John Brown himself had spent the winter in that region (Connelley's 'John Brown,' p. 212), and did not need any one to show him who and what his neighbors were; he plainly did not intend to "sweep the creek," because two pro-slavery men were returned unharmed as having taken no part in any outrages. Furthermore, we have it on the authority of John Brown, jr., a man of high character as to truthfulness, that Townsley "volunteered to return with the team, and offered to point out the abodes of such as he thought should be disposed of" (Sanborn, p. 264; Connelley, p. 210). Townsley himself stated at a later period: "I did not then approve the killing of those men. . . . In after-years my opinion changed as to the wisdom of the massacre. I became, and am, satisfied that it resulted in good to the Free-State cause. . . . The pro-slavery men were dreadfully terrified, and large numbers of them soon left the Territory" (Connelly, p. 224). It is to be remembered that Governor Robinson himself was one of those held as prisoner by the Slave-State men, and, immediately after the Pottawatomie affair, was released; and that even Prof. L. W. Spring, author of a 'History of Kansas,' while disapproving the massacre itself, admits that its effect was "marvellous," and that it probably saved Governor Robinson and the other prisoners from death (*Lippincott's Magazine*, January 18,

1883). Considering how constantly the affair was discussed in the Territory, and how well the details had been gone over again and again at every street corner, it seems in the highest degree improbable that Governor Robinson's views of the whole matter should have been seriously changed, after nearly a quarter of a century, by any testimony of such uncertain value as that coming from a man like Townsley.

If we have seemed to dwell upon the matter disproportionately, it is because Professor Blackmar throughout the book leads up to it, thus recognizing it as the weak point in Governor Robinson's career. This career doubtless began in great services to Kansas, but was afterwards marred by the distorted action of the mind which characterized Kansas public sentiment on both sides in those days, and whose effects still remain among her historians. Having had occasion not long since to point out the very unsatisfactory construction of Mr. Connelley's book, written from the John Brown point of view, we cannot be censured as one-sided for finding the same and still greater defects in the work now in our hands. Like so many of its predecessors, it has simply confused the Kansas muddle and made it worse than before. It is to be remembered that Theodore Parker said in 1856, at the anniversary of the Anti-Slavery Society, speaking of Kansas annals up to that time, "I know of no transaction in human history which has been covered up with such abundant lying from the days of Ananias and Sapphira down to the first nomination of Governor Gardner."

The Spoken Arabic of Egypt. By J. Selden Willmore. London: David Nutt. 1901. Pp. xviii+394.

Not since Spitta's epoch-making 'Grammatik' have we had so detailed an examination and so complete a statement of the actual facts of the dialects of Egypt, and especially Cairo, as spoken at the present day. Curiously enough, Mr. Willmore makes no mention of Vollers, his more immediate, if much less painstaking, predecessor; and the work done by Socin, Sobernheim, and Kern on the translations from Molière into Cairene Arabic by Muhammad Osman Galal is also left unnoticed. In fact, the whole recent movement in Germany towards elaborate study of the different modern dialects of Arabic—a movement so extensive as to have almost pushed aside for the time all thoughts of classical Arabic—seems to have escaped his attention. So his book has been produced independently by the same causes which have produced that movement in Germany—the great awakening among Muslims, and the interest in Europe in the again living East. Mr. Willmore hopes, like Spitta and all others who know the East face to face, for a time when the Arabic colloquials will become literary languages, and when the educated Muslim, speaking in public or writing, will no longer have to express himself in a so-called classical idiom which is not classical at all, but a product of the schools. The language of the voice will be the language of the pen, and the new literature will be accessible to the mass of the people. This is a hope which we may easily see realized, and the present book will do much towards that realization, as showing that it deals with no patois, but with a language which can endure the bonds of grammar and live. Yet it is to be remembered that the few attempts so far made towards writing in this tongue understanded of the people have enlisted far higher interest in Europe than in Egypt, and that plays which have been edited, published, and translated by German philologians have with difficulty pushed themselves against popular prejudice on to the Egyptian stage. A second hope, that the new literature may be written in some form of the Latin alphabet and not in the unhappy, if picturesque, Arabic script, must remain much dimmer and farther off. If it were not for the wise English policy of meddling in no way with native prejudices, something might be done with the high hand in the new schools. But that is impossible; the Egyptians must save themselves, and they will probably do it in some way that we have never dreamed of. Education they are now getting; it is theirs to make use of it.

Mr. Willmore has equipped his book with an extensive and well-graduated set of exercises; but it is essentially a grammatical study and not an introductory manual. To have marked the accent throughout might have added much to the expense, but it would certainly have added still more to the value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Airy, Reginald. Westminster. (Handbooks to the Great Public Schools.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.

Alexander, Mrs. The Yellow Fiend. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Bacon, Francis. Of Gardens: An Essay. John Lane. 75 cents.

Balch, T. W. The Alaska-Canadian Frontier. Philadelphia: Allen, Lane & Scott.

Cook, Mrs. E. T. The Bride's Book. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.

Cooper, W. A. Moser's Der Bibliothekar. American Book Co. 45 cents.

Davis, W. S., jr. Dietotherapy and Food in Health. (A System of Physiologic Therapeutics, Vol. vi.) Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.

Dixon, Thomas, jr. The Leopard's Spots. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.

Emerson, Ellen R. Nature and Human Nature. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

Falkiner, C. L. Studies in Irish History and Biography. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

Gee, Henry. The Elizabethan Prayer-Book and Ornaments. Macmillan. $1.25.

Grethenbach, Constantine. Secular View of the Bible. Peter Eckler. $2.

Hinkson, H. A. The Point of Honour. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Holdsworth, Annie E. Michael Ross, Minister. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Johnson, Mrs. S. H. Hell in the Twentieth Century. Published by the Author.

Kobbé, Gustav. Opera Singers: A Pictorial Souvenir. R. H. Russell.

Laycock, W. F. A Dictionary of Dyes, Mordants, and Other Compounds Used in Dyeing and Calico Printing. London: Charles Griffin & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.

More Letters of Edward FitzGerald. Macmillan Co. $2.75.

Morris, Mrs. J. E. Golden Fluff. Abbey Press. 50 cents.

Patrick, David. Chambers's Cyclopædia of English Literaure, Vol. i. London: W. & R. Chambers; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $5.

Rait, R. S. Five Stuart Princesses. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.

Right Reading: Words of Good Counsel on the Choice and Use of Books Selected from the Writings of Ten Famous Authors. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

"Rita." The Sin of Jasper Standish. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.

Rolfe, W. J. A Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Ruskay, Esther J. Hearth and Home Essays. Special Series No. 6. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.

Sigel, Feodor. Lectures on Slavonic Law. Henry Frowde.

Slicer, Rev. T. R. One World at a Time. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.35.

Smedberg, H. V. The Improprieties of Noah, and Other Stories. Abbey Press. 50 cents.

Smith, G. C. M. The Autobiography of Lieut.-Gen. Sir Harry Smith. 2 vols. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $8.

Smith, Abbie N. Bobtail Dixie. Abbey Press. $1.

Sonderegger, C. L'Achèvement du Canal de Panama. Paris: Ch. Dunod; New York: G. E. Stechert. $2.50.

Stevenson, R. L. Æs Triplex, and Other Essays. Portland (Me.): Thomas B. Mosher.

Symonds, J. A. Studies of the Greek Poets. 2 vols. New ed. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.

"The Georgian Period," being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work, Part ix. Boston: American Architect and Building News.

The Temple Bible: (1) Benham, Canon. The Johannine Books; (2) Harper, J. W. The Books of Ezra, Nehemiah, and Esther. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 60 cents.

Thwaites, R. G. Down Historic Waterways: Six Hundred Miles of Canoeing upon Illinois and Wisconsin Rivers. New ed. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Walford, L. B. Charlotte. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.

Waters, W. E. Town Life in Ancient Italy. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. 75 cents.

Watson, T. E. Napoleon. Macmillan. $2.25

Wells, H. G. Anticipations. Harpers. $1.80.

Whitby, Beatrice. Flower and Thorn. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Williamson, G. C. Holman Hunt. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.

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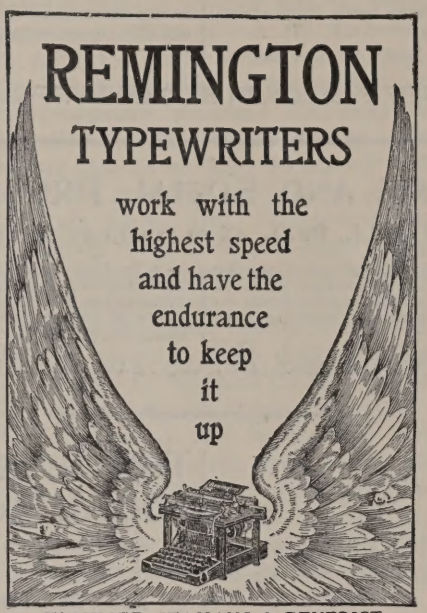

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 27, 1902.

The Week.

Gen. Leonard Wood, en route to Washington, set forth the Cuban situation, as Congress has left it, with soldierly bluntness. We are ready to turn over the government to the Cubans, he says, on short notice. But what is it that we shall turn over, as the case stands? Why, simply "a crisis," declares Gen. Wood. That is what will surely follow unless a tariff reduction of more than 20 per cent. on Cuban imports be voted by Congress. Here are the words of our Military Governor of Cuba:

> "It is absolutely necessary to the welfare of the island that the tariff on sugar be reduced not less than thirty-three and one-third per cent. We may as well make up our minds to that if the island is to prosper, and we are responsible for the future of the island and its prosperity. We have promised to see the people through, and we must do it."

What is the Republican party going to do about it? Can it afford to go into the fall campaign, can it stand before the people of the country, can it expose itself to the world, as a party so terror-stricken at the threats of tariff-beneficiaries that it falsifies the promises of two of its own Presidents? The next few days at Washington must decide.

Cubans may be proud of the sentences given to the three American postal thieves, Neely, Reeves, and Rathbone, in Havana on Monday. We have heard much about the inability of the Cubans to govern themselves according to our own high standards, and have even had to listen to many doubts as to the possibility of establishing a workable judicial system in the island. But here we have at least one court which has had the courage and the wisdom to punish exemplarily men who belonged to the dominating nation, and who were known to have most powerful political backing in the United States. Only the other day the Governor of Indiana, accompanied by his staff in full uniform, called in the prison upon Mr. Neely, that "grand confidential man" so highly recommended by Perry Heath, and who confidentially aided Mr. Rathbone to plunder and steal from the Cuban revenues. We do not know whether it is the custom in Indianapolis for the Governor and his staff to make ceremonial visits to accused criminals, but, whatever the motive, it had no effect whatever upon the court. Neely, Rathbone, and Reeves will now "rot in Cuban dungeons," as their friends have characterized imprisonment in the island.

Our contented wards in Cuba should not make us forget the happy family we have in Hawaii. President Roosevelt is not allowed to forget it. The various brothers that compose it are filling his ears with pleasing tales about each other. Brother Parker declares that Brother Dole, the Governor, is a frightful tyrant, besides being a fussy old slow-coach anyhow, quite out of touch with the alert Americanism of the younger immigrants who had gone to the island for the good, and also for the goods, of the native. Brother Carter, however, comes on to tell the President that Brother Dole is the only bulwark against the anarchy of the half-breed faction, in alliance with the baser Americans. What is poor Mr. Roosevelt to do? He probably will not content himself with imitating the method of his predecessor, placing a kind hand on the shoulder of each tale-bearer, and telling him to go back to Hawaii and remember that the starry folds of the flag are above him. The quarrelling Hawaiians have no trouble about going in for the old flag; it is only the division of the appropriations and the offices which go with them that bothers them. But the American public distinctly does not care for any of these things. If it is a question between "parochial" squabbles over offices and Imperialistic disputes about the spoils, there can be no doubt which will be found the more interesting and inspiring, despite the prophets of three years ago. Honolulu may stew in its own palm oil, provided Oshkosh gets the right postmaster.

On Thursday last the country was called upon to witness the extraordinary spectacle of the General Commanding the United States Army making a personal and semi-public attack upon the Adjutant-General of the Army, the Secretary of War, and the President of the United States, and charging them with the desire to reorganize the military service solely for the improper purpose of rewarding officers towards whom they are well disposed. It is only three months since Gen. Miles received the severest reprimand ever given to an American army officer for his insubordinate expressions of opinion upon the Schley case. Within a week his scheme for the immediate pacification of the Philippines according to methods of Indian warfare, which amounted, among other things, to a grave reflection upon the officers now in the islands, was disapproved by the President and the Secretary of War. With men of ordinary sensibility and true personal pride, such rebukes would have at least led to a dignified silence. In Gen. Miles's case it has simply stirred him to further insubordination, which should have only one result—his prompt retirement from active service at an early date. It must be evident even to his most ardent partisans that his usefulness in his present position has come to an end. The right and duty of an officer to testify before a Senate committee is unquestioned. Before the Philippine Inquiry Committee, moreover, it is most desirable that officers should speak their minds freely in regard to the past conduct of the war in the islands, even to the extent of criticising their superior officers. The present case is entirely different. The subject under discussion is simply the merits of the bill providing a general staff for the army, which was drawn by the Secretary of War, and which has the hearty approval of every progressive officer in the service. For Gen. Miles to make this the excuse for a bitter attack upon his superior officers, and for the charge that they are influenced only by scandalous motives, is to transcend absolutely not only the bounds of gentlemanly conduct, but also the limits imposed by military discipline, without which no army can exist.

The question whether Senator Hoar's speeches have stirred up, or have protracted, "rebellion" in the Philippines did not go into the record of the Senate investigating committee on Thursday. During the examination of Gen. Otis, Senator Beveridge was moved by curiosity to inquire what had been the effect on the Filipinos of Anti-Imperialist literature sent from the United States. The witness said that when the patriot (or rebel) Mabini was "brought in," he had a pile of New York papers. The inference was plain that he had been seduced from his allegiance or confirmed in his rebellion by reading them. Senator Patterson innocently asked whether any of Senator Hoar's speeches were found in the package. "Oh, yes," was the answer, "those speeches were all over the islands." Senator Allison, who was temporarily in the chair, promptly ruled out everything relating to Senators not members of the Committee. This was a prudent move, but must have been prompted by a desire to shield Senator Beveridge rather than Senator Hoar from harmful consequences, for the former at once withdrew the question which led to the dénouement. The colloquy, however, enabled Senator Carmack of Tennessee to express the opinion that the war in the Philippines is "utterly and absolutely infamous and criminal." So much of the record we hope may remain, so that it may serve as a companion-piece to some of the favorite Fourth of July quotations of our ancestors from Lord Chatham, Charles James Fox, Edmund Burke, Patrick Henry, and Thomas Jefferson.

Senator Morgan's report on the Panama title is filled with that high moral indignation which always sways him when he contemplates a canal by any other route than Nicaragua. He starts back in horror at the thought of "compounding crime," as we should be doing, in his opinion, if we bought out the Panama Company, and the spectacle of the "defrauded and despoiled" stockholders who would appeal to us for their vanished millions fills him with dismay. It is of no use to tell Mr. Morgan that these wronged stockholders have had their rights passed upon by their own courts. That only starts him off with a fresh blast against the "despotism of French courts," from which the soul of every free-born American recoils in loathing. After all this sound and fury, the minority report falls rather flat. It does, indeed, set forth the facts. It shows that the Panama title is absolutely clear in law, and that Colombia stands ready to make every reasonable concession. These are the facts, but, of course, Senator Morgan will only cry out, "So much the worse for them!" and go on with his frenzied warnings against so much as touching the Panama unclean thing.

The Secretary of Agriculture is said to have given instructions to the chemist of the Department to prepare a list of all imported articles which are prepared with any admixture or superficial covering of boracic acid or other preservative acids, with a view to barring out all such products through the coöperation of the State Department. The reason for this extraordinary step is not that articles of the kind are injurious to health, but because one European Government has seen fit to exclude meats so prepared. The American contention is that boracic acid is no more hurtful to fresh beef than the yellow coloring matter used in our creameries is to butter; but that if Germany thinks that it is, and excludes our beef on account of it, then we will abandon our own contention, and adopt hers, and, although we know it to be false, apply it to imports from all countries. It is doubtful whether any imported articles of consequence fall within the category prescribed, although it is hinted that certain kinds of sausages may be "hit" by the proposed interdict; but it will be pleasing to a certain order of intellect to show what we can do under strong provocation, and how we can punish the importers of sausage to avenge the exporters of beefsteak.

The comments of the press on Mr. Fowler's Bank Bill are very favorable. While they do not warrant the belief that the measure will be enacted, or even be voted on by Congress very soon, they show an awakening interest in the subject which is most encouraging. Probably the retirement of national bank circulation which is now in progress has had much influence in drawing attention to the need of some measure for a bank-note currency based upon other security than that of Government bonds. Banks are allowed to retire their circulation at a rate not exceeding in the aggregate $3,000,000 per month. Nearly $18,000,000 has been retired during the past six months. This movement is accounted for by the selling price of Government bonds, which ranges from 106½ for the 5s of 1904 to 139½ for the 4s of 1925. In the case of the former, the premium ($6,500 on $100,000) will be wiped out in two years. The profit to be realized on $100,000 of circulation so secured may be computed at less than three-tenths of one per cent., making no allowance for loss of interest on circulating notes while in transit from the redemption bureau to the bank, or for the time that notes remain unused. If there is any profit at all in circulation, it is hardly worth the trouble of looking after.

It may be assumed, also, that within a comparatively brief period the security bonds will have been wholly redeemed and cancelled. It is not probable that the nation will continue for an indefinite period to pay interest on a debt of which it might easily pay the principal. Such a policy would be unjust to the taxpayers, and could not fail to meet public condemnation. So the problem is not merely how to make note-issuing under the present system a little more profitable, but how to keep the system going at all. It cannot be done except by using other securities than United States bonds. To use inferior securities like municipal, or railroad, or manufacturing bonds, would require the exercise of discrimination on the part of public officers in the selection of them, and this would open the door to political influence in making the selection. Moreover, the best judgment of the most impartial Comptroller of the Currency would at times be at fault, as was frequently the case under the system of bond-secured currency before the war. For these reasons the bankers and the public must set their faces towards a system of note issues different from the one we now have, and it will be a notable success for Mr. Fowler if his bill gives direction and impetus to this movement, even though his plan should fail of enactment, or should be shorn of some of its distinctive features.

Details of the famous "Northern Pacific deal" of a year ago are coming to light with rather unusual distinctness in the pending Powers suit. The immediate motives under which two great banking-houses made their lavish purchases; the amount of such purchases made in the week preceding the corner in the stock; the relations of the purchasing bankers to the railway companies whose credit was ultimately to be used to pay for the purchased stock; and the manner in which the securities involved are still distributed—these four questions have been discussed, since last summer, with considerable lack of authentic information. Monday's testimony by Mr. Schiff established first one fact, pretty generally understood beforehand, that the Union Pacific interests, last spring, formally asked the Morgan-Hill interest to be allowed a share in the joint control of the Burlington and Quincy, and that the request was refused. The testimony of Mr. Steele, of J. P. Morgan & Co., showed that the purchasers of the Burlington also supposed themselves to control the Northern Pacific; that in May they "had reason to fear that some of our friends had not held on to their stock," and that, in view of the earlier phases of the Burlington-Northern Pacific deal, the bankers believed themselves to have "an implied and moral duty to perform in protecting the stockholders" from loss of control through purchases by rival interests.

The house of Morgan & Co., this testimony further showed, bought $15,000,000 of Northern Pacific stock in a single week—the week before the panic of May 9. Both Mr. Schiff and Mr. Steele testified that their respective firms were buying the stock on their own account. Neither would admit acting under orders from a railroad company. Both, however, showed where the safeguard to their venture lay, by describing the readiness with which accommodating corporations were found to take the stock off their hands. Messrs. Kuhn, Loeb & Co., Mr. Schiff testified, "turned over" its stock to one of the Union Pacific companies "within a few weeks after we purchased it," having had "no previous understanding that such a disposition would be made of it." The Messrs. Morgan, according to Mr. Steele, sold $10,000,000 of their Northern Pacific to Mr. Hill and his friends, and the balance ($9,000,000 in all) to the newly organized Northern Securities Company. The Union Pacific also, Mr. Schiff explained, sold its stock to that new concern. In payment, the Messrs. Morgan took $9,000,000 in new Northern Securities stock, the Union Pacific received $80,000,000 stock and nine to ten millions cash. It was not stated whether this $89,000,000 of Northern Securities stock, or any of it, has changed hands since January 1, nor to whom was allotted the balance of Northern Securities shares. The Union Pacific, it appears, turned in $41,000,000 Northern Pacific common stock and $37,000,000 preferred; the Messrs. Morgan, $9,000,000, presumably in the common. As there was, in all, $155,000,000 in Northern Pacific shares

outstanding, it follows that $68,000,000 was delivered to the Northern Securities Company from other quarters than the two already named.

German editors are not a little jealous of their American brethren since Prince Henry's announcement that the Emperor considered them the equals in rank of his "commanding generals." The *Frankfurter-Zeitung* hastens to say that it trusts the Emperor to honor German editors similarly at a very early date, since it is certain that they are not the inferiors of American journalists, so far as moral qualities are concerned. "Up to this time," it admits, "the opinion had prevailed with us that in Government circles editors were considered to be not even on the same footing with corporals and sergeants, much less commanding generals. Particularly in Prussia it would be thought an unworthy act if a non-commissioned officer should be led through the streets handcuffed, as has again and again happened in the case of editors of newspapers." The recent sentencing of a Charlottenburg editor to three months in jail for stating in his journal that the Emperor had rebuked a regiment's officers for their attitude towards duelling, makes the *Frankfurter-Zeitung's* sarcasm the more biting. The German press would, however, be astonished to know how utterly the American editors at the *Staats-Zeitung* banquet, and the newspapers throughout the country, failed to appreciate the significance of the compliment expressed by Prince Henry. This was perhaps not only due to ignorance of the great powers and high social position of commanding generals in the German army, but to familiarity with certain kinds of political and militia generals with which this country abounds.

What passed between Kitchener and the representatives of the Boers at Pretoria is only a matter of speculation. Every one must hope that the preliminary negotiations for an honorable peace were made. In any case, Acting President Schalkburger and his two commandants chose their time well, for while De la Rey's brilliant capture of Methuen has shown unexpected military resources among the belligerents, his chivalric release of the wounded captive has done much to mollify British hatred of the Boers. The time was never more favorable for a settlement on terms honorable to all concerned. Even Mr. Chamberlain would probably hesitate to hold again to unconditional surrender, and Kitchener would never again be ordered to proclaim the followers of De Wet and De la Rey to be outlaws. The Boers in the field, too, are never likely to have a better basis for dealing with the English. It is this feeling which must have made the Boer representatives seek the conference with Kitchener. The universal hope of peace should not blind one to the delicacy of the negotiations. It is not certain, even, that the committee which visited Kitchener spoke for the Boer Generals. At the best, a mere nothing would change the momentarily reasonable attitude of England into the old stupid and dogged resolution "to see the thing through," while any failure in tact might throw the Boers back upon their policy of heroic but ultimately hopeless resistance. Considerations of humanity aside, the responsibility upon the British negotiators is a heavy one, for England has no glory to gain, and possibly some prestige to lose, through the prolonging of the war.

The sharp debate last week in the House of Commons on Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's motion for an investigation of the business side of the war in South Africa, merely proved again the hopelessness of any attempt to consider rationally the events of the last two or three years, as long as the war is on. Behind the firing in South Africa the Government took refuge; Mr. Balfour declaring, in the familiar language of Imperialism, that it would "encourage the enemy" to probe into the remount and supply scandals. Just how an investigation of the horse frauds in Hungary or Spain or the United States would give comfort to the enemy or hamper Kitchener's operations, is hard to understand, but the House rallied to the support of the Government by the exceptional majority of 155, and thus gave the Ministry permission to continue its mismanagement without let or hindrance. This outcome was the more striking in view of the union of the Liberal forces in the attack upon the Government. Mr. Asquith, for once, earnestly supported Campbell-Bannerman, and there can be no doubt that a large body of public opinion was with them in their desire to know the truth about the charges which have so seriously affected England's good name. There could be no plainer illustration of the demoralizing effect of the war spirit than this crushing out of all criticism. Ministers may blunder as they choose, squander the public funds, and permit incompetent and dishonest subordinates to remain in office, but as long as a shot is fired 12,000 miles away, no one must lift up his voice in protest. Fortunate it is that the right of free speech and the freedom of the press remain, however mitigated by ostracism and occasional mob violence.

The unseemly quarrel in the Commons on Thursday chiefly illustrated Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's proficiency in the art of Parliamentary fence. He is a past-master of going to the very verge of insult and maintaining an exasperating calm, while the hot-headed Irishmen, goaded beyond endurance, explode in censurable abuse. Now it is no very great art to get a rise out of an Irishman. Mr. Chamberlain was abusive in cold blood and cautiously, Mr. Dillon was abusive in right Irish fashion and against the custom of Parliament. The latter's offence and his punishment falling in the interval between the old rules of the House and the application of Mr. Balfour's new rules, he has been allowed to resume his seat in a week. Of course, from a parliamentary point of view, Mr. Dillon's attack upon the Colonial Secretary was unpardonable; but it appears that, in all the debates of that stormy session, it was the Government which showed the more ugly spirit. It was irritating, no doubt, to hear the free lance Mr. Bowles caustically asking why countries had been annexed before they were conquered, hostile leaders banished before they were caught, the Government powerless to end a war which it had officially ended six months ago; but it is the business of a Government to answer such questions without calling traitor. This art Mr. Chamberlain should learn if he is indeed to succeed Lord Salisbury.

While the Franco-Russian note in reference to the Anglo-Japanese alliance is cautiously phrased and friendly in tone, it is not the less a virtual warning to England and Japan that, in certain contingencies, Russia and France will stand together in the Far East. The fact that the parties to the Dual Alliance have seen fit to enter their protest is in itself most significant. It would have been easy to pass the Anglo-Japanese alliance in silence, or to make some such general expression of sympathy with its aims as the Russian Foreign Office made to Secretary Hay's recent note on the Mantchurian concessions. As it is, the joint note of France and Russia is potentially a challenge, to this extent, that the offensive and defensive alliance between England and Japan becomes effective when two or more Powers menace the integrity of the Chinese Empire, or the special interests in the Far East of these two allied Powers. The appearance of France and Russia in the matter is practically equivalent to their saying, "Here are your 'two Powers.'" England and Japan will remain neutral until two enemies to China appear; France and Russia, when one appears, will consider "means of assuring their protection." It would be foolish to let the conventional expressions of sympathy with the purposes of the Anglo-Japanese alliance in which the Franco-Russian note abounds, conceal the real fact that France and Russia refuse to countenance the principle which England, Japan, and the United States have made their own —namely, that the integrity of the Chinese Empire must be maintained.

THE PRESIDENT AND CUBA.

In our judgment, the time has come when President Roosevelt should let Congress and the country know in the plainest terms what he thinks it necessary to do for Cuba. His message of last December spoke emphatically of the duty of doing something, but left that something vague. We have since been assured from time to time that Mr. Roosevelt was standing like a rock against party pressure; that he continued to believe and to assert to all comers that we are morally bound to come to Cuba's relief; and that he would never yield or retreat. This has been highly gratifying. But now the situation approaches a crisis. The time is near for the setting up of a Cuban Government, yet this will be impossible with Cuban commerce ruined. Congress loiters as if it had an eternity before it, though every day's delay is one more blow to Cuba's prosperity. The bill which the Republican majority of the House has agreed upon—though when or how they will pass it no man undertakes to say—is pronounced by our own Governor of Cuba to be wholly inadequate. Naturally, the result is to leave Congress at loggerheads, the country confused, and Cuba in despair.

In these circumstances, we maintain, the Presidential trumpet ought to be blown, and that with no uncertain sound. What does the President think of the halting and shuffling bill agreed upon by the Republican majority? Is he or is he not embarrassed and alarmed by the indefinite delays of Congress? Does he think it possible to withdraw our troops from Cuba, and keep our engagements made in the eyes of the world, without a full and prompt measure of Cuban reciprocity? These are the questions to which it seems to us most important that Mr. Roosevelt should give a public and explicit answer. It is no longer a case to be left to the vague and not necessarily authentic reports of newspaper correspondents. We ourselves have no doubt that the President is, as they represent him, straining every nerve to carry through his Cuban policy; but the people are not clearly convinced of this, and the way to convince them and to set them to putting pressure upon Congress, is for Mr. Roosevelt to take them into his confidence, and by message, or other public announcement, appeal courageously to those in and out of Congress who wish to see justice done to Cuba.

We are aware of the arguments by which the President has, thus far, been persuaded to keep back his special Cuban message. They are, in their way, and for their time, good arguments. The first one is that he must work in and through the Republican party. Certainly that is what a Republican President can but desire to do. Mr. Roosevelt has been, therefore, justified in staying his hand, as he has done, and waiting patiently for the party managers to harmonize the various factions on a proper bill in aid of Cuba. But this thing cannot go on, world without end, and nothing done. The question is only primarily a party one. In its large and ultimate aspects it is a national question. Party obstinacy or selfishness cannot be allowed to defeat the national purpose or stain the national honor. And if the President finds, as he is now finding, that the party staff breaks in his hand, it is his duty to appeal to honorable men of all parties, or of no party, to come forward and protest against allowing what is our declared policy as a nation towards Cuba to fall down in a heap.

Another consideration that has been operative with the President is the natural desire to take warning by the example of his predecessors. Mr. Roosevelt has not wished to get into such a deadlock with Congress as made Mr. Cleveland's second term so awkward. On the other hand, he has shrunk from exposing himself to such humiliation as Mr. McKinley incurred in the matter of the Porto Rican tariff. But how if there is no middle term? Is not President Roosevelt, in fact, coming to look very much, in this Cuban tariff affair, as President McKinley did in the Porto Rican question? It is all very well to say that you have not "retreated," and that you never will budge. But if the other fellows have their way; if they give *you* a 20 per cent. tariff as they gave McKinley; if they fix a time limit even on this grudging concession, and do it in the teeth of your objection; and if they dawdle away precious weeks so as practically to defeat you, and then you keep still—why, you might as well have retreated and done with it.

It is this sense of the very mortifying position in which President Roosevelt is rapidly coming to stand, and of the great urgency of the whole matter, which makes us hope that he will not long delay in speaking his mind with the vigor and directness of which he is a master. He does not need to be so mortally afraid of imitating Grover Cleveland. If that President had waited to "harmonize" the Democratic party in the support of the bill to repeal the silver law, it would never have been repealed. He boldly threw himself upon the country, and upon both parties in Congress, and secured his imperatively needed law by the aid of Republican votes. Mr. Roosevelt should seek Democratic votes in Congress, if they are necessary to pass a measure which he himself has asserted to be demanded by the highest consideration of national morality and honor. If party fails him, to the people let him go. They undoubtedly desire, in their great majority, to deal fairly with Cuba. But public opinion on the subject needs to be consolidated and directed. The President is the man to do it. He is the natural leader to whom the people look. It is for him to meet their just expectations. He can prevent the insincere House leaders from putting him off from week to week and month to month, and yet save us from a national disgrace in our treatment of Cuba, by taking his stand fearlessly and publicly for a speedy and honorable fulfilment of our promises.

"OPENING" THE TARIFF.

"In politics," said that sound scholar and statesman, Sir George Cornewall Lewis, "cure is, nine times out of ten, better than prevention." It would have been well for President Roosevelt and the Republican party if they had kept this maxim in mind in all their dealings with the irrepressible tariff question. They have bent all their efforts to the side of prevention; and what they have striven to prevent is the "opening" of the tariff. To "open" the tariff has been the chief deadly sin in the Republican calendar. Point out inequalities, injustices, absurdities, monstrosities, self-destructive clauses in the Dingley law as much as you pleased; the invariable answer has been, "Yes, we admit them all, but don't you see that to attempt to correct them would be to open up the whole tariff question; and how could the country endure that calamity?" In other words, the conjuring up of remote and merely possible evils has held the hand of the Republican party from trying to cure present and undeniable ills. That was bad judgment, from the beginning, and it is now coming to be seen to have been also bad politics.

The truth is that this endeavor to keep the tariff question closed has been not only a mistake, but a failure. The tariff is "opened." Its revision is pressed upon the country. Does any man suppose that the bold utterances of Congressmen Dick and Babcock and Littlefield—good Republicans all—are to have no reverberation on the stump in the fall elections? They declared that they should not dare face their constituents, after voting for tariff favors for the Cubans, without having made exertions to vote some tariff favors for Americans—to prune away those flagrant abuses against which both consumers and manufacturers in so many parts of the country are crying out. Mr. Littlefield asserts that American steel material is sold in England for 95 cents the 100 pounds, though American shipbuilders are forced to pay $1.65. One of the largest manufacturers in Boston declares that "in some lines I have no doubt the difference is fully as great as Mr. Littlefield names, and perhaps greater." How can Congress, in the face of these facts and the protests founded upon them, refuse to revise the steel schedules, while changing the duties on sugar and tobacco, of which there is no complaint in this country?

Mr. Roosevelt, it is now clear, was ill-advised when he urged Congress last December to undertake no tariff revision. He said that there was "general acquiescence in our present tariff system." This statement was of doubtful validity at the time, and is certainly, today, ludicrously wide of the fact. Even Speaker Henderson has opened his eyes, and writes, "That there could be, wisely, revision of certain parts of the tariff laws, and that reductions can be wisely made in some matters, no sane man will attempt to deny." This is exactly what many of the minority Republicans affirm, and they profess their eagerness to prove their sanity, not only by agreeing with the Speaker about the wisdom of tariff revision, but by undertaking it at once. No fair man can say that all of the opposition to the project of Cuban relief was the mere selfishness of beet-sugar representatives. Several of the protesting Republicans based their objections on the folly of "doing something for Cuba," in the way of tariff revision, but nothing for the United States.

In not foreseeing their attitude, and in failing to weigh the tariff-reform sentiment within the Republican party, President Roosevelt and the House managers began their Cuban campaign bunglingly. "No tariff changes," said the President, yet he urged "a substantial reduction in the tariff duties on Cuban imports." Was that, then, no tariff change? Ah, but Mr. Roosevelt said that there were "weighty reasons of morality" and "considerations of honor" which required us to reduce the duties for the behoof of the Cubans. But he might well have been asked, What have morality and honor to do with the protective tariff? Very little, historically. And if moral reasons are to be imported into the argument, was the President to say nothing of the crying injustice of the steel and glass schedules?

What might have been done, what should have been done, was to unite the various interests, and put through a moderate measure of tariff reform along with a bill for Cuban relief. The stoutest opponents of the latter are the warm friends of the former. Congressman Babcock, for example, has identified his name with the bill to prevent the steel duties from becoming an ambush from behind which the American consumer may be shot down. Yet he votes with the beet-sugar men. The latter, in fact, come principally from the States where the demand for tariff revision is most imperative. Now, a really skilful management would have made one hand wash the other. To the beet-sugar growers the President might have said: "We can't all have everything. You do not wish any cut in the sugar duties, but the Cubans need it and must have it. On the other hand, you do strongly desire the duties on steel and glass and hides reduced or abolished. Take the latter and concede the former." There was the obvious line of union of policy and harmony of party; but, alas, the President had walked away from it with his message of "no tariff change," and the insensate fear of the Republican managers about "opening" the tariff, plunged them into the pickle where they now find themselves.

It may not be too late for them to retrace their steps. Weeks and months must apparently pass before a Cuban bill is enacted. As far as this year's sugar crop is concerned, we fear that the Cuban planter will get no relief. In fact, our information is that the small planters have already been forced to sell their sugar at a loss, and that the bulk of the crop is now owned by the large *centrales*. The argument for great haste being thus weakened, there is now no good reason why a little adjustment might not give us, in the end, a Cuban bill with some needed and wholesome tariff revision of our own added to it. The President would not be averse to it. In fact, we are told that when a horrified protectionist tried to alarm him with the prospect of tariff amendments to the Cuban bill, he quietly said, "The more of them the merrier." Certainly no wise Executive could object to doing a good turn to the Cubans and to Americans at one stroke. At any rate, he and all men can now see that the tariff door is open, and that no man can shut it.

LEGISLATING AGAINST ANARCHISTS.

Our law-makers, both at Washington and Albany, have discovered that an effective measure, directed specifically against anarchism, is as hard to frame as a law compelling men to like summer better than winter. The root of the trouble is that you cannot legislate against a state of mind. When the assassination of President McKinley made the question of dealing with anarchists acute, there was a wild outcry for drastic legislation. We then took the position that our general laws against all forms of violence and incitement to violence are fairly adequate; that a special act, however well intended, can at best but slightly increase the efficacy of the present statutes, while it may either level a blow at freedom of speech or make martyrs of feeble and silly agitators.

The bill which passed the United States Senate on Friday gives Federal jurisdiction over criminal assaults upon the President, or upon any officer in the legal succession to the Presidency. This may be very well, but all the machinery of the Federal courts, and the death penalty itself for an unsuccessful attempt to murder, can have no more practical effect than our laws against suicide. The anarchist who tries to shoot a President hopes to kill, expects punishment, and is wholly indifferent to nice distinctions between State and Federal jurisdiction. Provisions against those who aid, abet, incite, or conspire cannot go beyond our present laws against accomplices, except in severity of penalty. The evidence necessary for conviction must be as clear as ever, and degrees of punishment are trifles to the fanatical mind of an anarchist.

Furthermore, measures to exclude from the country or to refuse to naturalize a man who, from the point of view of pure theory, disbelieves in all organized government, are wholly futile. The anarchist bears on his person no badge of his faith, and surely he would not stick at a lie if he were questioned. Indeed, there is no valid reason why we should keep out "philosophical" anarchists, non-resistants who are victims of the delusion that the world can get along without laws or magistrates. For all practical purposes we might just as well bar out those happy, harmless visionaries who imagine that Bacon wrote Shakspere's plays.

The old bill, drawn by Senator Hill, which Senator Bacon has reintroduced and supported, also fails at the critical point. It gives no clear, working definition of anarchist, simply because no such definition is possible. The bill contains a number of vicious features of administration, but those are really minor objections because the measure in its essentials is unenforceable. In short, the general attitude of Congress was summed up by Senator Hawley on Thursday, when he exclaimed with a fine frenzy: "I have an utter abhorrence of anarchy, and would give a thousand dollars to get a good shot at an anarchist!" If Senator Hawley's hand is no steadier than his mind was at that moment, any anarchist would be glad to earn one thousand dollars by offering himself as a target; for the Senator's bullet and his bill would both go wide of the mark.

The act now before the New York State Legislature is also weak in the vital spot. The report of the Senate Committee on Judiciary expressly says that against the crime of killing or attempting to kill the President, or any other official, we need no additional statutes. Nor do we need a new statute in order to reach those who, without committing an overt act themselves, incite others. Such persons are now made principals under section 29 of the Penal Code. The Committee further admits that the "problem of reaching those who profess and teach the doctrines of anarchy, without themselves attempting or committing or inciting others to attempt or commit any particular crime, is a difficult one." As a matter of fact, the problem is not merely difficult, but hopeless; for you can as easily imprison or hang men for discussing the tariff on su-

gar, as for professing and teaching anarchism as a merely speculative doctrine. The utter hopelessness of the problem is shown by the Committee's final solution of it in the following definition, which really gives us nothing new:

"Criminal anarchy is the doctrine that organized government should be overthrown by violence or force, or by assassination of the executive head or of any of the executive officials of government, or by any unlawful means. The advocacy of such doctrine either by word of mouth or writing is a felony."

The rest of the bill prescribes pains and penalties for those who by word of mouth or writing advocate the forcible destruction of government and the assassination of rulers; and it declares a gathering of two criminal anarchists an "unlawful assemblage." In practical operation, however, the act can accomplish nothing more than is now accomplished under section 29 of the Penal Code and under section 451, as follows:

"Whenever three or more persons assemble with intent to commit any unlawful act by force; or assemble with intent to carry out any purpose in such a manner as to disturb the public peace; or, being assembled, attempt or threaten any act tending toward a breach of the peace, or any injury to person or property, or any unlawful act, such an assembly is unlawful, and every person participating therein by his presence, aid, or instigation, is guilty of a misdemeanor. But this section shall not be so construed as to prevent the peaceable assembling of persons for lawful purposes of protest or petition."

Under these existing laws, John Most and Emma Goldman have served terms in the penitentiary. Puttering over the petty changes by which two persons instead of three may constitute an unlawful assemblage, and by which the offence is made a felony instead of a misdemeanor, is as useless as stretching out your hand to stop the wind.

No—the malady, like many others of the body politic, cannot be driven off by any purgative of law. Drastic punishments are impotent to restrain; they will serve only to spread the propaganda of anarchism. We must remember that courts and prisons, judges and jailers are not, after all, the great securities of our property and lives. In the maintenance of a just government, our writs, subpœnas, and decisions are dead instruments compared with the force of an active and intelligent public opinion; and although there can be no absolute protection against the vagaries of an anarchist, a just government is our strongest safeguard.

MR. HEPBURN ON CURRENCY REFORM.

At a meeting of the Academy of Political Science at Columbia University last week, Mr. A. B. Hepburn, ex-Comptroller of the Currency, spoke on the monetary problems of the present day. The address was notable in two points, upon which Mr. Hepburn holds views somewhat at variance with those of other currency-reformers. He maintains that the system of clearing-house loan certificates, by which the consequences of monetary stringency are more or less mitigated by the banks in times of panic, cannot be depended upon as a means of relief in such emergencies, and hence must be replaced by some other system. He holds also that the retirement of the greenbacks, however desirable as a step toward a reform of the currency, is not necessary to such reform, and may well be postponed until a better system of banknote issues shall have been devised. In the debate which followed Mr. Hepburn's address, Professor Seligman concurred with the speaker in the opinion that the business community, in depending upon clearing-house loan certificates in times of crisis, is leaning upon a broken reed, and that some better and more legal method of relief should be devised before the next financial cyclone strikes the country.

Banks are required by law, and still more by the rules of business prudence, to keep on hand a certain percentage of cash to meet the demands of depositors. This may consist of anything which passes current and which everybody accepts without question. In times of severe stringency, some banks are likely to be caught short of currency and exposed to failure. In such cases, the failure of one bank will create public alarm and lead to extraordinary demands for currency upon all the banks. The ingredients of a panic thus accumulate with great rapidity, and may within a short time close all the banks except the very strongest, and cause widespread disaster throughout the business community.

On five different occasions the Clearing-house bankers of New York have "pooled their reserves," and have thus checked the prevailing panic. They have put all their cash into one heap, and appointed a committee to parcel it out by means of loan certificates among the banks, according to their indispensable needs, taking as security for the loans the bills receivable of the banks which required such assistance. Virtually, the Clearing-house Loan Committee discounts the paper of the weaker banks. This process can go on legally as long as the common heap of currency lasts. When it is exhausted, however, or is pretty near exhaustion, the banks, even the strong ones, will make difficulties about paying checks, will certify them as "Good through the Clearing-house," and hand them back to the drawer. If the drawer is content with this kind of payment, well and good; but if he is not, the bank must either pay or incontinently "go to protest."

In the panic of 1893 most of the banks of the United States were in a state of virtual suspension for some weeks. Currency was bought and sold at a premium over certified bank checks in Wall Street, while in many places it could not be obtained at all. Numerous substitutes for currency were devised and used —some as small as twenty-five cents —all of which were illegal and were liable to a Federal tax of 10 per cent. Now Mr. Hepburn's thesis is that the country cannot depend upon an illegal method of warding off the effects of a commercial crisis. A time will come —may come any day—when the public will not accept checks stamped "Good through the Clearing-house" in lieu of the cash which they have the right to demand. They may not agree to take these certified checks to brokers' offices and pay from 1 to 5 per cent. for the currency which the checks call for. The business community may be so hard pressed at some future time as to make simultaneous demands on the banks, as was done in 1857, whereby all the banks in New York were closed except one. Moreover, the credit of New York as a financial centre is impaired, both at home and abroad, by the frequent resort to Clearing-house loan certificates, which is another name for bank-suspension either general or partial.

What then shall be done? Mr. Hepburn points to the example of Germany, where the law authorizes banks to issue an emergency circulation upon the payment of a tax of 5 per cent. on the notes issued over and above the normal amount. This privilege was availed of by the Imperial Bank of Germany in the crisis of last year to the amount of more than 100,000,000 marks, and with the happiest results. The bank virtually said to the business community: "Have no fear; we will discount all the good paper that you bring us." And so it did. There was no chance for a panic to gain headway. In fact, there was no panic. Some few speculators were crowded to the wall because their securities would not pass muster, but no solvent trader or manufacturer was allowed to fail if he would pay the moderate tax which was imposed upon the emergency circulation. Certainly a trader who would grumble over a tax of 5 per cent. (which goes into the Imperial Treasury) cannot be very hard pressed.

The moral is that we ought to devise something akin to the German system which has now been in operation a quarter of a century, and which has carried that country safely through half-a-dozen crises of greater or less severity since it was established.

THE FRENCH ELECTIONS.

President Loubet's visit to Russia will fall very opportunely between the proclamation of the Franco-Russian alliance in the Far East and the general election. When the credit of 500,000 francs for the Presidential journey was voted on Monday in the Chamber of Deputies,

a scene took place which, if insignificant in itself, showed very strikingly the difficulties of the Ministry which is so soon to seek a vote of confidence from the electors. A Socialist rose after the vote and moved that an equal sum be appropriated by the Chamber for the relief of laborers who were out of work. The motion failed, but the incident brought out clearly the strength and the weakness of the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry, namely, the alliance with the Socialists.

Practically, all sincere and rational opposition to the present Government concerns this "unholy alliance," which, in the view of many of the most respectable party leaders, has already involved the Ministry in dangerously radical legislation, and must infallibly lead to the overthrow of the republic and to anarchy. The most influential orator of the *Ralliés*—the Roman Catholic adherents of the republic—is the Comte de Mun. During the debate on the Associations Law he managed to draw from the Socialist members a practical avowal of their plan for general confiscation. There were other milliards, said one of them, which might be considered after the milliards of the monastic orders had been sufficiently reduced. In the vein of the Comte de Mun, MM. Ribot and Poincaré, leaders of the Progressive Republican party, have recently spoken at Marseilles and Rouen respectively. M. Poincaré expressed profound distrust of Waldeck-Rousseau's Socialist allies:

> "It would be a grave illusion," he said, "to imagine that in taming men, one necessarily tames the ideas which they represent. The moderates of the Socialist party—if indeed there be Socialists capable of moderation—themselves distrust the doctrines of their most violent coreligionaries. . . . Only the other day the Socialist Congress at Tours reaffirmed a declaration of principles which in all essentials might have been signed by outright revolutionists."

The outward sign of M. Waldeck-Rousseau's confidence in his Socialist allies was the appointment of the Socialist leader Millerand to be Minister of Commerce; and unless there be some profound hypocrisy involved in "Comrade" Millerand's position, one must feel that M. Waldeck-Rousseau has not only "tamed" his Socialists, but, measurably, their ideas also. In M. Lavy's interesting book, 'L'Oeuvre de Millerand: Un Ministre Socialiste,' are collected the most important addresses of the Socialist Minister, in all of which Socialism appears as a gradual process of reform wholly compatible with any free form of government. As long ago as 1896 in the "Programme de Saint-Mandé," M. Millerand affirmed collectivism to be an irresistible tendency, an inevitable product of social conditions as we find them. "No one can and no one will deliberately bring about collectivism. It is making, day by day, and is, grant me the phrase, the very secretion of the present capitalist régime." Again, in the same speech, he declared the minimum Socialist programme to be: "(1) the nationalizing of the means of production now in capitalist hands—gradually, as fast as the several industries are ready for such transformation; (2) the increase of the powers of the people through universal suffrage; (3) international federation of the working classes"—all of these to be obtained not by "a minority in revolt," but by a "majority conscious of the benefits of such a social transformation."

If Millerand spoke for his party, no one could quarrel seriously with a Socialist propaganda which sought definite reforms by regular parliamentary methods, and appealed not to the war of class—hatred of the capitalist and contempt of the bourgeois—but to the convictions of all the citizens of France. Unfortunately, the utterance of the leader of the Radical Socialists, the eloquent Jaurès, and the resolution of the Guesdists at Tours hardly justify so hopeful a view of the Socialist movement. It is fair to say, however, that in the various municipalities, notably Marseilles, which are governed by Socialists, the necessity of facing definite policies and expressing them in action has very much sobered these radical reformers. On this analogy one would expect to find that three years of constructive legislation with Waldeck-Rousseau has made "parliamentary Socialists" out of many of the Radicals.

M. Waldeck-Rousseau presents to the voters of France a tremendous argument in his three years of brilliant leadership. He found France torn by the passions of the Dreyfus agitation, and brought about, if not theoretical justice, at least peace. He reorganized the General Staff of the army courageously, and yet in such a way that the Nationalists had small pretext for violent recriminations. He came into a Parliament where there was no real majority, and organized from many groups a majority which for two years and a half he has held intact and increased. He has made the Socialists work with him, but has committed the Government to none of their more extravagant demands except the abortive project for old-age pensions. He has carried through the bill restricting the right of association and revising the monastic holdings—a purge which has to be administered every so often in all Roman Catholic countries—without seriously alienating the Catholics. His whole administration has been marked by high statesmanship, or all signs deceive. It is impossible to believe, with his conservative critics, that he has in gayety of heart embarked with a mutinous crew of Socialists on a voyage towards political disaster and oblivion.

France votes next month for or against M. Waldeck-Rousseau. In spite of doctrinaire politicians of high character, the issue is much less a political than a personal one. M. Waldeck-Rousseau not only rests upon his record as Premier, but justly enjoys a certain reflected popularity from the real love which the French nation has learned to give to the sturdiest and simplest and withal most amiable and sagacious figure in politics to-day—President Loubet. The rabble of Legitimists, Bonapartists, Anti-Semites, and reactionaries of all degrees which marches under the flag of Nationalism will make noise out of all proportion to the seriousness of their opposition. We believe that the vote of the arrondissements next month will show that the French are convinced that M. Waldeck-Rousseau has deserved well of the Republic.

THE RAILWAY STRIKE IN ITALY.

ROME, March 10, 1902.

A most animated Italian Rome, truly, gathered in the public squares, lined the streets, filled the balconies, to see the young King on his way from the Quirinal to the Senate-house to open Parliament in person for the first time. Tickets of admission to Palazzo Madama were sparingly given, and the main thoroughfares through which the procession passed were guarded with troops; but the crowds shouted welcome both to the King and to his charming, simple, beautiful young Queen, who looked around with naïve interest and animation. The hall was splendidly decorated, and ablaze with light and color. The throne from which King Victor Emanuel III. spoke is the same whence Carlo Alberto announced the *Statuto* in 1849, and Victor Emanuel II., first King of Italy, proclaimed Italian unity in 1861. The speech occupied barely ten minutes, but one had time to note the various humors of the different groups of Senators, Deputies, and the very limited number of spectators admitted. Considerable curiosity had been evinced by the public and the press as to the actual programme of the second session of the twenty-first Legislature, after a long vacation and the resignation, on the very eve of its inauguration, of the Minister of Public Works, on account of the divorce project, said some—in consequence of his disagreement with his colleagues as to the action to be taken on the burning question of the railways agitation and threatened strikes, according to others.

Hearty applause greeted the King's allusions to his father's worth and loss to the army and the navy; but the decisive affirmation of the attitude of the Government towards the Church, though hailed with vociferous delight by a portion of the assembly, was received in marked silence by others. Few but incisive were the spoken words: "In the relations between the State and the Church, my Government intends to maintain strictly the separation of the civil and spiritual orders; to honor the clergy, but to confine it to the limits of the sanctuary; to pay unlimited respect to religion and to liberty of conscience, but to preserve inflexibly intangible the prerogatives of the civil authority and the rights of national authority." The announcement of the action which the Gov-

ernment intends to take on the divorce question, and on the still more important question of the rights of illegitimate children to ascertain the names of their fathers and secure maintenance, was less dogmatic, but clear. "On judicial grounds, my Government will propose to temper, in harmony with the common law of other nations, the ideal principle of the indissolubility of civil matrimony; to reform by equitable methods the laws which deprive illegitimate offspring of their right to name and to maintenance." At this paragraph the applause was vociferous, redoubled, enthusiastic on the part of the partisans of divorce, and the silence on the part of the opponents ominously marked. The announcement of the proposed reduction in the price of salt was received good-humoredly, not enthusiastically, while the peroration, which affirmed the "peace and goodwill prevalent at home and abroad," was, by certain portions of the assembly, greeted with silent but evident incredulity.

Despite these diverse symptoms, the welcome given personally to the young King and Queen was hearty and unanimous. You felt—what the press and public did not fail to express immediately afterwards—that the majority approved of him and his policy, of his counsellors and of the programme, while a very strong, compact, but hopeless minority, stanch to the monarchy, deemed that the young sovereign had fallen into the worst possible hands, from which they were, for the present at least, powerless to extricate him. During the rest of the day we happened to find ourselves in a decidedly moderate, not to say reactionary, circle, or rather circles. Here the least hostile, most reasonable, observation made was that the Ministry had erred in judgment in forcing the divorce question into the speech from the throne, before any distinct project had been decided upon by the Cabinet itself. To this, "one who knows," and who has continual means of knowing, observed that the King had insisted on the introduction of the subject, which he has studied profoundly, and on which he has formed a very decided opinion. One can only imagine the next greeting and meeting between young Victor and his mother, whose ultramontane judgments and prejudices do but deepen and increase since her forced retirement from public life.

There is little doubt but that both lovers and haters of the Ministry awoke next morning without any special hopes or fears as to its immediate fate. So little suspicion had the Government of the trap laid for it in silence and darkness that not a single summons had been sent to the rank and file of its supporters, as the election of the Speaker was not regarded as a test of its power. No one seemed to doubt the reëlection of Villa, who had, during the late session, given general satisfaction, on the whole, by his activity and impartiality during the not always peaceful debates. What, then, was the astonishment of all but the plotters when the votes put secretly into the silent urns were counted, and it was found that, out of the 292 present, Villa had received only 142 votes, while the Socialist Costa had 17, there were other scattering votes, and the remaining 137 were blanks, cast by the Sonnino-Rudini clique, who had resorted to the white-feather manœuvre to defeat the Ministerial candidate! The consternation that followed the proclamation of the result of the voting was almost comic. Zanardelli quietly announced that the Ministry "retired to deliberate," and an hour later it was known that the entire body had sent in their resignation to the King. On the morrow it was at once affirmed that the King had refused to accept the resignation, but, with even more asseveration, that Zanardelli utterly refused to withdraw it, that Giolitti was equally determined, and that the entire Ministry decided to stand by their chiefs. This was all true. Of course, Villa telegraphed his refusal of the Speakership—it was not likely that the man who had been elected unanimously would condescend to accept office with a majority of blank votes! The King found himself in a tight corner, but held firm. The fact that the Opposition had not had the courage to designate a candidate who, by gaining a majority, would have indicated to the King the Constitutional lines to follow, exonerated him from turning to the Sonninians for counsel; for which they were devoutly thankful, as they were quite aware that it would be impossible for them to form a Government. Rather than do this, the King was resolved to dissolve, and to allow the existing Government to appeal to the country.

Meanwhile, the gas strike at Turin had been peacefully settled by arbitration between the gas companies and the representatives of the gas-workers, who had demanded arbitration from the commencement, but had been refused; the companies declining to treat with their delegates. The pressure of public opinion, of the press, and of the chief citizens of Turin compelled them to yield, and the result is that the workmen have secured adhesion to their reasonable demands, which, if conceded at first, would have prevented the strike and the waste of money and time which is the inevitable consequence of all strikes. This solution displeased the reactionists, who had exaggerated the story of the strike, accusing the strikers of the assassination of two carabiniers, who, it is proved, were murdered by some peasants out of revenge.

On the evening of the 24th it was "confidentially" affirmed that Zanardelli had consented to withdraw his resignation, and intended to present the old Ministry to the Chambers intact, minus a new Minister of Public Works; it being his intention to hold that portfolio himself in the interim. On the morrow the apparent enigma was explained by the announcement of the militarization and mobilization of the railway men in the army reserve, of the recall of the class of 1878, but lately dismissed to their homes, with distinct injunctions to the commander of the Ninth Army Corps to deal sternly and instantly with any refractory conscripts. The reason for this drastic measure on the part of the Minister, suspected by many, was soon made manifest to all. The railway servants, whose rights had been recognized at the time of the convention between the Government and the lessee companies in 1885, had been defrauded of them by the latter for seventeen years. Inquests had been made, and endless actions brought against the companies, all resulting in favor of the railway servants; successive Governments had promised redress and failed to fulfil their promises. Lately, the men had proclaimed their ultimatum: the regulation of their collective and individual position, with rules of promotion, of increased payment, of minimum salary, and gradual increase up to a certain maximum, with redress of certain grievances, etc., etc. Some of the lines had accorded the demands in general terms, but the late Minister of Public Works had always refused to confer with the organized representatives of the railway servants—this in homage to the companies, which disdained to treat with them.

Much was hoped from the intervention of Zanardelli and Giolitti; but when the Ministry was overthrown by the underhand plot of the reactionary Opposition, the railway servants, fearing a return of the Pelloux and Sonnino policy, resolved on a universal strike. This put Zanardelli on his metal. He was not the man to leave the King and the country in the lurch, or to trust to other hands the solution of a situation which only the firm and delicate hand of an experienced practitioner could undertake with any chance of success. Moreover, to permit a general strike of railway servants after the circular of January 24, when it was expressly laid down that public servants who had contracted with the heads of public services could not be permitted to suspend work, as private workmen might with private companies, was out of the question. To permit the strike was to admit the rule of anarchy; to allow the reactionists to suppress it by their old methods was to retard liberty and progress for years. By assuming the portfolio of Public Works the veteran statesman took on his own shoulders the entire responsibility of the consequences. The railway workers militarized might rebel—well, they knew what military discipline is, and must be prepared to take the consequences; or the non-militarized portion, which is by far the most numerous, might carry on the strike on their own account, and they could be dealt with only by the ordinary tribunals, and meanwhile, as the ministerial announcement in the official Gazette ran: "A strike on all the great railway lines would profoundly disturb public peace, would suspend the economical life of the country, paralyze the great industries, and hence deprive thousands of workers of the means of procuring their daily bread. It would hinder the cities from procuring food, with the inevitable result of enormously increasing the price of the prime necessaries of life, engendering unheard-of suffering among the poorest classes of the population."

This manifesto was hailed with derisive jeers by the "blood-and-steel" faction; but Zanardelli, wiser in his Old World liberalism than the English legislators for Ireland, while issuing his coercion bill, resolved at the same time on an attempt to redress the grievances of the railway servants one and all, and all at once. So he summoned to Rome all the heads and representatives of the several railway companies, together with all the recognized heads of the representatives of the workingmen—precisely those with whom the railway companies and ex-Minister Giusso had refused contemptuously to treat. And (tell it not in Gath!) some of these belonged to the actually militarized categories, and had to demand permission of their military superiors. A perfect howl of execration burst from the reactionary faction. Nevertheless, at the Ministry of

Public Works were convened the contending parties, and sittings were held from 8 A. M. even till 8 P. M., with intervals for meeting of the entire Cabinet and daily detailed report to the King of the hour-to-hour progress of the negotiations. The railway companies, frightened out of their wits at the apparent inevitability of the general strike, which they had pooh-poohed in the past, placed themselves and their clients in the hands of the Minister of Public Works, after defining the pecuniary limits which, in the interests of the shareholders, could not be surpassed, "even if the alternative were the rupture of the convention or the dreaded general strike." It must be borne in mind that the lease of the railway lines accorded by the fatal Depretis in 1885, against the judgment of competent authorities including three ex-Ministers of Public Works, against the protests and entreaties of all the patriots on both sides of the House, expires in June, 1905, so that but three years have to run when the Government will have to reconsider the question *ab ovo*, and the companies would not all be broken-hearted if the term should be abbreviated. But this would not be a profitable solution for the nation, as no steps have been taken or even thought of for the state's working the railroads, which are still national property. Hence the extreme difficulty and delicacy of the negotiations.

The conferences commenced on the 5th of March were concluded on the 8th, the most difficult question being the date of the execution of the accorded stipulation. The old servants affirmed that they had a right to back pay from the date of the conventions, but this was disregarded. The representatives of the railway men proposed as a great concession to date from 1900; but here stepped in the Ministers of the Treasury and Finance, objecting that three years' back pay would cost at least thirty-six millions, and that such a project could not be entertained for a moment. "Let us make it 1901," conceded the railway delegates. "Even twenty-four millions are impossible"; and the negotiations seemed at an end. Then Zanardelli threw himself personally into the breach. The companies, he said, have consented to spend over and above their original calculations an extra nine millions; further than that they will not, possibly they cannot, go. Even dating from January 1, 1902, the State will have to furnish for the next three years a sum total which is variously estimated at from twelve to seventeen millions. Even for this sum I must bring a bill before Parliament; a larger sum I will not propose; therefore, it is for you to decide whether, for the difference, you will renounce the present advantages of the thorough and entire organization of the services—a far more important item than an extra sum of money—the certainty of regular advancement, of appeal in case of fines and punishments, and all the innumerable benefits which an organized service offers, instead of a continuation of the quarrels, trials, contradictory sentences which have marked the last sixteen years.

The delegates felt their responsibility to be very heavy, as the great mass of railway men had voted unanimously to stand by their decision. One point, which they all had at heart, was gained. Eleven of the railway servants who had been tried and condemned by default in 1898 have been compelled to reside in foreign countries, certain on their return to be arrested and, of course, excluded from the railway service. These the Minister engaged to intercede for with the companies, or to insure their safe return and indemnity. Clearly, on all hands, there was the greatest possible desire to come to an amicable settlement. Finally, the delegates agreed to accept the date of the 1st of January, 1892, so that the new arrangements will run for three years up to June, 1905, when the nation comes into its own again, and the railway servants will treat anew either with the state or with new companies, though that such will ever be intrusted with the national railways seems utterly impossible at present. The companies have never kept to their contracts, and the lines and rolling-stock are in a shameful state. One thing is certain, that in no country in Europe, not even in France during the great war, is there such scandalous railway service to be found. This, whether you count punctuality, cleanliness, prompt service on passenger trains, or the regularity of goods traffic by slow trains or by express. Those who remember the preconvention times, know to their cost how things have gone from bad to worse, and how the condition of the poor railway men has deteriorated, with longer hours, shorter pay, and fewer numbers, so that one has rarely the heart to make a complaint, knowing that the innocent men will be made the scapegoats of the greedy shareholders and of the upper officials who grind the faces of the workers and worn-out toilers. It was this universal conviction that engendered such universal sympathy for the railway men during the late agitation, and that causes the general satisfaction with which the amicable accord has been attained.

Turati has been the directing mind of the compromise—for that it is a compromise no one can deny. The reactionists are furious, and ask how the Minister can dare to present to Parliament a bill for the concessions, forgetting what a strike would have cost, and that the mobilization itself (as the railway workers were to receive military pay) costs 35,000 lire per day. Naturally, as soon as all is quiet, and when every possibility of a strike is averted, the decree will be recalled, and that will give the Opposition a new grievance to bemoan. On the whole, there is general satisfaction, though the extreme Socialists and the extreme Republicans grumble and denounce the Ministry and the Commissioners. The King is decidedly satisfied with the conduct of his Ministers, and feels justified in his choice more than ever. As for the "last of the old guard" himself, he has a *nunc-dimittis* look on his pale and eager face which one would rather not see. Then, he is frailer and thinner than ever, but as eager as the old war-horse to see the battle out. The affair of the President is settled by old Bianchieri yielding to the King's pleadings and accepting the candidature for the Speakership. No Sonninian or Rudinian would dare to vote against or vote blank with the name of the stanch Constitutional to the fore.

There are thousands of public servants in nearly as bad a plight as the railway servants, whose rights are violated and whose mild remonstrances are disregarded. If the various departments are wise, they will redress the grievances of the postmen and the telegraphists; and the communes may bethink themselves that it is time to pay up the arrears of the miserable salaries due for months to the communal schoolmasters and schoolmistresses. Again far-off Calabria is making its voice heard in appeal, seeing that, of the benefits of unity, it knows nothing but the call of the tax-gatherer and the recruiting-sergeant. The present storm has passed over; a skilful helmsman has saved the vessel from wreck; but, though we breathe freely for the moment, we are far from crying victory all along the line.

J. W. M.

THE VICTOR HUGO CENTENARY.

PARIS, March 10, 1902.

The celebration of the centenary of Victor Hugo is fairly over, and one may already ask one's self whether it was as enthusiastic and as generally popular as the accounts in the daily press, or a part of it, would lead the reader abroad to suppose. The impression made upon me is distinctly that the character of the celebration was official and not popular. There were crowds in the Place de l'Hôtel de Ville, in the Place Victor Hugo, and in the Place des Vosges, called together by the functions that took place there: the reception of the foreign delegates, the unveiling of the curiously designed monument to the memory of the poet, the dedication of the dwelling once inhabited by him (and previously, it is said, by the famous courtesan Marion Delorme, the heroine of his first real acting play). There were very great crowds at the Pantheon to view the tomb and the numerous wreaths of flowers, of which the French are as lavish as any American community. The Rue Saint-Antoine, on Sunday, the 2d, was fairly well packed with a motley assemblage, drawn thither by the ceremony and the speeches, which it neither saw nor heard; but there was lacking the indefinable, though easily recognized and still more easily felt, spirit of popular demonstration and enthusiasm. Nothing comparable, even distantly, to the enormous crowds in 1885, was to be seen anywhere, and even the discredited and glory-shorn Mid-Lent called out more genuine vivacity and *verve*.

The most impressive sight was that of the people waiting in dense lines to enter the Pantheon. On the day I visited it, it took on an average a couple of hours to get in—that is, unless one were provided with a special permit, and thus enabled to pass through the cordon of police. The crowd was composed of all classes of persons, rich and poor, well dressed and poorly garbed, and every one had an interested and eager look. The illuminations also drew well, but that was simply because they were illuminations; their *raison d'être* had nothing whatever to do with the affluence of sightseers. There were no private illuminations, so far as I saw, neither was the decoration of buildings taken up by the general public. This was not for the want of stirring appeals to "pavoiser et illuminer," for each Mayor had launched a proclamation on the subject, and these proclamations were posted everywhere.

The remarkable thing about them was their literary and poetic character. Every one was different from the others (each Mayor, of course, desiring to prove his title to originality), and they were every one of them very well composed and deserving of being preserved. Thanksgiving proclamations, Gubernatorial or Presidential, are not to be named in the same breath. These Paris appeals to the citizens of the City of Light each had a quotation from the poet's works incorporated in them, and it was a downright treat to peruse the sonorous periods of the great chief of the Romanticists. Edmond Biré would have had something to say to the accuracy of the statements put forth by Hugo, but no one cared for Biré just then, and the delight of the metre and the rhyme and the glory of the language were all sufficient. No one could have charmed more witchingly than these Mayors, yet the average Parisian seems to have been like the deaf adder that stoppeth up her ears. He remained insensible to the appeal, and his house did not break out into fire or flags. In Belleville Quarter, it is said, the reception of the proposal to celebrate the centenary was received in most hostile fashion, for the amiable inhabitants of that quarter have so strong an objection to God and all his works that they declined, in non-academic, but none the less exceedingly clear and vigorous French, to honor a man who had actually sung of the "bon Dieu" in terms of praise.

The most striking feature of the centenary, from a literary and artistic point of view, was not the unveiling of the monument or the turning out of the school from the house in the Place des Vosges, ex-Place Royale, but the revival of "Les Burgraves" at the Théâtre-Français. I understand that the revival cost a lot of money, and certainly everything seems to have been done to insure the putting of the play on the stage in a manner worthy of the first actors in the world in their attempt to galvanize into a simulacrum of life a play incapable of living. The cast is splendid: Mounet-Sully, whose voice still holds those wondrous organ-tones that thrill one to the heart, takes the part of the Comte Job, the centenarian burgrave; Paul Mounet, whose vocal cords have given out under the strain of the shouting he has to indulge in, has Magnus for his share; Silvain does the Emperor Barbarossa; Lambert *fils* plays Otbert; Mme. Segond-Weber is superb as Guanhumara, and Mme. Lara is Regina. No one could ask for a more satisfactory distribution of parts—the more so that the whole performance is exceedingly well balanced, and that none of the performers strive after starring effects. They one and all conscientiously endeavor to lose their own identity in the part they have to represent, and they neither play to the gallery nor to themselves. And they have their reward; for genuine applause (not that led by the wretched *claque*, but the applause that comes spontaneously from a delighted public) greets them frequently. The directions of Victor Hugo and the traditions of the performances in 1843 have been carefully followed, so that there can be no doubt that the play has all the advantages it is possible to fortify it with. Well, with all this in its favor, with the interest lent to it as a revival, with the aid of the superb acting and the positively magnificent stage-setting, the thing is dismally dull.

Heresy, if you will, but truth in heresy. There is no getting over the fact that the drama drags its slow and unwieldy length along, and that one is constantly waiting for that life-like action on which Hugo laid so much stress, and which was declared to be altogether wanting in the masterpieces of Corneille and Racine. As for monologues, the classical drama cannot rival this attempt at dramatized epic. Every blessed one of the principal characters has to talk for half an hour—at least, so it seems to the tired spectator; and Job and Barbarossa and the prisoners feel it necessary each to give a course in variegated history. The one thing that saves these tremendous passages from being unbearable is the admirable delivery and intonation of the actors. They bring out the beauty of the verse—and it is very beautiful verse, much of it—in a way that enchants the ear; but as far as helping on the action of the drama is concerned, these sonorous monologues, full of eccentric names and references to historical events unknown to the vast majority of the hearers, might as well be omitted.

It is very striking, too, that, in his endeavor to be impressive, Hugo has repeatedly failed to attain even ordinary impressiveness. The scene in which the tattered pilgrim declares himself to be Barbarossa is lamentably weak and flat. Not all the efforts of Silvain, not all the attempts of Magnus, Hatto, Otbert, and the assembled burgraves, margraves, counts, and barons to appear startled and terrified, could save it. No one was awed, no one was startled, no one impressed, save, I confess it to my shame, with a feeling akin to laughter—so nearly akin to it, indeed, that the difference is infinitesimal. And who could wonder at it? Who could blame the bandit barons for refusing to recognize in the fat mendicant, with abundant white beard and tatterdemalion garments, the tremendous and awe-inspiring figure of the redoubtable Frederick Barbarossa? Silvain had to dress the part as required by Hugo. Well, the result is a total elimination of majesty, of grandeur, of the sense of power, and Hatto was fully justified in calling the dread monarch a buffoon. The shining figure in the play is that of Guanhumara, played, as I have said, by Mme. Segond-Weber. Assuredly, that is the one triumph of the revival, and those who have been fortunate to see her in that part will have reason to congratulate themselves. She was the only character that did impress one with the sense of an epic figure, of a really formidable personage, and her whole acting was one continuous triumph.

One more point about this centenary: it is the amazing variety of aspect which Hugo appears to have exhibited during his lifetime. That he was chameleonic in his beliefs, political and religious, is well known; and few, save extremists, dream of blaming him for that. Man has a right to change; and if Hugo took full advantage thereof, who shall say him nay? But can he have looked so differently from himself? Was he so many men in one? There is a portrait of him in one of the new panels "inaugurated" on the façade of the Théâtre-Français, a medallion in high relief. There is another in the foyer of the house, on the right of Houdon's magnificent statue of Voltaire (assuredly the finest portrait sculptor ever made). This new bust occupies the pedestal on which rested, until a week ago, another bust of Voltaire, "with his hideous smile," as Musset termed it. Then there are the Bonnat portrait and the David d'Angers one, and countless others, taken at various times during the poet's life, and one after death. It is hard to believe that he could have looked like one and all of them, and also like what he is represented on the top of his new monument in the Square that bears his name. The inevitable woman who pervades French art, high and low, is there, of course—four times over, and in attitudes more remarkable for their daring than their grace. But by-and-by, in future centuries, people will ask themselves what Hugo really looked like, and the *savants* of that day will tender them many a counterfeit presentment which will heighten their wonder and prevent their coming to a satisfactory conclusion.

F. C. DE SUMICHRAST.

LUDWIG FULDA.

CLEVELAND, March 17, 1902.

It was in March, 1890, after less than two years of imperial power, that Kaiser Wilhelm II. made his bold and withal wise move in European politics by dismissing the Iron Chancellor with the grandiloquent title of Herzog von Lauenburg, which Bismarck said he would use when he wished to travel incognito. The Kaiser was at once accused of ingratitude and megalomania, the madness of the Cæsars which ruined the Roman Empire. Even Young Germany was amazed at the intrepidity of its dashing leader: hoary wiseacres predicted that Bismarck would soon be recalled to the helm to pilot the ship of state out from the dangerous reefs upon which the Emperor was surely running it. Twelve years have shown the world that the young ruler not only can guide his Government as well as the old statesman ever did, but also that he can accomplish his every end by the brilliant insight of intellectual genius, not by the stolid stubbornness of brutal violence.

Not since the days in which Aristophanes so mercilessly and so fearlessly lashed the demagogue Cleon and his political tyranny in "The Knights" and "The Wasps," has a dramatic author dared to present such keen political satire to the public as Fulda did in his "Talisman." There can be no doubt as to who is meant by this king who claims the valor of all heroes, the wisdom of all sages, and says that the Almighty alone is his peer. Nor can we mistake the noble and valiant knight, invincible in the war against the Heathen (*sic*), who has been dismissed from the first office of the land since he frankly said he could not see the bright halo which a treacherous rival for the chancellorship persuaded the king ever gleams about his royal head.

Ludwig Fulda was born July 15, 1862, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, of wealthy Jew parentage. As a child he was frail and dreamy. After graduating from the gymnasium of his native town, he studied philosophy and Germanic philology at the universities of Heidelberg, Berlin, and Leipzig. In 1883 he took the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Heidelberg. His dissertation was a monograph on the now almost forgotten German poet Chris-

tian Weise. He began his literary career in Munich as an ardent admirer and disciple of the veteran Paul Heyse. To this day he never fails to make an annual visit to his revered master in his villa at Gardone on the beautiful Lago di Garda. Last spring, shortly after the great Berlin success of the young poet's "Die Zwillingsschwester," I saw him walking arm in arm with the venerable Altmeister among the ruins of Catullus's villa near Sirmione, on the southern end of the lake. It was refreshing to see one of the Youngest Germans who still loved and venerated the old master, twenty years ago the foremost figure in German literature, at whom it is quite the vogue now to shrug one's shoulders. Fulda should, indeed, be grateful to Heyse: it is from him that he learned his exquisite art, the careful form in which his thought is always cast, and the perfect finish of each fine phrase.

After leaving Munich, Fulda lived a short time in Frankfort, just long enough to loathe the intellectual provincialism of the place; in 1888 he moved to Berlin, which is now his permanent home. He first appeared as a playwright with several little one-act comedies in prose in the style of Wilbrandt. "Unter Vier Augen" (1887) is the best of these, and quite good of its kind. It is the story of a young husband who convinces his socially ambitious wife, on the night of her first dinner-party, that real home life is better than all social dissipation. There is in it much fine satire on "the best society." But, like most tyros in comedy, the young author relies too much upon *jeu de mots*, and it is too apparent that he is incorporating wit and wisdom gained from reading rather than from experience.

Carried away by the success of Sudermann and Hauptmann in the social drama, Fulda produced several very realistic plays, the best of which is "Die Sklavin" (1892). It is the story of a German wine-dealer who treats his wife as a slave, and subjects her to such brutal indignities that she leaves him. Suicide would have been the usual realistic solution for the social outcast but for a *deus ex machina*, in the form of a young widower, who takes her to his home. The play is no worse and no better than a hundred other German plays of to-day, and, like all of them, has no significance for real dramatic literature. The German woman question, however serious in itself, has no affinity with art.

There is a Hindu proverb which says, "Of the two kinds of blind men, he is most blind who is deceived by the material world." Fulda, like every true artist, soon saw that real ephemeral persons and events may be interesting enough, but that the verities of life and art, however often they may need restatement, are the same in all ages, and that art should deal with ideal types in their eternal relations. The German nature is naïve and lyric as that of a child, Berlin to the contrary notwithstanding—for Berlin is even less representative of Germany to-day than Paris is of France. The German nature has ever loved the fairy-tale beyond all others. The deepest and most suggestive of German sages, Herder, wrote: "No other form of poetic art knows how to say such fine and deep things to the human heart as does the fairy-tale." Fulda knew his countrymen well when he turned to the Märchendrama in the "Talisman." He took his plot from Andersen's charming tale, "The Emperor's New Clothes." The story itself, in a slightly different form, is world-old. From Hindu lore it found its way into early German literature through the "Pfaffe Amis," and was, of course, settled upon the merriest of mediæval rogues, Till Eulenspiegel. In Andersen two rogues impose upon a foolish old king by pretending to make for him a robe which is invisible to all who are either stupid or bad. No one, not even the king, can see it, for there is nothing to see, but all pretend to see it plainly and rave over its beauty. When the king is promenading to show the people his gorgeous raiment, a little child cries out, "Why, the king has nothing on!" But the monarch refuses to be disillusioned.

In Fulda's "Talisman" all this merry nonsense is given its deep psychological significance. The obtuse old monarch is changed into a fiery young despot, who deems himself clairvoyant, but is really blinded by adulation. He knows he cannot see the robe, and that his nature is bad, but decides that his very wickedness shall make him greater. With clear insight into the King's inner nature, Omar, the son of the banished chancellor, skilfully disillusions the megalomaniac by means of the pretended robe. In the old story the hero was only a clever rogue, but here he is the personified type of moral greatness. Andersen's little child becomes the simple merry Rita, whose prototype in the Märchendrama is unmistakably Mirza in Grillparzer's "Traum, ein Leben." The political satire is superb—the sycophant courtiers, deceived deceivers, who all vow they see the robe, but quarrel as to its color and texture; the king, who actually believes that he alone cannot see it, but dare not say so; the people, divided into factions, liberals and conservatives, in their zeal to see it. The climax could not be finer: the King in his underclothes parades before the people in a magnificent pageant to display the robe. Rita cries out ingenuously that he has nothing on, and then naïvely remarks to the enraged monarch:

"Herr, kann dich das im Ernst erbosen?
Du bleibst der König—auch in Unterhosen."

"Sire, can that really put you in a rage?
You still are king—even in underdrawers."

When the King finally pardons Omar and Rita, condemned to die together, and offers him the first office of the land, Omar takes Rita by the hand and leaves the insipid court, to dwell with her and her old father, the inimitable Habakuk, in his little cottage. To the King he leaves his talisman—

"Der Mut der Wahrheit ist der Talisman."

"The courage of the truth, that is the Talisman."

The whole drama is thoroughly unconventional; it has none of the inevitable stock figures of German comedy. The satire is most subtle and the merriment exhilarating. Through all runs a clear vein of rich poetry and deep thought. The form is simply perfect; it would be hard to find in all dramatic literature more exquisite art. Of course, the realistic critics held up their hands in horror at the reappearance of the Märchendrama. Was the German drama to go back to the days of Tieck and his "Puss-in-Boots," of Platen and his "Silver Slipper"? By no means. Fulda saw far deeper into the significance of the Märchendrama than ever did the Romanticists, and knew that, restated, it could be made most serviceable. He had studied carefully Grillparzer's "Traum, ein Leben," and saw in it a form of the drama which, used discreetly and not too often, could express more real truth than all the realistic formlessness of modern stage-plays. He restored again to their old supremacy the fine fancy and rich imagination of the German poet. He realized one of the fundamental facts of art, that for each folk there is an indigenous form in which alone its genius can be fully expressed. That he was right was attested by the success not only of his "Talisman" (1893), but also of Hauptmann's "Versunkene Glocke" (1896), and Sudermann's "Die Drei Reiherfedern" (1898).

Fulda's latest drama, "Die Zwillingsschwester," a comedy in verse of Italian cinquecento life, is now being played night after night in Berlin, Vienna, Munich, London, Paris, and New York. It was first brought out by Agnes Sorma on February 21, 1901, at the Lessing Theater in Berlin. The success was unprecedented; Fulda appeared several times before the curtain. He is now a tall, thin, ungainly man, with very dark eyes and black moustache. The most characteristic feature about him is his sarcastic smile. "Die Zwillingsschwester" was produced in New York first in German by Herr Conried at the Irving Place Theatre, the one theatre with a real literary and artistic standard in this country. Its success was so great that it was at once adapted into English ("The Twin Sister") by Louis N. Parker, and put on at the Empire, where it is equally successful.

"Die Zwillingsschwester" is a play of pure fancy, entirely removed from this noisy work-a-day world; its success is a severe blow to the realists. The story has all the rich flavor of Boccaccio without his lubricity. Count Orlando della Torre of Padua is weary of his beautiful young wife, and longs for a change in the conjugal monotony. He decides to go with his jolly companion Parabosco to Venice for a lark. His noble wife Giuditta pretends to leave for a sojourn with her mother, but soon returns as her own maiden twin sister, the merry Renata, who was expected on a visit. Orlando, forced to remain at home to entertain the supposed Renata, falls desperately in love—with his own wife, as does also Parabosco! Thus Giuditta, as Renata, again fascinates and wins—her own husband. When the real Renata arrives, all is delightfully cleared up, and Orlando declares no other woman in the world but his own wife could have tempted him to taste forbidden fruit.

No better comedy has ever been written than the scenes where Orlando falls so passionately in love with his own wife; the disclosure and reconciliation at the end are simply inimitable. The manner in which Sorma brings out the subtle shades of difference between the twin sisters is a triumph of her art. Just a tinge more of life and gayety in the merry maiden Renata makes her more fascinating to Orlando than the slightly subdued wife Giuditta. Just such a merry maiden had Giuditta herself been when she first won her husband; just such Sorma makes her again to win him back. In addition to this excellent characterization, there is a wealth

of rollicking merriment and epigrammatic wit. Let one example suffice:

"Der Mann ist doch ein Mann, nicht nur ein Gatte."

"A married man is still a man, not merely a husband."

What the realists have given us so much gratuitous filth to portray is here most deftly worked out. As Giuditta gleefully taunts her repentant husband, an incontinent man has eyes for every other woman

"Except his wife—until in borrowed guise
She turn herself into forbidden fruit."

Fulda has also written some good poems and fine epigrams, besides giving the Germans his excellent translations of Molière and Rostand. Like the latter dramatist, he has a remarkably felicitous way of putting things. He may not have the deep poetic insight that Hauptmann once had, nor the great power of thought that Sudermann still has, but he is more of an artist than either. He has less to say, but he can say it much better than either.

EDWARD STOCKTON MEYER.

Correspondence.

OUR DUTY TO CUBA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There appears a communication from "I. J. W.," in your number of March 13, under the heading "Our Duty to Cuba," criticising the comments of the *Nation* on the conduct of the House of Representatives in dealing with the question of Cuban reciprocity. The customs tariff of Cuba was prepared by the United States Government, and numerous amendments have been introduced by that Government since the occupation of the island, directing the appraisal of foreign goods by certain (higher) sections, and that of American goods by certain other sections. This has increased American importations into Cuba. Representatives from this island have clearly pointed out that Cuba is willing to make further concessions to encourage and protect trade with the United States, yet Cuba has had no chance to introduce amendments in the United States customs tariff, which remains unchanged *against* all Cuban products. It may, therefore, be seen that the problem is one of mutual commercial advantage, to be decided by broadminded business men who will not be influenced by petty personal conceptions such as those of "I. J. W.," whose brain could suggest no better comparison than his refusal to contribute alms to a street beggar.

R. G. MENDOZA.

HAVANA, March 19, 1902.

RIZAL'S PATRIOTIC HOROSCOPE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the light of subsequent events, it is thought that the following extract from an article written by José Rizal may be of interest to readers of the *Nation*. The article was headed "Filipinas* within a Hundred Years," and appeared September 30, 1889, in *La Solidaridad*, the organ of that band of brilliant and courageous young Filipinos, like Rizal, Luna and Del Pilar, several of whom gave up their lives for love of country. Rizal never advocated separation from Spain and independence for the Philippines; he only pleaded for reforms, and prophesied that separation and independence must ultimately result unless reforms should be made. Such is the tenor of the article from which the following extract has been translated:

"If Filipinas shall attain independence at the end of a heroic and desperate struggle, can it be certain that England, Germany, France, or even Holland will not venture to seize what Spain has not been able to hold? Africa for some years will absorb the entire attention of Europe. There is no sensible nation which, for a paltry handful of poor but war-inured islands, will turn its attention away from the immense tracts of virgin territory, unexploited and undefended, to which the Dark Continent invites it.

"England has colonies enough in the Orient, and is not going to run the risk of losing her balance; she is not going to risk her possession of India for the poor Philippine archipelago. Had she cherished such a purpose she would never have withdrawn from Manila in 1763. She would have kept a post in the islands from which gradually to have extended her domain. Besides, why does the great merchant John Bull need to concern himself about Filipinas, for Filipinas is not the mistress of the Orient, while there are Singapore, Hong Kong, Shanghai, etc.? Probably England will look with kindly eyes upon the independence of Filipinas, which would throw open its ports and give her commerce free trade. And, further, there are tendencies and opinions in the United Kingdom which hold that it possesses already too many foreign colonies, and that they only injure and weaken the mother country.

"For like reasons Germany will not take the risk. The inequality of her strength and a war in foreign lands would endanger her existence on the Continent. So we see that her activity, in the Pacific as well as in Africa, is limited to conquering *easy territory that does not belong to anybody.* Germany is keeping out of every external complication.

"France has enough to do in Tonkin and China, and looks for her future there. Besides, the French spirit displays little love of colonization. France loves glory, but the glory and the laurels that spring from European battle-fields. The echo from the battle-fields of the extreme Orient does not satisfy her craving; it is too much dulled by distance. France, moreover, has other business to attend to, not only within her own bounds, but on the Continent.

"Holland is sensible. She will be content to hold the Moluccas and Java. Sumatra holds out to her a brighter prospect than Filipinas, whose seas and coasts are not propitious to Dutch expeditions. Holland is proceeding with a good deal of caution in Sumatra and Borneo for fear of losing them.

"China will consider herself happy enough if she succeeds in maintaining her unity and escaping dismemberment at the hands of the European Powers that are colonizing the Asiatic Continent.

"The same is true of Japan. She has at the north Russia watching her with covetous eye, and at the south England, whose tongue she has adopted as her official language. And she is under such diplomatic pressure from Europe that she cannot think of the exterior until she has freed herself from it. She has an excess of population, it is true, but is more drawn to Korea than to Filipinas; and, besides, Korea is more easy to take.

"Perhaps the great American Republic, which has interests in the Pacific and does not share in the spoils of Africa, may some day think of ultramarine possessions. This is not impossible, since example is contagious, and greed and ambition are vices of the strong. Harrison has already manifested something of the spirit in the Samoan affair. But the Panama Canal is not yet opened, and the territory within the States is not yet thickly settled. And even though the United States should openly attempt the conquest of Filipinas, the Powers of Europe would interfere; for they know very well that the appetite for conquest is excited by the first mouthful. North America would be too troublesome a rival if once it should begin the practice of colonization and conquest. It is, furthermore, against its traditions."

Very respectfully,

M. F. STEELE.

ANGEL ISLAND, CAL., March 12, 1902.

* Rizal, Del Pilar, Murgas and other Filipino writers almost invariably wrote *Filipinas* instead of *Las Filipinas*, and treated the word as a singular noun, thus, "Filipinas *es* mi patria," like, "the United States *is* my country."

KHAKI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: British Jingoes want to put Boers to death for wearing khaki, which they say is the British uniform. The Boer, I take it, in his present condition, wears the captured clothes of his enemy, not for the purpose of treachery, but because he has no clothes left of his own. Such an appropriation of the clothes of the enemy was, I believe, not deemed a breach of the laws of war before the Hague Conference; and from the Hague Conference, the Transvaal republic, at the instance of the British Government, was excluded.

However, khaki is not the British uniform. The British uniform is red, except for the artillery and one regiment of Horse Guards, the uniform of which is blue. Khaki is worn, not for the purpose of distinction, but for that of safety, as least presenting a mark for rifles; and its use, like that of defensive armor, must be open to all the world.

EQUITY.

March 18, 1902.

THE ETYMOLOGY OF "RATLINGS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In this part of the country the name "ratlings" (sometimes spelled "rattlings") is given to kindling that has been cut into strips about four feet long and tied up in bundles. I have never heard the word used in connection with any other kind of kindling. The etymology seems to be obscure. Is it perhaps related to the nautical term *ratlines* and its variants *ratlins*, *ratlings*, and *rattlings?* I conjecture, though, that it may be akin to M. E. *rattes*, rags, M. E. *ratten*, to tear, Icel. *hrat*, *hrati*, rubbish, trash, Norw. *rat*, rubbish (cp. *ratgods*, refuse goods), Sw., Norw. *rata*, to reject, refuse, Eng. *rate*, to refuse, find fault with.

CHARLES BUNDY WILSON.

IOWA CITY, IOWA, March 15, 1902.

Notes.

The Société des Bibliophiles Français, founded in 1820, is about to publish an account of "quite a family" of manuscripts of St. Augustine's 'City of God,' illuminated by artists of the middle and end of the fifteenth century. This important work, which will make its appearance towards the close of the present year, will be illustrated by numerous reproductions from the manuscripts in question, which are found some in the National Library in Paris, some in the libraries of La Haye, Nantes, Mâcon, etc. The Society's home is at Paris, No. 21 Rue Cambon.

The Grafton Press announces 'The Official Golf Guide and Annual, for 1902,' com-

piled and edited by W. G. van Tassel Sutphen.

'What's What, at Home and Abroad,' is a pocket handy-book for the housewife, the sportsman, and the man of affairs, about to be published by the Bradley-White Co. of this city.

Infallibly recurring annuals are Dr. W. J. Rolfe's compact 'Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe,' of which the thirty-first issue (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is enlivened by prefatory allusions to antiquated misinformation in rival guides; and that most useful and painstaking "Year-book of Philanthropy," 'Burdett's Hospitals and Charities' for 1902 (London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners), of which the index fills 55 triple-columned pages. Novel is "a carefully selected list of sanatoria for the open-air treatment of tuberculosis." The editor is able to congratulate himself on the enforced adoption of his uniform system of accounts by the hospitals and public institutions of Queensland. There is nothing to compare with this combined register, comment, and statistics for the whole world's charity to man.

The Dent-Macmillan reissue of Thackeray's Prose Works, edited by Walter Jerrold and illustrated by Charles E. Brock, proceeds with 'Pendennis' in three volumes and 'Barry Lyndon' in one. These are soberly attired in olive cloth, with clear, if condensed, letterpress. Laurence's portrait of Thackeray, now in the National Gallery, which FitzGerald considered the most faithful presentment for posterity, is the leading frontispiece. The others are part of Mr. Brock's clever series, which are partly let into the text, partly occupy a full page, often in red chalk. Mr. Jerrold's function is bibliographical, and is modestly discharged.

It is fourteen years since we had the pleasure of praising Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites's 'Down Historic Waterways: Six Hundred Miles of Canoeing upon Illinois and Wisconsin Rivers' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). In bringing out a new edition, with some pruning and some rearrangement, the author is able to justify himself by saying that, for all practical purposes, the "waterways" are unchanged since he made his entertaining record of their attractions for the canoeist. Hence the little volume remains a faithful guide. He has much enhanced its worth to the general reader by eight full-page photographic illustrations of scenery along the course. The view of the junction of the Wisconsin River with the Mississippi is one of the most striking.

The Merrymount Press has been called in to the making of John Lane's delectable little reprint of Bacon's essay 'Of Gardens.' Mr. Edmund New, who designs the pleasing cover, also attempts a bird's-eye view of the garden recommended by Bacon—"best to be Square; Incompassed, on all the Foure Sides, with a Stately Arched Hedge," with its "Greene in the Entrance; A Heath or Desart in the Going forth; and the Maine Garden in the midst," "a Faire Mount, with three Ascents," alleys, living fountains, and flowers or greenery for every season.

In 'Lilies for English Gardens,' by Gertrude Jekyll (Scribners), we find a great deal of well-arranged information in regard to this attractive group of plants. The illustrations are all of a high order of excellence, and the information is trustworthy. With some important modifications here and there, the directions for cultivating the better sorts answer pretty well for our more exacting climate, while the hints for grouping need absolutely no change. It is very pleasant to observe that the later photographs of flowers in most of the leading horticultural publications have been so successful in expressing "color values." It is to be hoped that the old style of dead flatness in photographs of flowers will never be brought back. In the present work, color values are well given. To all amateur cultivators of lilies this book by a "working amateur for thirty years" can be heartily commended.

The fourth and closing volume of Professor Bailey's 'Cyclopædia of American Horticulture' (Macmillan) follows out the lines judiciously laid down at the outset of the great undertaking. The editorial skill shown throughout the work is very marked, and the editors are to be sincerely congratulated upon the coöperation which they have received from their contributors and from the printers. The patience of the editors and of the printers must have been severely tried by some of the engravings, a few of which are wholly unworthy of the work. The printing of this volume is distinctly better than that of the first. It is pleasant to learn that Professor Bailey suggests the publication each year of a supplemental pamphlet, of about a hundred pages, uniform with the page of the Cyclopædia. From the preface we are told that the manuscript of the first supplement, comprising a key to all the families and genera mentioned in the Cyclopædia, has been prepared. The second, devoted to the Bibliography of American Horticulture, is also ready. These supplements are "not definitely promised, but they will be made if there is sufficient demand for them." Certainly the demand should be imperative.

Old associations would prompt to gentle treatment, if that were in any way possible, of the many-editioned Eadie's 'Biblical Cyclopædia.' Its old-fashioned picturesqueness of expression and illustration survives in its new form (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), but its old-fashioned attitudes survive as well. Yet it has been "revised throughout," so the phrase runs. As revisers are named Sayce, Tristram, W. M. Ramsay, Vernon Bartlet, Pinches, and Redpath. These must pass on from one to the other the responsibility for the present very strange product. In geography, natural history, Oriental customs, and non-dangerous subjects generally they have produced quite bright and telling little articles. The archæological elements are also fairly good, though of the happy-go-lucky type familiar to us in Professor Sayce's books. But critical and contentious matter is sternly ruled out. Such statements of date, authorship and purpose, of history and interpretation, as are made, are of a frankly antediluvian character. It is all a great pity, for 'Eadie' had many excellent features, but the way is still clear for a good one-volume dictionary of the Bible.

Dr. G. Woosung Wade's 'Old Testament History' is a very solid little book of nearly 550 pages (Dutton & Co.). It does not claim originality, and certainly has none, but follows diligently in the footsteps of the "authorities," while keeping as close to the Biblical "Authority" as is fairly possible. Contentious matter is dropped to small type, where it at least looks less. The book is usefully arranged (chapters on history and religion alternating with one another), is full and clear, and will probably be of assistance to less advanced students, who will hardly find it light reading. More cannot be said for it.

We commend for very interesting reading Prof. S. B. Christy's biographical notice of the late Prof. Joseph Le Conte, read before the American Institute of Mining Engineers in November last, and published in its Transactions as well as in a Bulletin of the University of California's Department of Mining and Metallurgy, with a portrait. Prof. Christy had the privilege of perusing the autobiography left behind by his subject, which covers nearly 600 closely written pages, and which he pronounces fascinating. Its publication may be looked for. The brochure closes with a list of Prof. Le Conte's writings.

The most interesting, though not the most important, of the Consular Reports for March are those treating of new fields for American trade. A consulate was opened a year ago at Harput for the two Turkish provinces from which comes four-fifths of the emigration from Asia Minor to the United States. Nearly every family has a member or relative here, and their annual remittances have reached half a million dollars. At present the amount is about $200,000. A year's experience leads the consul to believe that there is a profitable market especially for agricultural implements and sewing-machines. Of these, 332 have been sold by one agency in fifteen months. The chief export to the United States was sausage-casings. In Siam, a country which has a most promising future, our trade increased last year more than 72 per cent., double that of any other nation, notwithstanding the fact that "there has not been a vessel of any description flying the United States flag in this port [Bangkok] since 1896." Among other subjects of interest touched upon are the economic conditions in Great Britain, and the unfavorable influence of trade-unionism on the workman, and the methods by which the sugar-producers' and refiners' syndicate maintain high prices in Germany. Ordinary white lump sugar costs to-day in Berlin, writes our consul-general, "nearly three times what is charged for the same grade of German-made sugar in London, and this at a moment when Germany has just harvested the largest beet-sugar crop in her history, and when industrial depression and diminished wages render high prices for any food material especially burdensome to the people."

The conviction, on the part of the Prussian Government, that the efficiency of judicial and administrative officers nowadays involves at least some insight into technical questions, must be the cause of the recent appointment of two members of the faculty of the Technical High School to simultaneous professorships at the University of Berlin, where Professor Slaby will henceforth lecture on electrotechnics, and Prof. Eugene Meyer on mechanical technics and technical physics. For mathematical and scientific students in the University this new departure means an extension of university work into the field of applied

science, a movement begun at Göttingen a few years ago.

Professor Seybold, who is preparing a new catalogue of the Oriental department of the University library of Tübingen, has discovered what the *Vossische-Zeitung* declares to be the earliest manuscript of the 'Thousand and One Nights' in existence, being fully five hundred years old. It contains, besides many variants, one story found in no other copy of this collection. Professor Seybold has also discovered another valuable novelty in the shape of a Druse manuscript, giving full details of the peculiar teachings and tenets of that strange sect in the Lebanon district. These finds are both to be published.

The Italian Ministry announces that the commission appointed by the Government for the purpose of publishing the Pandects of Justinian will, in the near future, issue a photographic reproduction of the famous Codex Pisanus-Florentinus, under the auspices of the directors of the Laurentian Library. The codex covers 1,844 pages, which the introduction will swell to some 2,000 pages. The work is to be completed within three years, a fascicule of 200 plates appearing every three months. The work is being done by the firm of Danesi in Rome. Of the hundred numbered copies, only seventy are to be open to the book trade. The subscription price is 800 lire.

The libraries of Rome have recently been increased by an interesting collection, secured through the exertions of that champion globe-trotter, Giovanni Vigua del Ferro, who, in 1898, accompanied the Italian expedition to China in the official capacity of an interpreter, and, at the conflagration of the imperial palace in Pekin, managed to save a large part of the library. A catalogue is in preparation.

The first call for the twelfth International Congress of Orientalists has been issued by the committee, the convention to be held in Hamburg, beginning on the 4th and ending on the 10th of September of the present year. The work will be distributed among nine sections, viz.: (1) Linguistics and General Indo-European Department; (2) India and Irania; (3) Farther India and Oceanica; (4) Central and Eastern Asia; (5) General Semitic Department; (6) Islamic Peoples; (7) Egyptian and African Languages; (8) Intercourse between the Orient and the Occident, in both ancient and modern times; (9) Colonies in the Orient.

Would-be competitors for the Justin Winsor prize of $100, offered by the American Historical Association for the encouragement of historical research, for the year 1902—and they must be "writers who have not yet published any considerable work or obtained an established reputation"—should address Prof. Charles M. Andrews, Bryn Mawr, Pa. The prize has been awarded only three times since 1896.

Mr. William I. Fletcher's Summer School of Library Economy at Amherst enters upon its twelfth year with a six weeks' session, beginning July 7.

—Mr. Worthington C. Ford has royally kept his promise to the subscribers to his publication of the 'Journals of the House of Representatives of his Majesty's Province of the Massachusetts-Bay, 1715' (Boston). A more elegant production is seldom seen; but this is much more than a reprint in the old manner of typography. The gap in the Journals has been filled in, as proposed, with the Minutes of the Council, which reflect the House's action, while the editor himself has supplied an illuminating preface, a list of the members of the House, and an index. In the list of members one is struck with the occurrence of names which are strongly local to this day, as, Winthrop for Boston, Clap for Dorchester, Thaxter for Hingham, Tufts for Medford, Coffin for Nantucket. The main political action of this first year of George the First's reign is divided between the supersession of Gov. Dudley by Gov. Burges and the former's ineffectual efforts to induce the House to substitute taxation for paper money. Among bills considered was one (already) for the preservation of pine trees. In dealing with one of its own members, the House expelled John Randall, member for Rochester, as "a Profane person," who also "stands Convict of Scandalous Immorality." Like some of our latter-day legislators, "he expressed himself unconcern'd to clear his Reputation"; but this was not accepted as a vindication. His constituents, too, were "Reprimanded for their abusing their Privilege, in Electing and Sending a person of such an Ignominious Character to Represent them." Two instances are reported of refugees from the South asking for an abatement of the duty on the black slaves accompanying them; one, "Archibald Stobo, a Minister of the Gospel, lately arriv'd from Carolina, Driven from his Habitation there by the Hostility of the Indians." His importation consisted of eleven negro women and children. Another clergyman, "Joseph Lord, Pastor of the Church at Dorchester, in South Carolina," asks that an Indian girl attending his children may be admitted and remain, "the Law of the Province to the contrary notwithstanding." This was granted, provided she ultimately departed with the family, "and that he do not make Merchandize of her in the mean time."

—Ten years ago, in reviewing Prof. Charles Eliot Norton's translation of the 'Divine Comedy' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), on its first publication, we compared it, passage by passage, with the other English prose versions, and showed that it excelled them all. Now Professor Norton has issued a revised edition of his work, and its superiority over its competitors is still more evident. This revision might almost be called a new translation, so frequently does it vary from the former. Greater accuracy and a smoother reading in English have been Mr. Norton's aim, and he has achieved it by indefatigable industry with the file, and by the application of his very delicate critical sense to the minutest verbal details. Whoever compares the new interpretation with the old will have a rare lesson in Dante exegesis; such a comparison will give, further, an insight into the way in which clear writing, like Mr. Norton's, is perfected. For instance, "The army of Christ, which it had cost so dear to arm afresh, was moving slow, mistrustful, and scattered, behind the standard" (Paradise, xii., 37-39), becomes "The army of Christ, which it cost so dear to arm afresh, was moving behind the standard, slow, mistrustful, and scanty." The improvement is obvious. If we could sum up in a word wherein Mr. Norton excels all other translators of Dante, that word would be fidelity—equal fidelity to the letter and to the spirit of the text. John Carlyle and Dugdale are certainly readable; so is Mr. A. J. Butler in certain passages; so also is Sir Edward Sullivan; but, one and all, they fall short in fidelity. Carlyle, like the Bible translators, sometimes fills out his sentence with italicized words or phrases not in the original, and the texture of his English is not uniformly compact. Dugdale does not always guard against such a phrase as "literary glory" for *La gloria della lingua* (Purg., xi., 98). Butler tends towards the style of the modern sensational novelist, as where he transforms *e scolorocci il viso* into the un-Dantesque "and change the hue of our visages" (Hell, v., 131)! Sullivan, with Celtic audacity, ventures to supply an adjective, or to attach a secondary meaning to Dante's words; thus, where Dante makes Count Ugolino exclaim, "Ahi dura terra, perchè non t'apristi," the Irish baronet makes him address the "*stony-bosomed* earth" (Hell, xxxiii., 66). Cited singly these examples may seem trivial; but they really illustrate temperamental peculiarities which continually crop out to mar the various translations mentioned. From such false notes Mr. Norton's work is free. It should be added, that this new edition not only is set in larger type, but also has many more notes than the earlier, so that it offers the reader unacquainted with the original a brief but sufficient exposition as well as the English text. We can repeat with assurance now the prediction made ten years ago, that Mr. Norton's is destined to be the standard translation in English of the 'Divine Comedy.'

—'Palaces, Prisons, and Resting-Places of Mary, Queen of Scots,' by Mr. Michael Myers Shoemaker (London: H. Virtue & Co.), is a book which makes its chief appeal through the profuseness of its illustrations. In the course of her sad but romantic career, Queen Mary had much to do with three countries, and it was an age which, despite numerous shortcomings in other directions, was marked by the beauty of its domestic architecture. Thus, in following her steps from the moment when she was born at Linlithgow to the moment when she was executed at Fotheringay, we pass through many castles of the later Middle Ages and many châteaux of the Renaissance. Without the aid of illustrations, such an investigation would be edifying only to blind adorers, but when ample material is provided for the comparative study of sixteenth-century castles in France, Scotland, and England, the work in question becomes one of more general interest. Considered merely as a picture-book, this volume deserves some commendation, though it hardly rises to the height of its opportunity. There are eight photogravures of not quite the best quality, twenty-four plate illustrations, and numerous illustrations in the text. The choice of subjects is on the whole good, but in the case of France a better selection might have been made. The châteaux neither of Touraine nor of the Île de France are shown to full advantage, notwithstanding the fact that one or two things, like the façade of Francis I. at Blois and the room in

the Hôtel de Ville at Orléans where Francis II. died, are satisfactorily reproduced. Our one comment upon the text must be that the topographical part of it is decidedly better than the historical. The author disclaims in his preface any intention of writing "another history of Scotland's unfortunate Queen," but this long pilgrimage from place to place involves the constant discussion of historical questions which grow out of her life. Victor Cousin called himself the posthumous lover of Mme. de Longueville. Mr. Shoemaker might be called a posthumous worshipper of Queen Mary. In his last sentences he describes the famous tomb in Westminster Abbey and then says: "We may not follow her into the courts of heaven, so here we must leave her." The same note of rhetorical exaggeration may be detected in almost every page, with the result that however much enthusiasm may be kindled thereby, the interests of history suffer. In appearance this is rather a pretentious work, but, while possessing some good illustrations, it cannot be said to belong to the first class.

—The latest publication (vol. xv.) of the Selden Society ('Select Pleas, Starrs and Other Records from the Rolls of the Exchequer of the Jews, A. D. 1220-1284,' edited by J. M. Rigg) will go far to throw light on the vicissitudes of Jewish life in mediæval England. The explanation of these, when found, is simple enough. The feudal system paid almost no attention to domicile; it founded upon birthright and personal allegiance. Hence the capitulations by which foreigners ruled, and still rule, themselves in the East, and the law courts which the Hanseatic League held in London. Hence, too, the resident alien had no rights but those which self-interest granted and continued to him, and his lack of rights was just as hereditary as the possession of them. The Jews, further, stood outside of international comity, and had no part in the fellowship of the Church; were thus out of law, and mere chattels to be acquired and used by any one. In England, they became a chattel of the King, a perquisite of the Crown like treasure trove. And the Crown found them very useful. Handicrafts and trades were gradually closed against them by the gilds. But Christians could not lend money at interest, while Jews could; usury, therefore, became their profession, and the Crown encouraged them in it. The surplus wealth of the country flowed into their coffers, and was from time to time squeezed thence into the royal treasury. All which the Jews had belonged to the Crown; but their sins, including that of usury, were upon their own heads. Such is the situation developed for us by the documents in the present volume, and by Mr. Rigg's most able introduction. The details, too, are full of interest and surprises. Constitutional agitation went hand in hand with anti-Semitism. The bonds of the Jews were kept for safety in the chapterhouses of cathedrals, and were not very safe even there. Later, the Crown itself took charge of them, as virtually royal property. The word of a Jew stood in law for more than the word of a Christian, but, if he embraced Christianity, all his estate went to the Crown—both for excellent reasons. Mr. Rigg is evidently in doubt on the story of Hugh of Lincoln and on the other charges of ritual murder. He cannot find in them any trace or possibility of a mythical origin, and (if we may read between his cautious remarks) feels that they may have had some basis. One thing in the whole is clear, however inevitable it may have been through the working of fixed causes: England was no better than the other Christian lands in its treatment of the mediæval Jew. For him there was more rest under Islam than in Christendom. So, while there was no Jewish literature in any of the languages of mediæval Europe, there was one, extensive if not artistically great, in Arabic.

—We had occasion some time ago to speak of Miss Neena Hamilton's struggle to get her doctor's degree in Germany. We now have before us her thesis. Few, surely, of such admirable scholarship, ripe tone, and delicate appreciation are presented by women candidates for degrees, or even German professors would prefer them as pupils to all but very few men. Miss Hamilton has treated of the "Adoration of the Magi" in Tuscan painting. She confines herself chiefly to the period between Giotto and Leonardo, but lets us know how this popular theme was treated from the earliest Christian centuries, and does not fail to inform us of the effect Leonardo's composition had upon his contemporaries and followers. In this part of her work Miss Hamilton betrays no less acquaintance with the new æsthetics than with the new connoisseurship. Upon the data furnished by the latter, and with the new standards and new methods of appreciation afforded by the former, she discourses of a single subject of painting, the "Adoration," in a way that gives a penetrating insight into the whole aim and entire significance of Tuscan art. Then she discusses the gradual evolution of the theme from an iconographic point of view. Finally, she speaks of the effect upon this subject of popular fancy and the miracle plays. In all this, Miss Hamilton gives evidence of a breadth of sympathies and of an accuracy of information that many an older student, who has long since won his spurs, might envy. Our one and only fault with her volume is that it is in German. Its full title is 'Die Darstellung der Anbetung der heiligen drei Könige in der toskanischen Malerei von Giotto bis Lionardo' (Strassburg: J. H. Ed. Heitz).

COL. WILLIAM BYRD OF VIRGINIA.

The Writings of "Colonel William Byrd of Westover, in Virginia, Esqr." Edited by John Spencer Bassett. Illustrated. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1901.

While the North American colonies had little that can be properly called literature before the middle of the eighteenth century, those of the South had nothing at all. The reasons lay in the conditions of Southern society. The cultivated class—that is to say, the planters—lived in their own circles, and knew no public beyond that of their neighbors and kinsfolk. Their plantations were, to a large extent, self-supporting; and, their outside dealings being managed by their agents in England, who sold their tobacco, and shipped them such articles as could not be produced on their estates, it was quite possible for a Virginia planter to live in luxury without having had a single business transaction with a fellow-Virginian. Fox-hunting, horse-racing, balls, and occasional visits to the county court or the sessions of Assembly varied the monotony of tobacco-growing.

But we must not think of the planter's life as wholly material. He felt himself, above all, a gentleman. He had had a gentleman's education, which was of itself a kind of patent of nobility. This, if possible, he felt bound to transmit to his sons; and as there were no schools in the colony where it could be had, he sent them to England. This education usually included the study of law, which was held to be eminently the profession of a gentleman, and was sure to be useful, as the Virginians were rather a litigious people. Outside of planting, the law, and public office there was no possible career; army or navy there was none, and the Church had nothing but poverty to offer.

There was also another reason which recommended the study of the law to the Virginia gentleman. These upper families formed a governing caste, so connected by intermarriages as to be almost a clan, and from them came the councillors, the judges, the holders of all Crown offices, the members of the Assembly. The Governor, appointed by the Crown, was an alien. Nearly all political questions hinged on the respective rights of the Crown and of the people; and while the burgesses were supposed to represent the latter, the councillors and office-holders were, theoretically, the advocates of the royal side. In point of fact, however, these felt themselves first of all Virginians, and jealous of any extension of royal prerogative that encroached upon the rights or advantages of their class, which they were prompt to defend, whether at home or before the Privy Council, by arguments founded on English law and precedent.

The educated planter had, of course, his library, as he had his coat of arms. Small though it might be, it was pretty sure to contain 'Hudibras,' Dryden, Pope, Prior, Swift, and Addison, with at least the familiar Latin authors. A gentleman was expected to know some Latin; it belonged to his caste, and drew more sharply the line between him and the small farmer. But there were some who had really fine libraries. That of Col. Byrd at Westover (dispersed in 1778) was probably the largest in the colonies, containing about 4,000 volumes in Greek, Latin, French, and English, and including that priceless MS., the Southampton Papers. Anything like literature, therefore, could arise only in this special caste. But what did arise did not recognize itself as literature. It was not intended for publication (for there were no publishers and no public), but for the family or the social set. It was an eminently gentlemanly accomplishment to be able to write a set of verses in the style (*longo intervallo*) of Pope or Prior, or to turn out an occasional epigram; and copies of such verses were handed about. But of far more value were manuscript memoirs and journals of travels, of which probably a number still exist, and it is greatly to be wished that they might be disinterred and made public.

Of the class of which we have been speaking, one of the most distinguished members was Col. William Byrd of Westover. He sprang of an ancient English family, whose

genealogy is traced, in the work whose title is cited above, from the twelfth century, apparently without that weak link in the seventeenth which is the tender spot in so many stately American pedigrees. His father came to Virginia about 1670, where the social position and influence of his uncle, Thomas Stegg, whose estates he inherited, secured him a footing in the best society. He had mercantile tastes, and, while holding several public offices, carried on a lucrative trade with the Indians. As he grew rich, he caught the land-hunger which was endemic among the planters, and extended his holdings to more than 26,000 acres, fixing his residence at Westover on the north side of James River, where he died in 1704. His wife, Mary Horsemanden, had died in 1699.

William Byrd, his son, and the author of these papers, was born in 1674. His father took great pains with his education, sending him first to a school in England, then for a while to Holland, and finally entering him as a student of law in the Middle Temple in London, where he studied for about five years, when he was called to the bar. In 1696 he returned to Virginia, and at once entered public life as a member of the Assembly. The next year he was again in England, the bearer of an address to the Board of Trade, and while on this mission was chosen the agent of the colony. In London he mingled in the best society, one of his warmest friends being the distinguished Charles Boyle, Bentley's antagonist in a once famous literary war; and through his influence, probably, Byrd was made a Fellow of the Royal Society, to whose transactions he contributed at least one paper. On his father's death, in 1704, Byrd returned to Virginia, and in 1706 married Lucy, the daughter of Gen. Daniel Parke. In 1708 the Queen appointed him a member of the Council of the colony, a position which he held until his death, and he was also made Receiver-General for the Crown.

From the time of Berkeley's fall, the Council had been virtually the Government, and, by a kind of "senatorial courtesy," they winked at each other's irregularities (to use no harsher word) of various kinds, but especially in taking up and laying out lands. Ludwell, for instance, it was alleged, having obtained a grant of 2,000 acres, raised it to 20,000 by adding a cipher, and the Council held their peace. But when the Scotchman Spotswood came out as Governor, he began to look into things, and then a storm broke out. He wrote to England, charging a number of public officers with derelictions, and, among the rest, Byrd, the Receiver-General, for allowing practices by which the Crown suffered heavy losses in revenue. Byrd went to England in 1715 to defend himself and his inculpated friends, and in this he was partly successful. In 1716 his wife died. He returned to Virginia in 1720, and used all his influence to bring about a reconciliation between the Governor and the Council. Shortly after this the Assembly again appointed him as the colony's agent in England, and he returned to London, where he resided till 1726. While in England he married Maria, daughter of Thomas Taylor.

In 1726 Byrd returned to Virginia, and settled down at Westover to the life of a Virginia gentleman. Outside of his duties in the Council, he found many occupations for his active mind. He collected his noble library and a fine gallery of portraits; he kept up an extensive correspondence with London friends; he experimented in agriculture and fruit-growing; he dabbled a little in medicine. Although always embarrassed by debt, still, with the ruling passion of his class, he kept adding to his landed estates, until at his death he owned nearly 180,000 acres in Virginia and North Carolina.

In 1727 he was appointed one of the commissioners on the part of Virginia to settle the long-disputed southern boundary of that colony. This was a pretty arduous piece of work, leading for a great part of the way through a wild, rugged, and in places almost impassable country, much of it morass and dense cane-brakes. The course of the line took them directly through the Dismal Swamp, which it was believed no white man had ever traversed before. The commissioners themselves quailed at its horrors, and left the indomitable surveyors and linemen to struggle amphibiously through. Byrd says of it:

"Since the Surveyors had entered the Dismal, they had laid Eyes on no living Creature: neither Bird nor Beast, Insect nor Reptile came in View. Doubtless, the Eternal Shade that broods over this mighty Bog, and hinders the sun-beams from blessing the Ground, makes it an uncomfortable Habitation for any thing that has life. Not so much as a Zealand Frog cou'd endure so Aguish a Situation.

"It had one Beauty, however, that delighted the Eye, tho' at the Expense of all the other Senses: the Moisture of the Soil preserves a continual Verdure, and makes every Plant an Evergreen, but at the same time the foul Damps ascend without ceasing, corrupt the Air, and render it unfit for Respiration. Not even a Turkey-Buzzard will venture to fly over it, no more than the Italian Vultures will fly over the filthy Lake Avernus, or the Birds in the Holy-Land over the Salt Sea where Sodom and Gomorrah formerly stood.

"In these sad Circumstances, the kindest thing we cou'd do for our Suffering Friends [the surveying party] was to give them a place in the Litany. Our Chaplain, for his Part, did his Office, and rubb'd us up with a Seasonable Sermon. That was quite a new thing to our Brethren of North Carolina, who live in a climate where no clergyman can Breathe, any more than Spiders in Ireland."

Boyd is caustic on the North Carolinians, many of whom, he says, were fugitives from the laws and taxes of Virginia, and lived in this Debatable Land in a state little better than heathenish, though they had grace enough to take advantage of the presence of a chaplain with the commissioners to have their children baptized, so that the progress of the line was marked by a trail of little Christians. Sallow from the pestilent climate, squalid and unkempt, their natural uncomeliness was often aggravated by the loss of the nose, a privation due, in Byrd's opinion, to over-indulgence in fresh pork, and so common in those parts that the absence of the feature was scarcely noticed.

In spite of difficulties the survey was carried on from March 6 to April 8, when further operations were postponed till the fall. On September 21, the work was taken up again, but in two weeks the Carolina commissioners gave up the job, and, protesting against anything that should be done in their absence, returned home. Mr. Fitzwilliam, of the Virginia commission, returned with them; but Byrd and Dandridge made a counter-protest, and carried on the line until they reached the lower ranges of the Blue Ridge, when the approach of winter stopped the work.

In 1732 Byrd made what he calls a "Progress" to the mining country between the Matapony and Rappahannock Rivers, where he, Spotswood, Augustine Washington, and others had important iron-works; and in his diary he notes very interesting particulars about this industry. In the next year he took a journey for the purpose of laying out a tract of 20,000 acres in North Carolina, at the junction of the Dan and Irvine Rivers, which he had bought from the commissioners of that colony, to whom it had been given in pay for their services. The journal of this trip forms part of the present volume.

In 1743 Byrd became President of the Virginia Council, and the next year he died and was buried in his garden at Westover. He left a son and four daughters, who have had numerous descendants. Byrd's culture, polished manners, elegant hospitality, and gayety of conversation made him one of the most respected as well as most popular of Virginia gentlemen. As a writer he is always bright and entertaining. He possessed eminently the art of seeing. He notes everything, and is curious about everything: soils, rocks, animals, plants, customs of the people, nothing seems to escape him. His style is easy and vivacious, spiced here and there with a little waggishness, with perhaps a flavor of his Templar days. The editor's biographical introduction is in all respects admirable, and adds greatly to the value of the work, which, moreover, so far as paper, type, and other external furtherances are concerned, is a noble specimen of book-making.

THE ANTHRACITE COAL INDUSTRY.

The Anthracite Coal Industry: A Study of Economic Conditions, etc. By Peter Roberts, Ph.D. With an introduction by W. G. Sumner, LL.D. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Coal has become the very life-blood of our modern industrialism. Except in the forest itself, wood is used for fuel almost solely as a luxury; for, to generate the same amount of heat as is given off by coal there must be burned, even in the most economical furnace, twice the weight and four times the bulk of wood. Consequently, if wood existed in quantities comparable to coal, its transportation alone would prevent its filling the place in our industrial system of the more condensed fuel. But while all coals, including even peat, possess, compared with wood, this quality of condensation, the variety which exhibits it in the most eminent degree is anthracite; and to this it owes its high pecuniary value and its adaptability to domestic use. In fact, the favor it has found in the household has secured for it its high price, for in the latter half of the past century it has entirely supplanted soft coal, with its dirt and smoke, in the homes of the Northern Atlantic States, and has therefore come literally into personal touch with us. Apart from its scarcity, its geographical and stratigraphical relations have given it peculiar importance in financial and railroad circles; and the same causes have made the anthracite regions the battlefield of the most acute struggles between capital and labor. It is this phase of the anthracite

question which gives it universal popular interest, and it is to this that Dr. Roberts's book is devoted. His facts and conclusions are entitled to consideration, for he states the facts and treats the complicated problems which grow out of them as one who has personal knowledge of the conditions of which he writes. The opening chapters, in which he gives technical details of mines and mining intended to elucidate economical conditions peculiar to them, are probably too abstruse for the lay reader and not sufficiently precise for the professional. Nevertheless, we heartily endorse the recommendation of the work with which Professor Sumner introduces it to the public.

While the soft, bituminous varieties of coal are widely and abundantly distributed over our continent, the hard, anthracite varieties have been found in workable quantities and of sufficient purity to be of value in few, very restricted localities. The same is true of the relative abundance of the two varieties in Europe. Great Britain possesses but one, very limited, area of anthracite. It is in Wales, and is too small to supply domestic fuel, even if the predilection of the people for an open flaming fire did not induce them to prefer soft coal, in spite of the smoke nuisance. To the British navy, however, the smokeless flame of anthracite makes it peculiarly valuable. East of the Mississippi it occurs only in northeastern Pennsylvania, where the coal from the northern or Wyoming, the middle or Lehigh, and southern or Schuylkill basins underlies some 500 square miles of the country between Susquehanna and Dauphin Counties. Unlike the beds of bituminous coal, which in the Appalachian field usually lie flat, and can therefore be cheaply mined and drained by tunnels, and which, being soft, can be broken down by hand or cut by machinery without the use of powder, the anthracite beds are steeply tilted, and can be worked in depth only by shafts, vertical or inclined, some already from 1,500 to 2,000 feet in depth. And the coal itself is so hard, and often so tightly glued to the shales between which it is bedded, that blasting must be resorted to in disengaging it. There are collieries from which two tons of rock and ten tons of water are raised 1,500 feet for every ton of clean coal sent to market. The cost of mining anthracite is therefore much greater than that of mining bituminous coal, and its scarcity gives it in the ground a much greater value.

As a result, the royalties paid to the owners of anthracite lands per ton of coal extracted are on an average from thirty to forty cents per ton, as against ten to twelve cents paid for bituminous coal. Considering the growing demand for anthracite and the comparatively limited supply in the ground, the royalties are perhaps legitimate, on the general principle that every man is entitled to take all he can get for his commodities; but they are certainly high if compared with the proportion distributed to wages paid out of the total paid for the product. And the same is true of the transportation charges. Our author attempts to distribute the cost at tide-water as follows:

Cost of production per ton, including mining, breaking, and loading on cars	$1.56
Transportation to tide-water	1.50
Total	$3.06
Price at tide water	3.75
Profit of operator by difference	$0.69

As the transportation companies own most of the coal lands and leases, they absorb, not only the transportation charges, but most of the operator's profits; and, therefore, of the assumed total of $3.75 their share is approximately $2.19. Hence the discontent and strikes and hardly suppressed lawlessness among the mining population of the region, which, rightly or wrongly, conceives that an unfair distribution is made of the proceeds of the coal between capital and labor.

Railroad companies are everywhere regarded by the wage-workers as one of the most objectionable developments of capital, while a group (and still more a close combination) of railroads owning coal, and engaged in mining as well as transporting it, is suspected of embodying the concentrated essence of capitalistic knavery and tyranny. This combination of functions has gradually, sometimes unwillingly, been assumed by the railroad companies. They entered the anthracite coal fields originally as carriers, but were almost compelled, in order to keep competitors out of their sphere of operations, to buy most of the lands or mines which alone supplied the freight; for the area is so small, and several of the competing companies so powerful and aggressive, that nothing but possession would have given protection. The security of ownership was, however, secured in some cases at too great a cost. The Philadelphia & Reading Railroad and Coal & Iron Company paid such excessive prices that the weight of debt incurred by the purchase by the Coal and Iron Company wrecked the railroad company, its guarantors. Possession once secured by powerful and wealthy corporations, competition in production became acute. To restrain this within bounds, agreement after agreement was made and broken by the companies. These agreements assigned to each company a proportion of the total output of coal, assumed to be sufficient to meet the requirements of the market. But the temptation to transgress the agreed-upon limits of freight having again and again proved too strong for resistance, Mr. J. P. Morgan has effected a combination of the coal-owning and carrying roads, under a syndicate agreement which it is believed will insure absolute unity of action by these great corporations, and prevent the individual operators from breaking the harmony. Thus the only supply of domestic anthracite upon which the country east of the Rocky Mountains depends is substantially now controlled by a united ownership.

Never has a syndicate possessed a better opportunity of proving that the benefits accruing from consolidation can be demonstrated in practice as well as in theory and on paper; that, by lopping off unnecessary administration expenses and by balancing supply and demand, a stable and at the same time lower price can be secured to the public; and that, by the employment of unlimited capital and the introduction of better machinery and better methods of mining, both cost and coal may be saved. Above all, as the stress of competition is now removed, and the only restraint on price is the limit the public will pay for coal, the syndicate, after allowing the railroad fair freight rates, can afford to pay its miners liberal wages, and relieve the country from the risks of ever-recurring strikes in the anthracite regions.

These risks are great, for the miners and workmen are chiefly aliens. Ever since the seventies, immigrants from Central Europe have been replacing American labor, till now men of fifteen or sixteen nationalities are represented in the coal regions, and the hard work of the mines is almost exclusively performed by men and boys, many of whom cannot speak or understand English. Strange to say, they are eager to join the Union, and ready to strike and submit to the consequences; but, as might be expected, they exercise less self-restraint, and show less respect for the non-union workmen than does the American unionist—and therein lies the danger. It must be admitted that an equitable adjustment of wages is very difficult. As long as mine work is done by contract, at so much per car or ton of clean coal, the respective skill of the miner, the vein in which he works, the varying quality of the coal in the same vein, all determine the net amount the miner may receive for his work. But the chief complaint is due to a cause difficult of removal, namely, intermittent employment, arising from the intermittent demand for the coal. Were anthracite used as widely as soft coal for manufacturing and metallurgical purposes, the monthly demand would be practically uniform; but, being a domestic coal, less is used in summer than in winter, more is called for in the autumn months, when families are laying in their year's supply, than even in the depth of winter; and much more is consumed in a severe than in a mild season. Dr. Roberts considers that if this element of periodicity could be eliminated, 30,000 of the men and boys in the anthracite regions could be dispensed with, and the remaining 110,000 be regularly employed at remunerative wages. As it is, the men and boys employed underground and at the breakers, where the coal is crushed and sorted into marketable sizes, average only 180 days of work a year; and perilous and hard as is their labor, it is rewarded by a wage of only $33 to $37 per month for underground, and $25 per month for outside hands. The only remedy for this intermittent employment would be the carrying by the syndicate of stocks sufficient to meet the excessive monthly demands at the season when they run above the normal average. This done, and steady employment secured to a smaller number of operatives, the surplus population would drift elsewhere, and a great source of danger to the country would be averted.

Anthracite is a costly fuel, and will continue to be so. The visible supply of coal which can probably ever be mined at a profit is under five billion tons; and as this is being burned in our stoves and furnaces at the rate of fifty million tons a year, the supply will be exhausted in less than 100 years. The cost of mining will increase with depth; but, on the other hand, improved methods of mining and better machinery for breaking and sorting coal at the surface are steadily decreasing the waste of this precious fuel. Till recently not more than 40 per cent. of the coal in the vein actually reached the market. The life of the mines being comparatively short, the capital involved must be returned, with the heavy interest which the risk of mining

reasonably entitles it to, within a limited time; therefore, there is less probability of reduction in the cost of production than investors in other industrial enterprises can flatter themselves with. The cost of anthracite must, therefore, remain high. But it is not so secure from replacement by a substitute as to permit of the price being forced above a reasonable figure. Though every housewife who has used clean, smokeless, free-burning hard coal would revolt against soft coal, with its dust and smoke and tendency to agglomerate in the fireplace, she would not refuse to use gas or good hard coke. Hence in one or other of these forms of fuel the present syndicate, or any other combination of capital which might be formed to control the output and regulate the price of anthracite, will meet with an article which as a substitute will keep the price of anthracite within bounds, and which, when the latter becomes scarce, will supply its place.

More Letters of Edward FitzGerald. [Edited by William Aldis Wright.] Macmillan. 1901.

The same "Old Fitz" here, and yet in wonderful freshness and variety. Take this nosegay from the very first letter (to W. F. Pollock, 1839): "I have also heard Thackeray speak well of him [Grammont]; but he is naturally prejudiced in favor of the dirty and immoral." "Walpole, I suppose, wrote easily; but then it is not easy to have such a head as would write so easily. Q. E. D." "He [Alfieri] was such a fellow for Liberty, too; he calls Catherine II. *codesta Clitennestra filosofessa*, which words have the whistling of the lash about them, I think." On another side, view his droll solicitude for the "distressed Widows" in his poultry-yard. He is writing to Herman Biddell (1867), in a series of letters that do much to lend novelty to the present collection:

"You gave me hopes of finding a Chanticleer to replace that aged fellow you saw in my Domains. . . . I will not hold out for the identical plumage—worthy of an Archangel—I only stipulate for one of the sort: such as are seen in old Story books; and on Church-vanes; with a plume of Tail, a lofty Crest and Walk, and a shrill trumpet-note of Challenge: any splendid colors; black and red; black and gold; white, and red, and Gold! Only so as he be 'gay,' according to old Suffolk speech."

And next year he is still waiting "for an old-fashioned, Aesop-fable fellow."

There are two letters to George Borrow that should be remarked; and among the few glimpses we get of Mrs. FitzGerald we find her in correspondence with Mrs. Borrow. There are five letters to Professor Goodwin of Harvard, in one of which (1882), "I was told of Mr. Longfellow's Death, and understand the sorrow you must feel for the loss of so amiable a Man"; a significant omission of any praise of the poet. Lowell comes in again for much comment as a poet whose verse somehow fails to interest, and as a prose-writer chargeable with the sin of fine writing, yet, in FitzGerald's opinion, "altogether the best Critic we have; something of what Ste.-Beuve is in French," but with "not nearly so much Delicacy of Perception, or Refinement of Style." In 1880, "I have only heard of Lowell that he had nursed his Wife night and day: which Mrs. Kemble also says is usual with American husbands." Lowell's humor seems to have made no impression on this kindred jester.

The closest affection is unquestionably shown in the numerous letters to Frederick Tennyson, along with the greatest frankness of family literary judgment—concerning Charles Tennyson's sonnets, and concerning Alfred's decadence since 1842, *e. g.* (1850): "Alfred has also published his Elegiacs on A. Hallam; these sell greatly; and will, I fear, raise a host of Elegiac scribblers"; and again (1874): "But I think he had better have done singing; he has sung well—*tempus silere*, etc." In fact, this note of regret over Alfred seldom ceases in these pages (ill-health, matrimony, and Mrs. Tennyson's nature are partly held responsible for the falling-off, but also over-production). Witness these extracts, first from a letter to Pollock (1842):

"Is Alfred in town still? I have got his books. It is a pity he did not publish the new volume separately. The other will drag it down. And why reprint the Merman, the Mermaid, and those everlasting Eleanores, Isabels,—which always were, and are, and must be, a nuisance, though Mrs. Butler (who recognized herself in the portrait of course) said that Eleanore (what a bore) was the finest thing he ever wrote. She has sat for it ever since, I believe. Every woman thinks herself the original of one of that stupid Gallery of Beauties. The sonnet to J. M. K. also remains; there's a beauty, too."

Again to Pollock (1869):

"I found the new Idylls on the Lowestoft Bookstall; but I can get no more interested in them than in any of their Predecessors; except the old Morte D'Arthur. . . . The whole Legend, and its parts, appear to me scarce fitted to interest any but the childlike readers of old knightly days whom they were intended to amuse, I suppose; not, in the main, *very* much beyond Jack the Giant-killer, etc., and I think such Stories are best told in the old, simple English of the Romance itself. When elaborated into refined modern verse, the 'opus' and the 'materia' seem to me disproportioned."

And to E. B. Cowell (1882): "I wish nevertheless that A. T. would not have tried the Stage, even if he persists in trying other modes of Publication." There is, in a letter to the present editor, reference to an "annotated Tennyson" which Old Fitz has placed in Mr. Wright's keeping, and fears lest it may get out in his own lifetime; the liberties apparently having been "only to *cut out*—never to add or alter." It would be a pity if this should never see the light. A great pity it certainly is that his undertaking to cut Richardson was frustrated by inadequate abridgments by other hands. To W. E. Crowfoot (1865):

"I suppose you never read that *aggravating* Book, Clarissa Harlowe? Now, with a pair of Scissors, I *could* make that a readable Book: and being a perfectly *original Work of Genius*, I should like to do that Service to my Country before I die. But I should only be abused, and unsold for my pains."

We resist the temptation to cite further examples of FitzGerald's literary criticism, with which this volume is studded, but must be permitted three illustrations of his independence. He would not, in 1850, subscribe for a monument to "Daddy Wordsworth," as "I am against stuffing Westminster Abbey with any one's statue till a hundred years or so have proved whether Posterity is as warm about a Man's Merits as we are." For the same reason, in 1864, he would not give to a memorial of Thackeray in the same place. In 1869 he declined to be a party to a portrait of Lord Hatherley "on coming to be Chancellor." "First, he may make a bad Chancellor, however good a Man and able a Lawyer. Secondly, he mayn't keep in office a year, however good a Chancellor he may be." This caution was so well justified as to be prophetic; in 1872 he writes: "The *Times* and *Daily News* have each Articles to repudiate the Chancellor's Reported Retirement; both in terms which make me suppose it is true." In fact, Lord Hatherley proved anything but a successful Chancellor, and made way at that date for Roundell Palmer.

We conclude with some irresistible references (in these Galluping cipher times) to Spedding and his finished (1874) "forty years' task—'In Whitewashendo Bacone.'" "I used to tell Spedding that Polonius was meant for Lord Bacon; but I doubt the Dates won't bear me out." And: "Pray look at a beautiful little Comment by Spedding on a passage in Shakspere in the last number of *Notes and Queries*, April 18, [1874]. Oh! that he had given to Shakspere a tithe of the time he has given to Bacon!"

Life of Sir William Wilson Hunter, K.C.S.I., M.A., LL.D. By F. H. Skrine, F.S.S. Longmans, Green & Co.

It is given to few men to begin a history when nearly sixty, and have the world feel that the premature ending of such a belated work is really a great calamity. Sir William Hunter's name is less well known here than in England, partly because much of his influence was personal, and partly because the special topics treated by him in popular lectures have little interest for Americans. But his 'Gazetteer' at least has made his name familiar, and even the general historical student may perhaps know that Hunter's unexpected death, two years ago, cut short the most important history of India yet planned or published. The ripened fruit of many years' toil was to have been harvested in these volumes, of which only one was completed.

The present Life is too bulky for the general reader, and contains much, notably in family correspondence, that will appeal but slightly to those who know Hunter only as a writer; but it gives some insight into modern political life in India, and shows admirably not only what Hunter was, but what he had to contend with in rounding up the wide-strewn mass of information contained in the many volumes that bear his name. His biographer is sympathetic and judicious in the use of the material put at his disposal.

Personally, Sir William was a delightful character. Shrewd and agreeable, he won a host of friends, and was always a favorite at any gathering. To this side of his character Mr. Skrine has paid tribute in many appreciative paragraphs, and evidently did not intend to say (on p. 171) that Hunter "made it a rule to requite good with evil" (*sic*); though when Sir William got the upper hand (he seems to have been the victim of a good deal of political jealousy), he was not quite saintly in his feelings, being not at all averse to "paying back." The Life has a number of good anecdotes. One of these is of a college Don, who had several unmarried daughters. "At

least," said a friend, to whom he had complained of the burden, "they are great resources for your old age." "True," replied the Don, "but I should like to husband my resources." In 1888 Hunter wrote to Kipling: "Your mother sent me a poem from your hand with a request to obtain a place for it in a magazine. But the poem has been returned to me. . . . It is, I think, to be regretted that you devote to clever trifles of this sort talents which are capable of better things. They practically fix your standard as that of the gymkhana and mess-room."

Curiously enough, Hunter himself fixed his own standard lower than his real worth, wasting much time on popular work. But strictly speaking he was not a scholar at all. He was a man of affairs, more or less of a politician, and his ambition from the first was to become a statesman rather than an historian. Even his literary ambition was rather to be a pleasing writer than a profound scholar. His first essays were poetical; his first prose efforts were in descriptive writing. The 'Annals of Rural Bengal' and the 'Old Missionary' show his bent, and even the dry pages of the 'Gazetteer' were not allowed to be merely statistical. He endeavored to make literature out of chronicles without sacrificing the exactness of the chronicles. It was almost an accident that led him into the compilation of that great storehouse of knowledge known as the 'Imperial Gazetteer'; and his 'Brief History of the Indian People' was undertaken solely at the request of the Madras Government. The work he delighted in was almost journalistic; much of it was journalism pure and simple. The fact is, he frittered away a great deal of his life in ephemeral work over which he groaned perfunctorily, but to which he gave so much attention as to prevent more important undertakings. A man of inexhaustible energy, he seemed never to know when he had enough to do. He could always contract to write a few editorials or dash off a public lecture, as if time and strength had no limit. One feels in reading his life that his wonderful executive power and limitless capacity for work, instead of aiding him, hindered the development of his best faculties. He was too much a man of the world to be a scholar, too energetic to be confined to one object. He had to have a dozen things on hand at once, and the result was that the most important thing was left to the last and was never done at all.

Hunter's specialty was political history based on a first-hand knowledge of India, and the province in which he was pre-eminently master was the period of British rule. All that goes before this in his 'Brief History' is simply "read up," not from original texts, but from the works of European scholars, so carelessly that a citation on one page will contradict that on another, without his seeming to be aware of it. But, once within his own field, he handles the subject with such ease and beauty (one is tempted to say) that his greater 'History' promised to be an enduring literary monument, as well as a valuable historical work. By that one volume he will live. The rest will remain only for a time. There may be something lasting in the charm of the 'Annals' and the quaint picture of the 'Missionary,' but that on which he spent his best years will pass away, as must all statistical surveys. Had he lived ten years longer he would have become the Gibbon of India. As it is, he has left a magnificent torso, and lived the hurried life of the ready writer and successful man of action, fond of fast horses, popular applause, and a good berth; winning all these and almost winning more, the satisfaction of having accomplished to the full the abiding results for which his ability and opportunities so nobly fitted him.

Eugene Field: A Study in Heredity and Contradictions. By Slason Thompson. With portraits, views, and facsimile illustrations. In two volumes. Pp. xiii, 346, 349. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Mr. Thompson's book is more contradictory than Field's life and character, as he has presented them to us. He writes as from a great affection for his friend, and in his more general expressions he habitually writes him up, while in his particular statements he quite as habitually writes him down. There must be wasp-bread somewhere as well as bee-bread, and Mr. Thompson has got upon the track of it (as Froude in his 'Carlyle,' Purcell in his 'Manning,' Lamon in his 'Lincoln,' and, very recently, Henley, writing of Stevenson), and made a meal of it. His view of Field may be just, but his book is distinctly a depreciation. Many hundreds of those who have known Field only in his more deliberate work, when they put down this book will wish they had never taken it up. They had fondly imagined that Field was at least predominantly a sentimental humorist, most kindly and sincere, and they find, Thompson *judice*, that he was predominantly a mountebank; a practical joker, as he was nothing else. Not but that there are general expressions highly favorable to Field's ultimate significance, but they are so outweighed by the mass of derogatory and injurious particulars that they make no adequate impression. Nearly all of Mr. Thompson's facts may have gone through the form of taking place, but the proportion is not duly observed between these and Field's best work. The mass of the former was, doubtless, much greater than that of the latter, but its final significance was much less. Worst of all is Mr. Thompson's confession that his book would never have been written if Field had been merely the literary workman, and his proposition that the essential man was not the higher workman, but the lower clown. That a humorist of Field's qualities should be taken seriously is, of course, a paradox; but that Mr. Thompson ought to have conceived his book, as a whole, in a more serious spirit does not, we think, admit of any doubt.

Field's mother died when he was six years old, and he was sent with his brother to relatives in Amherst, Mass., for a course of New England training. In 1868, after three years at Monson with a good Mr. Tufts, who experienced the proverbial difficulty in making his pupil drink the water to which he had been led, the boy went to Williams College, where he seems to have left fainter traces than the afterward famous generally do in their first haunts. But he had only six months in which to make an indelible impression. Permitted to retreat in good order, he resumed his studies and his pranks at Monson, till in July, 1869, his father's fatal illness called him to St. Louis. Later, he made trial of two Western colleges with no creditable result. Mr. Thompson's pages reveal nothing pleasanter in Field's life than his affectionate loyalty to Mr. Melvin L. Gray, the executor of his father's estate.

Upon coming of age, his next move, after seeking in marriage a bright girl of fourteen, was to take her brother to Europe "to spend six months and his patrimony"—actually $8,000, about one-third of the whole, the other two-thirds melting rapidly. Returning penniless to St. Louis, he hastened to get married, and made no mistake in that particular. When he began to have earnings, the wife took charge of them, having direct relations with his employers. But these relations were not of so binding a nature but that the week's payment generally came to the wife five or ten dollars short. Ten was the limit at which Field's conscience or affection interposed. Mr. Thompson has a recurrent fondness for this aspect of Field's character. He revels in his impecuniosity, and in his humorous artifices for compelling one or another friend to pay for what he ate and drank. Mr. Thompson was oftener than any one else the victim of these inventions.

Mr. Thompson represents the hobble-dehoy period of Field's life as ending with his Denver editing, but in fact it ended only with his life. His work grew more serious in its thought and style, and he came to have a very real conscience for it, writing some of his things over many times—one of them seven; to its hurt, says his biographer. But if his work grew more serious, so did not his impish mischievousness. He was that insufferable creature, the practical joker, in its most aggravated form. Sometimes the joke was very simple—the invitation to sit in a bottomless chair; sometimes very daring—like the impersonation of Carl Schurz in broken English to an expectant audience; sometimes very elaborate. A favorite freak was to invent children for people who had none, and another to ascribe his own poems to wholly innocent persons. Again, he would insinuate doubts as to the authorship of this or that writer's favorite poem, and carry on a fictitious correspondence of opposition and defence for weeks and months together.

The chapter on "Personal Characteristics" gives an account of Field's office habits that could not be excelled for illustrations of irresponsible indifference to others' need of quietness and peace. His "Relations with Stage Folk" reveal him as an inveterate theatre-goer, on the best of terms with the stage people. Less to his credit is a political chapter. His paper was Mugwump, but so was not he. He was a Republican by inheritance, without personal conviction. Having saved the Government, he thought the Republicans had a right to use or abuse it without let or hindrance from anybody.

> "We'll run the country as we please—
> We saved it, and it's ours"

—which meant that it was theirs for all the purposes of party patronage. At the same time, he had the keenest eye for political humbug and pretence; and Republican leaders, McKinley with the rest, often felt the sting of his long-lashed whip, fresh-braided every day.

Mr. Thompson has no more interesting chapter than that upon Field's "Auto-

Analysis," a mixture of truth and fiction so strange that it is hard to rightly separate the two. The biographer's cruellest insinuation is that Field's "I do not love all children" was at once the truest and the least credited item. He says that he loved his own children passionately, but cared for others more as subjects of deliberate study than as objects of personal sympathy. And he makes this damning accusation, which we trust some one will hasten to rebut: "This man . . . took almost as much delight in making a child cry, that he might study its face in dismay or fright, as in making it laugh." To believe this would be for thousands an immense deduction from their satisfaction in "Little Boy Blue" and the child-sweet companions of that pathetic poem. Mr. Thompson should have hesitated long before infecting with a taint of unreality that element in the work of Eugene Field which has most endeared him to his fellow-beings.

Kate Bonnet. By Frank R. Stockton. D. Appleton & Co.

Policeman Flynn. By Elliott Flower. The Century Company.

For all of us who know our Stockton by and with heart, the greatest surprises of his new book are afforded by its comparative absence of surprises. The familiarly incalculable is present in his themes, to be sure. A farmer turned pirate is a figure that could have occurred to no one else except perhaps Gilbert. A real pirate, Blackbird, ruler of the seas, commanding a Scotch Presbyterian to convert him, Blackbird—"has got the swing," as Corporal Brewster would say. This, too, almost sings itself to Sullivan music. There is instant appeal, besides, to the Stockton sixth sense in the sea-chase of many vessels after each other over the high seas, decorous gentlemen figuring as forced accomplices of those who are "'pied with crime." Real fighting and gore that is no sham are certainly genuine innovations. But that the expected should ever happen in the world of Stockton is the most unexpected thing in the world. To say more would be telling. This latest phase of his pleasantry may lead the literary controversialists of the future, when the Shakspere-Bacon question shall have been laid to rest, to squabble over the problem whether Weyman, Churchill, Jacob Abbott, and Stockton were one or more.

It is perhaps safe to say that if Dooley had never written, neither would 'Policeman Flynn.' The Irish-American dialect is reproduced by both in the same peculiar way. The rough good sense tinctured with wit is of the same kind, if not of equal rank. What is pure philosophy with Dooley takes a practical turn with the man who earns his steplivelihood as a policeman. Here are two specimen gems from Officer Flynn's treasure-box: "Why don't they wor-rk f'r a livin' instead iv wor-rkin' f'r a job?" "If ivir I had th' ma-akin' iv th' la-aw, I'd ha-ave first iv all in th' big book a sintince r-readin' like this: 'Th' la-aws herein mane what they mane, an' not what they sa-ay.'"

Printing and Writing Materials and their Evolution.—Proof-Reading and Punctuation. By Adèle Millicent Smith. Two volumes. Philadelphia: Drexel Institute. 1902.

Printing is no more the mysterious art it seemed to be in the middle of the fifteenth century. Its elementary principles are fairly understood by intelligent readers, to whom its ordinary practice seems the simplest of mechanical crafts—cannot any school-boy put types together in readable order, and stamp paper on inked letters by the help of a press? It is this belief that creates the growing class of amateur printers, which includes men of the highest culture as well as schoolboys; but not much experience is needed by the amateur to prove that printing is also one of the difficult arts. To make a worthy book, much must be added to the mechanical dexterity which is hoped to come after persistent practice. Especially should the amateur, and the apprentice, too, know how books have been made by the qualified craftsmen of all periods. He must know something about the manufacture of paper and ink, about the construction of presses, about electrotyping and photo-engraving, about different methods of binding books. "To read and to write may come by nature," but the production of a well-made book cannot be evolved from one's interior consciousness. The apprentice and the amateur need a teacher. He is badly taught who teaches himself.

The books whose titles are cited above contain information about details of bookmaking not to be found in the ordinary manuals of printing, and not easily gleaned from or digested after a reading of bulky encyclopædias. No subject is exhaustively treated, but the suggestions conveyed will be found more practically useful by reason of their succinctness. The chapters on punctuation and proof-reading will be of service to experienced compositors, who may, nevertheless, in a few instances dissent from the applicability of the teachings to all kinds of printed work. In the preparation of the matter contained in these books, the author specifies the names of experts of authority who have given her guidance and counsel on technical matters.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A. P. H. X. Y. Z. of Wall Street. Stuyvesant Book Co.
Babcock, M. D. Letters from Egypt and Palestine. Scribners. $1.
Baily, R. C. Mabel Thornley. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Baldwin, J. M. Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development. Macmillan. $2.60.
Benson, E. W. Addresses on the Acts of the Apostles. Macmillan.
Blaisdell, Mary F., and Etta A. The Child Life Fifth Reader. Macmillan.
Blauvelt, Mary T. The Development of Cabinet Government in England. Macmillan. $1.50.
Brandt, M. von. Dreiunddreissig Jahre in Ost-Asien. Band 3. Leipzig: Georg Wigand.
Bridges, Robert. Bramble Brae. Scribners. $1.25.
Brinkley, F. Japan: Its History, Arts, and Literature. 4 vols. (Oriental Series.) Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
Burdett, Henry. Burdett's Hospitals and Charities, 1902. London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Burgess, J. W. Reconstruction and the Constitution, 1866-1876. Scribners. $1.
Carey, Wymond. Monsieur Martin: A Romance of the Great Swedish War. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
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The Week.

It is a gratifying announcement that the island of Cuba is really to be turned over to President Palma on May 20, and that all the United States troops except some 800 will be on their way home by that date. As far back as last autumn, Secretary Root declared that the island would be evacuated in May if the Cubans themselves should not cause unnecessary delays, and he has kept his word, despite the discouraging attitude of Congress. That the insular government which will take over the administration of Cuba from Gen. Wood will by no means be the free and independent one for which the Cubans fought so long, is unfortunately true. The Platt amendment has tied its hands in more than one respect, and there are apparently to be small permanent garrisons of Americans in the various naval stations ceded, under pressure, to the United States. Congress itself, by its timidity before the beet-sugar interests, and its failure to give prompt aid to the struggling islanders, may yet compel President Palma's Administration to take office with the economic ruin of the island staring it in the face. Since its first problem may be that of preventing wholesale starvation among the population, the new Government, however it may be formed, is hardly to be congratulated in this respect upon the opportunity before it.

President Roosevelt's message on Cuba might have had a sharper sting in its tail. He rather meekly says that there must be "wise and beneficent legislation to stimulate the commerce between the two countries" if our task is to be "fittingly accomplished." That is pitched in a much lower tone than the recommendations he made last December. It may signify that he is simply displaying the wisdom of the serpent, in not exasperating by more pungent language the hesitant Republicans whose votes he is trying to win by party blandishments; but he must be aware that some of the rebellious Congressmen may take his tame appendix as merely the harmlessness of the dove. If they do, they will work harder than ever to defeat all legislation in aid of Cuba. They will, of course, vote to establish the diplomatic offices which the President urges. The last man of them will rally for an appropriation of that kind, and each Congressman will have at least three candidates for every one of the offices created. The real difficulty is to induce them to enable the Cubans to trade with us and make an honest living. After more than three months of backing and filling on this subject, it is still doubtful if Congress will do anything at all; and we think the President might well have taken advantage of his message on Thursday to state the urgency of the situation and the duty of the hour in telling phrase. The vague and perfunctory words he used represent an opportunity lost. If he was to say anything at all, there should have been an explicit utterance that would bite itself into the consciousness of Congress and the country.

Senator Hanna is now openly before the public as the champion of the convicted Director-General of Posts, and is avowedly working hard to save him from a Cuban prison. It is evident that there are close personal relations between the two men. The United States Senator, it seems, is genuinely convinced that Gen. Wood "ordered" the Cuban court to convict Rathbone, and that in the face of Secretary Root's "probable" belief in Rathbone's innocence! Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Bristow "put up the whole job" on poor Rathbone, merely to spite his political rival, the immaculate Mr. Perry Heath. It follows from this that Assistant Inspector-General Burton of the army, Gen. Wood, and a host of other officials and expert accountants in and out of Cuba, were in the conspiracy to trap this honest gentleman from Ohio, whose weakness was merely a desire to spend Government money freely for the benefit of the service. Senator Hanna's eagerness to lay bare the scandal is touching to behold, though it is not true, as reported, that he seeks a law giving an "American" trial to Rathbone.

In the bill creating a civil government for the Philippine Islands is a provision for the unlimited coinage of silver dollars. Added to this is an authorization of coinage of these dollars at the mint of San Francisco, with a proviso that the silver so coined shall be of American production. This is a measure of "protection" for the owners of silver mines that was never put into any bill for the free coinage of silver in our own country. This clause ought to be stricken out for very shame. It looks for all the world like a measure to tax the Filipinos for the benefit of Americans, and, if passed, will be taken as a precedent for countless other schemes to exploit the island for the profit of particular classes and individuals in this country. As a matter of fact, however, the owners of our silver mines will get no benefit from it at all, although they will get plenty of reproaches for it. We are a silver-exporting country, and we cannot get more than the London price for any part of our product, whether we sell it to the Filipinos for coinage or to the European manufacturers of spoons and forks. Therefore the only effect of this clause in the bill is to bring reproach upon us and to furnish a bad precedent. The House of Representatives ought to reject the silver coinage scheme *in toto*, but especially should it strike out this ill-omened provision for the compulsory use of the product of American silver mines.

The question what kind of money we shall sanction in the Philippines ought to be determined in harmony with the world's progress, and not in conflict with it—that is, in favor of the gold standard A few years ago, Japan was confronted with the same question. She had nominally the double standard, but actually the single silver standard. In order to keep pace with civilized nations, she found it necessary to adopt the gold standard. The market ratio between silver and gold at the time when she decided to take this step was 32 to 1. She accordingly decreed that the gold yen should bear that relation to the silver yen as to past contracts, and that, for the future, gold should be coined in unlimited quantities for private individuals, but that silver should be coined only on Government account. The plan was carried out successfully, and no harm was done to anybody. The experience of India is no less useful as a guide. That country has passed successfully from the single silver standard to the single gold standard by taking as a basis and point of departure the actual market value of the two metals at the time when the change was decided upon—16 pence per rupee. The coinage of rupees was prohibited except on Government account, the English sovereign was made legal tender in India at that ratio, and gold coinage for private persons was authorized at the Indian mints in unlimited amounts. There is no occasion for a special coinage for the Philippine Islands. A special silver coinage would be a step backward. It would be an injury in the long run to the Filipinos, and would tend to a recrudescence of silverism in the United States.

The doughty Funston has already fallen into the customary trouble of talking generals, and attempts to extricate himself in the customary way of his kind—that is, by asserting that the reporter lied. That the swaggering words attributed to Funston in the Topeka *Capital's* interview were actually uttered by him, there is no reason to doubt. They were in perfect keeping with his

character. But when President Roosevelt sent him a sharp telegram, asking him if he had been correctly quoted—that is, if he had really said that the President had approved his swashbuckling speech at the Lotos Club, and had asked him to repeat it in Boston—the mighty man of valor took refuge behind the anonymous reporter. He never said it. Certainly not; and as long as Gen. Funston's standard of morality is simply the articles of war, and he cares not for the rules of conduct becoming an officer and a gentleman, he will doubtless escape without a reprimand. He has had his warning, however. So has the President, who will know how to deal with the second offence of a warrior who slays the enemy with his mouth.

It would be unfair to Gen. Miles, in criticising his foolish plan for settling the war in the Philippines, to overlook his humane motives. He was evidently moved by a genuine desire to remove the stigma from the army which the continued allegations of cruelty have put upon it, reinforced as they are by the horrible testimony now being given in the Waller case. He was also influenced by the hope of ending a war which has cost thousands of American lives, and necessitated the employment of 120,000 troops. But the fact remains that the methods Gen. Miles would have employed were childish in the extreme. They should make clear to the public the reasons why one Democratic President and two of his Republican successors have found it impossible to get on with him, and why the best interests of the service demand his immediate retirement. Take the history of the China expedition, for instance. No capable general would have advocated the withdrawal of 15,000 men at a time when MacArthur found 73,000 too few. Yet the Lieutenant-General Commanding was willing to do this in the face of MacArthur's protests, and without personal knowledge of the Philippine situation, for the sole reason that his vanity might be flattered by his appointment as generalissimo of the allied forces in China. No one can read his latest proposal without seeing that he is now a dangerously unsound adviser to President or Secretary of War.

The real place to look for the effect of the resignation of Commissioner Evans is the Grand-Army and pension-shark clique that has been hounding him for years because he has been an honest Commissioner. They are undisguisedly elated that they have worried out of the inflexible Roosevelt what they could not drive the gracious McKinley into doing for them. There we have the true measure of the misfortune which has befallen the public service. The President distinctly says that he is to have another office as a reward for his "excellent service." Then why not insist upon his keeping on in that excellent service? Why invite the struggle all over again with a new Commissioner, in whose appointment and administration the pension cormorants will see their great opportunity? With Mr. Evans in office, the fight was won; with his successor, it must be begun over. The enemies of decent administration of the Pension Office do not care two straws whether Mr. Evans is "promoted" or not; all they wanted was to get him out of his present office, and that they have now accomplished. Of course, if Mr. Evans had grown faint in the fight, or if his health made his resignation imperative, there was no help for it, but it is evident from his published explanation that he would have remained in office if the President had insisted upon it. "My incumbency," he said, "has begun to embarrass public officials and statesmen." How embarrass them? By performing the "excellent service" to which President Roosevelt testifies? Everybody knows that the embarrassment came solely in consequence of the remonstrances and threats of pension-beggars and pension-peddlers. There can be no doubt that the President has made his task of preserving the Pension Office from these raiders doubly and unnecessarily hard.

By the choice of James R. Garfield as Civil-Service Commissioner, to succeed that absurd McKinley left-over, Rodenburg, President Roosevelt has both strengthened the Commission and given fresh earnest of his determination to have a pure and vigorous enforcement of the civil-service laws. Mr. Garfield is highly esteemed by those who know him, for his quiet strength of mind and character; and made a fine reputation for himself as State Senator in Ohio. At Columbus, during his term of office, he was the resolute advocate of good government and the unsparing enemy of trimmers and tricksters. Through his efforts the Garfield Corrupt Practices Act was put on the statute-book, though it proved such a thorn in the flesh of the spoilsmen that they have since repealed it. This necessarily drew attention to him as a champion of purity in the public service, and his willingness now to leave his law practice and go to Washington as Civil-Service Commissioner argues an intention to devote his energies to the cause which he has at heart as truly as the President. Mr. Roosevelt has been fortunate in getting rid, thus early, of the milk-and-water Civil-Service Commissioners whom President McKinley kept for the amusement of the politicians.

It is the expectation in Washington that Congress will adjourn early in June, leaving in suspense as many controverted questions as possible. Among these will be the Ship Subsidy Bill, the Isthmian Canal Bill, all bills relating to the currency, and all relating to the tariff and reciprocity, except the Cuban bill, of which the fate is still in doubt. The Republican leaders are looking forward to the autumn elections with much trepidation. They are charged with a heavy backload of Trusts and combines, some of which Chairman Babcock is trying to curtail, while others President Roosevelt and Attorney-General Knox are trying to cast off. They have a Philippine policy which they do not boast of so proudly as they did two years ago. And as for their ship-subsidy scheme, they speak of it only in whispers; yet if it is a proper measure, it should be passed now. If it is an improper one, it should be rejected now. The party should have the courage of its convictions, and take all the risks involved in any policy which it believes to be right—like this of ordering donations from the national Treasury to private enterprises, whether they are already prosperous or not. The Democrats, on the other hand, are preparing to go to the country with a platform of liberty and independence for all foreign peoples who desire it, and to whom we can lawfully give it, and of opposition to subsidies and monopolies of every kind. On the whole, they have a fair chance of winning a majority of the next House, though it must not be forgotten that, under the new census, there will be twenty-nine more members in it than in the present one.

Mr. Morgan's extremely interesting testimony on March 26 in the Northern Pacific suit throws further light on some disputed points of the remarkable episode of last May. It will be recalled that Mr. Schiff and Mr. Steele set forth, on Monday week, that the Union Pacific interests had applied for a share in control of the Burlington purchase, and had been refused; that J. P. Morgan & Co. supposed themselves to control the Northern Pacific, until they discovered that some of their associates had been selling; and that the house of Morgan individually bought in the open market, between May 1 and May 7, 1901, $15,000,000 of Northern Pacific stock. The two last-mentioned statements Mr. Morgan confirmed; adding that, on learning that the Union Pacific people claimed control, he had personally directed his firm to buy 150,000 shares of the common stock in the open market. This was done, Mr. Morgan testifies, because the firm felt itself morally responsible to the shareholders who had previously bought on its initiative. The average cost of this stock to the house of Morgan appears to have been 115, at which price it was subsequently turned over to the Northern Securities. That price was 29 per cent. above the highest of 1900, though, of course, much lower than what other buy-

ers paid, a day or two later, in the corner. Of the stock issued by the Securities Company on this exchange, the house, it was testified, now holds 110,000 to 120,000 shares. This, it may be observed, amounts to barely 3 per cent. of the Northern Securities' capital.

Mr. Morgan testified that the plan which eventually led to the Burlington purchase was conceived two years ago. The idea of joint purchase by the Northern Pacific and Great Northern appears to have been Mr. Morgan's own. Mr. Morgan wished to buy the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul for the Chicago outlet, but, after negotiation, was unable to make the bargain. This, of course, explains the 40-point rise in St. Paul shares in the early months of 1901. It was Mr. Hill, according to Mr. Morgan, who wished to buy the Burlington, and who personally carried through the "deal." But Mr. Morgan also admitted that he had himself approved the plan to pay $200 per share for the Burlington stock. It could not, he explains, have been bought at any lower figure. It should be recalled, in this connection, that 144 was the highest price of Burlington prior to the period of the "deals." The security-holding plan, it now appears, had previously been conceived by Mr. Morgan himself for Northern Pacific shares, and by Mr. Hill for the Great Northern. The Northern Securities plan was a combination of the two.

The chief point of interest in the most recent developments regarding the Asphalt Trust's affairs is not the fact that the company is badly insolvent today, but that, apparently, it was never solvent. The cold and unfeeling report by the Audit Company, after examining the books, indicates this with entire distinctness. The National Trust really began business in October, 1900, when it absorbed the Asphalt Company of America, much in the fashion of the more recent "stock-holding companies." It issued bonds for the paid-up stock of this junior company, and assumed that concern's $30,000,000 fixed liabilities. This represented an annual fixed charge of $1,800,000, against which the company is now shown to have earned but $371,000 net in 1901, and, of course, less in 1900. The plea of the old management that its Venezuela experiment was costly, and that one subsidiary concern was a total failure, does not help matters. The truth appears to be that even if the company had not sunk the half-million dollars accounted for by these two enterprises, it would still have earned last year less than half of its fixed charges. Moreover, it may properly be asked how long it is since a company's creditors have accepted outright blunders in management as a valid excuse for bankruptcy.

It would be a pity if the National Civic Federation, with its Committee on Conciliation, should be taken advantage of by labor leaders, yet there are some indications that it is exposed to such a danger. Strikes seem in some cases to have been precipitated in the belief that the workingmen had found a new ally against the employers. Some of the moves in the threatened strike of anthracite coal miners look as if demands were made a little more exigent, or even unreasonable, in the feeling that the Civic Federation was bound to step in to reinforce the claims of the miners, or at least to prevent any great harm coming from an ill-judged strike. It is probable that the settlement of the Dayton strike, through the good offices of the Federation, with the result of "unionizing" the works there, has had the effect of making labor organizations believe that the Committee on Conciliation would always side with a trade union in a controversy. This is unfortunate. The remedy, however, is clear. It must be made certain by the wise and firm action of the Federation that its great aim is neither to bolster up nor to destroy labor unions, but simply to work for industrial peace through the cultivation of the spirit of fairness and forbearance on the part of both men and masters.

Nothing could be fairer than the settlement of the Delaware Senatorial deadlock which several prominent Republicans have offered to the Addicks faction. The proposal is, in a word, that each faction shall offer a list of ten names from which the other division of the party is to select its candidate. Naturally, the list accompanying the letter of the regular Republican State Committee does not contain the name of Addicks. There is no likelihood that he will consent to be shelved in this way, and it is only too probable that the personal ambition of a single politician of the baser sort will still deprive the State of Delaware of its voice in the Senate. Even if Mr. Addicks were a good man, or a great man misunderstood, his subordination of the dignity of his State to his own personal quarrel would be unpardonably offensive. His tools should see, if he cannot, that outraged public opinion may have in store for their leader and themselves a much worse settlement than that which has just been offered.

On January 23, Mayor Low, in replying to Dr. Parkhurst's demand for the enforcement of the Sunday-closing law, stated that "the excise law has been enforced up to the very limit of what is practicable with the means at command." On Sunday forty policemen in one precinct proved how mistaken this statement was by going out in full uniform and making eighteen arrests, as well as by reporting many excise violations in saloons to which they could not obtain entrance. Whatever may be the Mayor's attitude hereafter, it is now impossible for him or for his Police Commissioner to maintain that the Department is really exercising all its great powers to enforce that law. Nor will the old excuse, that concentrating attention upon that one will lead to the neglect of the "other mandates of the Legislature," do service on any future occasion. Those forty patrolmen had been forced by their superiors into living a "plain, unvarnished lie." Encouraged to permit violations of the law, and at the same time compelled to sign written statements that they were ignorant of any such violations on their respective beats, these men declined to carry on this farce any longer when it appeared that they might become the victims of an unrelenting District Attorney. What is to be the attitude of the Mayor and Col. Partridge now? Manifestly, they cannot punish these men for having conspired to do their whole duty, despite the opposition of superior officers, for they must know that, if the entire force were actuated by this spirit, there would be a wonderful change over night in the number of excise violations. The city is shocked at the revelations of the last few days in regard to the openness with which gambling is going on under a reform Mayor. But why should any one expect a patrolman to enforce the anti-gambling laws and not the Sunday-closing statute? The issue is momentous for Mayor Low, and is not to be glossed over.

Dr. Morrison, the Peking correspondent of the London *Times*, reports that the preliminary arrangements for the evacuation of Mantchuria have been completed, and that Russia will abandon successively the three provinces now in her control in six, twelve, and eighteen months. Such action would meet perfectly the most extreme demands of the Powers, and would remove a possible cause of friction with the Anglo-Japanese alliance. That Russia has given up her ulterior designs upon Mantchuria nobody will believe. To withdraw the garrisons temporarily may be chiefly a measure of economy and convenience. Holding Port Arthur and the railroad approaches, and leaving the memory of her Cossacks everywhere in the region, Russia can withdraw the troops without sacrificing her moral claim or her influence. The process of Russification will meanwhile go on in commercial ways, and the final absorption of Mantchuria may, barring accident, come about in the most peaceful manner. There is no insinuation of *Slavica fides* when we say that Russia will evacuate Mantchuria quite as a lumberman leaves a woodlot which he has "blazed" for the winter chopping.

THE REVIVING OPPOSITION.

The first duty of an Opposition is to oppose. To watch and criticise and expose the proceedings of a Government is the main task of the party out of power. That this has not been well done by the Democratic Opposition for the past four years, has been one of the calamities of our party situation; that the Democrats in the present Congress have begun to see the indispensableness of it, is one of the signs of promise on the political horizon. It shows that we are at last shaking off the incubus of war.

War always demoralizes the Opposition in a country where party government exists with a parliamentary system. To criticise is "unpatriotic," in a state of war, and to oppose is treason. War simply Orientalizes politics, substituting the will of the commander-in-chief for the free voice of the people. There is a story of an Oriental potentate who determined to set up a Parliament on the approved European model. He had representatives gathered together in a great hall of his palace, and he or his viziers explained to them the advantages of Parliamentary government, and said, "It will all be arranged; one side will sit with the Government on the Government side, and the other will sit on the Opposition side." Thereupon the members broke silence and demanded with one voice which was the Government side, and, on being shown it, they threw themselves in a hurry on the benches of the Government. That is practically what has become of the English Opposition during the Boer war, and it is substantially what has happened to the Democratic Opposition since our war with Spain. But there is cheering evidence that the long lethargy is breaking up, and that we are getting again at Washington a party of alert criticism, swift to discover the joints in the harness of the Government, quick to take advantage of tactical or political mistakes by the party in power, and ready to discharge the public duty of letting the country know what its rulers are doing. The debates on the Philippine bills and the discussion of the Cuban bill, thus far, indicate a decided revivification of an American Opposition.

The party in Opposition has, however, a second duty fully as important as that of keeping sleepless watch upon the party in power and subjecting all its measures to the most searching criticism. It must also endeavor, as Mr. Asquith recently said of English Liberalism, to "convince and, if it can, to convert the judgment of the country." That is, it must offer both men and measures as alternative to those of the party carrying on the Government. It must show that it has an administrative and political programme of its own. Leaders are, of course, the first requisite. The process of ousting a Government is practically that of gaining the confidence of the electorate, and confidence is a thing won by and given to men, not measures. However disgusted the voters may become with the leaders of the Government, they will take a good look at the leaders of the Opposition before deciding to substitute them for the others. It would not be strange, indeed, if the Democrats should think that all that is necessary to do is to let Payne and Henderson, Hanna and Frye, have rope enough to hang both themselves and their party. These skilled architects of Republican disaster are, in truth, doing splendid work for the Democracy. But it still remains the fact that a party cannot get into power purely on the blunders of its opponents. It must have orators and leaders of its own to persuade the country that a change of personnel would improve the Government.

In this particular, the Democracy has undeniably been and still is weak. At the time of the break-up of English parties a half-century ago, it was said that the Whigs were a set of statesmen without a party, while the Tories were a fine party without statesmen. The latter plight has been, and remains to an unfortunate extent, that of the Democratic party. It is a party in search of a leader. He has not yet been found, but at least the process of getting rid of the blind party leaders of the blind is going on hopefully. The retirement of Senator Jones, which seems to be assured as a result of the Arkansas Senatorial primaries, could not easily lead to the promotion of a more unfit Chairman of the National Democratic Committee. He can be spared to great advantage, and it is certain that repudiation by his own State would be the end of him politically. The younger and more aggressive Senators of his party have grown very weary of his masterly inefficiency. One of them recently asked a Southern Senator whose wit yet gleams out in the midst of bodily decay, if he did not think that Jones was about the biggest humbug that the South had ever sent to the Senate. "Well, I am bound to tell you," was the reply, "that I am very strongly committed myself to Morgan!"

Although no strong and inspiring Democratic leader has yet arisen, it must be granted that the work of framing an alternative governmental programme is, nevertheless, being well done by the Democratic Opposition in Congress. We have before commented upon the constructive proposals for a solution of the Philippine problem which the Democratic Senators have submitted and supported with so great a weight of argument. Monday's proceedings in the Ways and Means Committee show that the Democratic members are equally prepared to construct as well as to criticise, and to offer amendments which will serve the purpose not only of embarrassing the Republicans, but of revealing to the country a more excellent way. Mr. Richardson's motions to amend were exceedingly shrewd. They were all rejected in committee, of course, but they will be urged again on the floor of the House. Then the Republican party will be compelled to go on record either for or against the policy of removing duties on articles made or controlled by a monopoly, as also on commodities which are manufactured in the United States and sold abroad cheaper than at home. It will likewise have to face the separate questions of what to do with the duties on steel products, and also on wood pulp "suitable for or adapted to the manufacture of printing-paper." The newspapers will have something to say to Representative or party that goes wrong on that issue. In any case, all these tokens of a reviving Opposition are most welcome. The Republicans themselves have professed to desire a stronger Opposition for their own good. May they not be disappointed.

GOVERNOR AND LEGISLATURE.

We put the Governor first, in reckoning up the work of the New York Legislature, because he is properly first. Everybody who looks behind legal fictions to the real fact, knows that Gov. Odell is now substantially the Government of this State. Sir Robert Peel once objected in the Commons to being called the Government of Great Britain; he was but the servant of the House, etc. But the retort was made, and it was a fair one, that as long as he acted as though he were the Government, he could not complain of being treated as if he were. Gov. Odell has not only acted as if he were in control of the Legislature; he actually has been. It was clear, for example, that the bill for reorganizing the management of the hospitals for the insane was passed through an unwilling Legislature under orders from the Executive Chamber. This and other incidents of the session made it evident that the Governor is entitled to say, "The Legislature, *c'est moi*."

Of course, he does not say this. Such Louis Quatorze airs would offend our stern republicanism, which clings to the form, even if the substance is gone. But the truth is none the less transparently clear. Gov. Odell both blocked out and determined the main part of the work of the Legislature, so that its effect upon his prestige and prospects is the earliest question which a review of the session raises. And we speak only the opinion of all candid observers when we say that the Governor stands in a somewhat less commanding and enviable position than that he held at the close of the Legislature of 1901. It is not that his power is appreciably shaken—he remains master; but in his mastery he has shown less of his old cool poise. He has been testy at times. He has vacillated in some important matters, and acted as if

he were not sure of his ground; and a few of his pet measures he has had to abandon.

To the Legislature of 1901 the Governor's message was a legislative programme. Scarce a single recommendation of his failed of enactment into law. He burst upon the State, and upon the nation, as a public man of extraordinary powers; and his firm grasp of the business of the State, his resolute economies, his fruitful measures of taxation, gave him a reputation and an authority almost unequalled. This year, however, either his skill or his fortune has failed him somewhat. His proposal of a recording tax for mortgages, with subsequent exemption, was knocked about in the Legislature, battered into unrecognizable shape, and then left to die. Similarly his recommendations of canal legislation miscarried. As for his plans for reorganizing the State charitable institutions, they had partly to be radically remodelled, while those of them that became law did so only after a great amount of friction in the Legislature, and of ill feeling among some of the most philanthropic people in the State. Yet, as it stands, Gov. Odell's achievement this year is remarkable. It suffers only by contrast with his fairly sensational success of a year ago.

A great man's failures have been said to be more instructive than a small man's successes. In that light, there is much to be learned from the limitations which Gov. Odell has exhibited and the mistakes he has made. His proposed mortgage legislation failed for lack of the Governor's having accurately measured rural prejudices on that subject. This is the more surprising as, if there was anything he was supposed to know thoroughly, it was what people "up State" thought. His bills for changing the control of the charitable institutions were not only ill-advised, but badly advocated, and were put through under an unfortunate appearance of compulsion from the Governor's office. In this matter he obviously neglected to ascertain the sentiments of the people most interested in the care of the State's dependent population. The result was indignation on their part which a Governor as skilful as Mr. Odell was thought to be, should have known how to avoid exciting. His canal legislation fell helplessly between two stools, in a way reflecting little credit on either Governor or Legislature.

As we have said, with all abatements made, the net result of the legislative session is commendable. There have been no scandals. The Governor has worked in harmony with Mayor Low as regards all bills affecting the city's interests. So far as we know, there has been no unwise charter-tinkering or interference with municipal home rule. Neither Gov. Odell nor the Legislature would lift a finger to help the city to a better excise law; but as our municipal Administration does not appear to know its own mind on that subject, we do not perceive that the Albany authorities can be greatly blamed for inaction. In purely State affairs, on the other hand, the Legislature has lived up very closely to Gov. Odell's programme of economy and reduced taxation. By holding down appropriations, and finding new sources of income, the State tax has been cut down to the lowest figure in our history. When we add that the session was the shortest for more than a hundred years, we see how true it is that the New York Democrats will need to deserve to succeed by the excellence of their candidates and the sincerity of their professions, if they are to have any hope of dislodging the Republican party next fall, after so creditable a legislative and executive performance.

CONTROL OF "HALF BILLION" CORPORATIONS.

Mr. J. P. Morgan's view of the practical working of a $400,000,000 corporation, as set forth in his testimony on Wednesday week, merits the widest possible discussion. It may be called the authoritative exposition of the purpose underlying the present extensive corporation mergers. In a word, Mr. Morgan holds that stable control is the prime requisite for the welfare of modern corporations; that it can be guaranteed only by fixing the share capital at so large a figure that no outsider can buy up a majority; and that a capital of $400,000,000, such as the Northern Securities possesses, is sufficiently large to insure that result.

These three points suggest in turn three queries, which must be answered before the "security-holding" plan receives unqualified assent. First, is or is not stability of control an advantage in itself? Second, how is beneficent and wise management to be guaranteed by such stability? Third, what proof is there that future "contests for control" will be averted, even with a capital stock of half a billion dollars?

Generally speaking, stable control of a great corporation is an obvious advantage. The shareholder knows, with sufficient accuracy, what is the policy of such a management, and can judge the worth of his investment accordingly. Those railroads whose controlling interest has for many years remained virtually the same, are in most cases classed with the conservative investment properties. If they fail, it is more likely to be due to antiquated methods, or what is popularly called "dry-rot" in management, than to rash experiments or stock-jobbing manipulation. But Mr. Morgan's proposition provides absolutely no remedy for a possibly incompetent or dishonest management. His hypothesis is that no rival interest could, under any circumstances, secure control of a $400,000,000 corporation. This would, of course, exclude an opposition interest bent on beneficent reform. In his testimony, Mr. Morgan referred, very properly, to the work of his firm in establishing sound financial methods, and to the fact that, though it virtually dominates the Northern Securities now, it may at some future period dissolve or withdraw. Who is to guarantee an equally conservative successor? The answer probably would be, that, in so serious a matter, conservatism will govern; and it would, perhaps, permanently prevent accession to control by a band of wreckers. But it cannot guarantee an existing management, or its successor, against mistaken policies. In the corporate history of the past, such errors, if persisted in, excited opposition which, through the banding together of shareholders, ended by ousting the blunderers from control. Apparently, Mr. Morgan's theory would destroy this remedy; for if such a reform movement could gain control of a $400,000,000 corporation, there is surely no guarantee that any rival interest, offering inducements for a change, could not.

This, then, is the dilemma—either the company's shareholders have no real protection against mismanagement, or else the assumption of absolute stability of control is incorrect. Our own feeling is, that the first of the two alternatives is the more formidable. A very little time ago a capital of $90,000,000 seemed as enormous as a capital of $400,000,000 seems to-day—for ideas have expanded in the interval. Every one who has watched industrial finance during the two past years, will recall the peculiar performances of the managers of the $90,000,000 Steel and Wire Trust, and the wholly abortive effort to dislodge them. Yet there is no reason to suppose that they, any more than the present Steel Corporation management, owned an actual majority of the stock. Nor do we have to go back to stock-jobbing boards for examples. The United States Steel Corporation itself has just embarked on a fiscal experiment which a large part of its shareholding constituency disapproves. The substitution of $200,000,000 in bonds for share capital, and the tampering with the fundamental law of New Jersey incorporations to facilitate it, are moves which, in a small corporation, where free discussion had a hearing, might easily have been vetoed.

Let us suppose a management which should go even further in the scheme of piling fixed indebtedness on a corporation's shoulders—what then? The truth is, as it appears to us, that instead of absolute assurance of safety for the future, some of the greatest safeguards with which all corporations have hitherto been surrounded would be found to have been removed. We do not go

into the question whether the public will consent indefinitely to the perpetual control of this mass of capital by people who do not actually own even a majority of it, and who in no real sense represent the body of investors. But the fact is not to be ignored that, with the extinction of private ownership, in the old-fashioned meaning of the term, the plan of Government ownership necessarily gets a lift. Furthermore, it must be recognized that Mr. Morgan's own idea of perpetual control, by a minority interest, of a body of enterprises so vast as presumably to defy competition, does not help matters with the courts. For if this advantage can be attained by a $400,000,000 company better than with one of $50,000,000, then, clearly, a "ten-billion company" will approach still nearer to the ideal. In other words, the query of Mr. Justice Brown, whether the Northern Securities might not eventually own all the railways of the United States, becomes highly pertinent.

These are questions which must be soberly considered by the public, because the problem with which they have to do has only begun to vex us, and if it is to be met by judicial or legislative restraint, no time ought to be lost in setting about it. The "security-holding plan" is believed to avert the financial and industrial chaos of the Gould and Drew "campaigns." To that extent, it marks a real advance in security. But are we, after all, so sure that "contests for control" are past for ever with our mammoth corporations? "What do you think of a four-hundred-million corporation?"—Mr. Morgan is reported to have asked the lawyers, when they insisted on the magnitude of a $10,000,000 "deal." Half a dozen years ago, however, we imagine that any one who had talked in Wall Street of a "contest" in which one American banking house bought $15,000,000 stock in a single week and another $78,000,000—each on its individual account—and in which a $100,000,000 stock was cornered, would have been listened to with either bewilderment or ridicule. What absolute guarantee have we that firms which can raise, on short notice, for a contest for control, nearly a hundred millions capital to-day, may not be able, two or three years hence, to raise two or three hundred millions?

CECIL RHODES AS A TYPE.

In Kinglake's history of the Crimean war, he closes one chapter with an account of the death of Marshal St.-Arnaud. The French commander, with a reputation for cruelty in North Africa and for open political crime in Paris, came to his end with all the consolations of religion about him, and amid sympathetic tributes from the allied nations. Kinglake records all this quietly, and then adds the single mordant sentence, "The manner of man he was, I have before told." Similarly would we now turn aside from the merely personal aspects of the life of Cecil Rhodes. Those we have freely set down and commented upon in his lifetime. The manner of man he was, we have told our readers before. All that remains is to attempt to place him in the age in which he lived; to show how he was a true child of it, typifying some of its largest forces; and thus to essay a little of what Rousseau called the most difficult form of philosophy—the observation of what is going on under our eyes.

Rhodes typifies his time in his calm assumption of the unlimited power of money as such. This was one of his working maxims. To the cynical saying attributed to Walpole, "Every man has his price," Cecil Rhodes made the triumphant addendum, "And I have that price." There has probably not been another case of a man so deliberately seeking wealth as a means of securing political power. For riches merely as a possession, Rhodes seems to have had something like contempt. That was a part of his large-mindedness. Vulgar ostentation of wealth was not for him. He had vast conceptions, mighty ambitions; and "how," he asked, "can you carry out your ideas without money?" So he sought and won his millions. He had no advantage of birth or station. He had to make himself, as the Spaniards say, "a son of his own works," and his first work was the amassing of a glittering fortune. With that as a fulcrum, he believed that he could move the world. And he did, or seemed to. The English world of politics gravitated to him. Dukes competed to be on his directorates. Royalty itself clasped his hand effusively, even when he came to London to stand trial as an international criminal.

Now, in all this, there was nothing peculiar to Rhodes, except as he had peculiar opportunities and a vast field. He was only a man of his day. All the world over, men have been struggling, as he did, and at the same time that he did, for the command of the power which great wealth gives. It is simply the continuing effort to replace the feudal system, the aristocracy of birth and rank, with what we have to call—though the name has bad associations—the plutocracy. The process began long ago. The Fuggers and the De Witts and the Medici showed, hundreds of years ago, the possibilities of a new line of princes—the merchant princes; and their enormous multiplication to-day speaks only of the increased opportunities in the modern world to accumulate great fortunes.

There is surely nothing blameworthy in this *per se*. Power for power, there is as much reason why the man should have it who has carved his way to wealth, as the man whose remote ancestor carved the heads of the Paynim, or who is descended from a king's mistress. The only vital question is whether it is possible to moralize the new plutocracy, so as to make it more efficient than the decadent old aristocracy. That question cannot yet be said to be settled. Many shining examples of the noble use of money make us hopeful that great wealth will come to be associated with *virtus* (not the Machiavellian *virtù*) as well as power. But Mr. Rhodes's case is one of those to make us hesitate, to throw us back upon the conviction that human nature, after all, does not change greatly in the course of the ages, and that a position won by the remorseless manipulation of business or the stock market may be made to serve as bad ends as that of a dictator by grace of the sword. Not even a funeral lauder of Cecil Rhodes can say that he, like the Happy Warrior of Wordsworth,

> "——made his moral being his prime care."

This magnate of South Africa undoubtedly had a large way of looking to the future of that country, just as he had large and fruitful schemes of money-making, but in both it seemed to be the game and not the winnings that most absorbed him. In this, too, his figure is a typical one. The speculative excitement, the gambler's thrill, the interest in the rise and fall of stocks as if they were so many chance-flung or trickily "forced" cards, bringing good or ill luck—this is a well-marked feature of "this thing they call high finance" in our day. It is a deep and complicated play. The Gateses and the Lawsons "plunge" in the market with the same delightful sense of taking great risks that a gambler has in backing his favorite or trying to break the bank. We have recently seen the inherent affinities between Monte Carlo and a billion-dollar Trust. It is often the pleasure of the game, the feverish interest of pursuit, which seems to dominate the large speculators of the time more than any other motive. Rules of the game? Why, the first, last, and only rule is to win. Rhodes appears to have known something of these high excitements of playing the game, with provinces for stakes. He gambled with dignity, and with millions dependent on the fall of the cards, yet he showed the true aleatory instinct so common among the unscrupulous speculators of the day. Lord Rosebery has been said to be, in his Imperialism, only Mr. Chamberlain, *édition de luxe*. In like manner Cecil Rhodes was a sort of Jay Gould, *édition de luxe*.

Nor can we end without remarking how Mr. Rhodes was a faithful reflex of his generation in the fine name which he devised for the rapacity, the cruelty, the disregard of both moral and legal obligations, which his methods involved. He was an "empire-builder." He

worked for the British flag—that "chief commercial asset," as he once called it, in an unconscious revelation of his mind. If he was a true Imperialist, the argument was, that if he was extending the bounds of his country's sway, neither his motives nor his acts must be too closely scrutinized. He could wrest lands from the natives, he could force them into practical slavery, he could march over corpses to his goal—and no questions must be asked if he was, all the while, "pegging out claims for old England." It is not for Americans to condemn in another what they allow in themselves, by throwing a stone at the Englishman who serves to show them the true nature and inevitably hypocrisies of that Imperialism upon which they are to-day invited to enter. From him and his conceptions, now gone to the infallible judgment of history, we turn, for refreshment and reminder, to that saying of another Englishman, John Stuart Mill, which puts the sufficient brand upon all the current excuses of our shamefaced Imperialists: "I am not aware that any community has a right to force another to be civilized."

COLLEGE VACATIONS.

Dr. Charles S. Minot of the Harvard Medical School calls attention, in *Science*, to the notable shortening of the academic working year. He has tabulated the vacation periods of twelve representative universities and of three technical schools, and finds that none of them, except the University of Chicago, are in session for more than two-thirds of the calendar year. Differing considerably in the recess allowed at Christmas and Easter, they all agree in making the working year consist of thirty-five weeks or less. Columbia, for example, is in term for thirty-two working weeks. Johns Hopkins and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology are together at thirty-three; Yale, Brown, Princeton, the University of Michigan, and Cornell practically concur, within a few days, in a year of thirty-four weeks; Harvard is exceptional at thirty-five, while the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute enjoys a solitary distinction at thirty-six. It should be remembered, in considering these statistics, that several days at the beginning of the term are days of grace. Registration is going on, and professors are coming round at their leisure to initial lectures. On the other hand, ceremonial of one kind and another occupies several days after the year's work has been completed, so that we must assume that the working period of an American university is nearer thirty than thirty-three weeks—the apparent average. From these figures, Dr. Minot concludes that "the amount of university vacation is very excessive. . . . With the vacation shortened, it would be easily possible to bring young men into active life a year earlier than is now possible, and that would be an immense gain."

The question is complicated by the fact that two quite distinct classes of students, with possibly different needs, so far as vacations are concerned, are now dealt with as a single class. Graduate students and professors generally need the long vacation, not only for recuperation, but for freer work than is possible in term. The process of preparing candidates for the doctorate is not unlike that by which *foie gras* is brought about in the geese of Strassburg; and the moral relief of an occasional long period, in which the graduate student, with lectures and the routine of his seminar left behind, is free to be his own man, seems almost indispensable. University professors, too, rarely spend the long vacation in idleness. It is their time for travel and for consecutive research, for visiting great libraries and foreign institutions of learning. The proper utilization of this time is the condition of intellectual growth and of enhanced usefulness.

With the undergraduate student, however, the case bears a different aspect. It is doubtful if the really ambitious student wishes to suspend his studies for four months and more every year, and it is questionable whether these long, idle summers are not an excessive luxury even for the average well-groomed, indolent student of our Eastern colleges. Long ago President Thwing found in these long periods of idleness a demoralizing influence which made itself felt throughout the year. It is noteworthy that the German Gymnasia and Realschulen—educational organizations vastly more efficient than the American college—are limited to a total vacation period of ten and a half weeks, of which the long vacation rarely takes more than eight. There is no question that a vacation of this duration is plenty long enough for the average young man of college age.

The obvious reform of reducing the college vacation to two months, and of gaining in all some seven or eight weeks to the working year, is, in spite of its theoretical desirability, almost impracticable. Such an innovation might be attempted at the smaller colleges, which have no graduate department, but here the howl which would arise from the engaging sons of wealthy parents, and the earnest if less vociferous protest of fagged-out professors, may be easily imagined. In many senses the older colleges are becoming a kind of annex to society. The vacations must be compatible with summer flights to Europe, and it is possible that in the future the early salmon fishing and the late trouting may as thoroughly regulate our academic calendars as the shooting does the sessions of the English Parliament.

Quite aside from such considerations, at the universities where graduate, professional, and undergraduate curricula tend more and more to overlap, and the same professor teaches in several schools, any shortening of the vacation period is difficult for administrative reasons. The best interests of the graduate schools require the longer period, and the undergraduate department is simply carried along. It may be said that this confusion of collegiate with university education, which is highly illogical, is also essentially vicious; and many feel that college education in this country needs a thorough reorganization, in which its integrity and historic character shall weigh at least equally with the necessity for preparing students for subsequent professional studies. But such speculations regard a remote future. There is no immediate likelihood that any of the colleges will take the sensible step of lengthening their working year. The colleges which have had the ill fortune to engender a progeny of university departments cannot well do so, for in all such instances university outweigh collegiate interests. The desirable shortening of the educational period, then, will not, for the present at least, come about through lengthening the working year at the colleges. Educators must set themselves to what is, after all, the root of the matter—the improvement of the quality of instruction. More must be put into the college year. This is the true way of saving the student's time, and there would be no gain in adding few or many weeks to a "working year" which for many students is virtually one long vacation.

THE POETIC PLAY IN THE LONDON THEATRE.

LONDON, March, 1902.

To put on the stage of two West End theatres two long plays in verse, by the same author—the one founded on a Greek poem, the other on an Italian—seems, it must be admitted, rather a risky thing to do, now that music halls and light musical comedies are all the vogue. And yet we have Mr. Stephen Phillips's "Ulysses" at Her Majesty's and his "Paolo and Francesca" at the St. James's; and the extraordinary part of it is that both are proving such a success that there is every probability of their running all through the season—the Coronation season. But, remembering "Herod," I was not so sure the risk was as great as it seemed, and my curiosity has carried me to see both plays. What did I find?

Let me explain at once that I have read neither one nor the other. I preferred to judge them entirely as dramas. But, as they have been published and already read by most people, I need not describe the plots in detail. In "Ulysses" Mr. Phillips has taken a few episodes from the Odyssey and strung them together so as to make a play exactly suited to Mr. Tree's requirements. Mr. Tree's talent as actor is for

make-up; as stage-manager, for the sort of Drury Lane effects that force a gasp of astonishment from the audience as the curtain goes up. No one could have catered better to this talent than Mr. Phillips. He shows us the Greek hero first bewitched on the island of Calypso; next—with an intermediate glimpse of Penelope besieged by the suitors—descending into Hades; and last, arriving in rags on the shores of his native Ithaca, and then, in splendid armor, slaying the suitors in the banqueting hall of his own palace. Moreover, Mr. Phillips shows Ulysses as the sport of chance, or, rather, of the gods. The play opens with a prologue on Mount Olympus, where the gods sit in council, and, throughout, Ulysses is but a pawn in the not over capable hands of Pallas Athene.

To crowd the adventures of the Odyssey into three acts, to arrange them so as to suggest any human interest, any revelation of character, any passion, would, perhaps, be an almost superhuman feat. Mr. Phillips, whose chief merit is that he understands his own limitations and makes the most of them, has wisely not attempted the impossible. He has provided Mr. Tree with ample occasion for change of costume and as little necessity for acting; he has been still more lavish in the opportunities offered for ingenious scenery and spectacular splendor. "Herod" was a melodrama; "Ulysses" is a pantomime; there is all the difference. Indeed, when the curtain rose on the Prologue in Olympus, I almost wondered if Mr. Phillips meant the whole thing as a joke, and was not laughing up his sleeve at the simplicity of the public. The gods have replaced the Drury Lane fairies, but otherwise it might be the beginning of the national Christmas entertainment. There they sit in the approved traditional costume, talking in the traditional rhymed couplets of pantomime; Athene comes up through a trap-door, Zeus hurls his thunderbolt, and the electric light flies across the stage. The second scene, on Calypso's Island, is the excuse for a ballet. There is a song to enliven the revels in the palace where Penelope waits and suffers. Hades is pure spectacle, recalling the Brocken scene in Irving's "Faust," but not so well done. At the beginning of the last act there is a little episode that makes one doubt whether, after all, Mr. Phillips did not aim at something more serious than pantomime. Ulysses, on his return, is recognized by the old swineherd, Eumæus, and the part happens to be played by Mr. Lionel Brough, who, though he makes no claim to special distinction, does understand that the business of the actor is to act. But when the swineherd's hut is left for the palace hall, it is spectacle again, and now with a good strong touch of melodrama thrown in.

This, in brief, is the play Mr. Phillips has made of the Odyssey. It is without life, without passion; a dialogue in verses upon which to hang a succession of gorgeous or impressive stage pageants. Mr. Phillips is usually praised, even by his least ardent admirers, for his dramatic construction. But, really, in this case, it is very much the sort of construction Mr. Crummles asked of his authors; only, instead of a pump and wash-tubs, Mr. Tree and his clever scene-painters have to be written around. If the verse were beautiful, the plot would matter less. Everybody has been to the Comédie-Française where the one pleasure was in the actor's musical delivery of musical lines. But what Mr. Phillips's verse is, you have no means of judging at Her Majesty's. The English actor has still to master the most elementary tricks of his trade and to learn how to use his voice. There remains but the spectacle, upon which no trouble has been spared—I have heard even archæologists approve the palace of Ulysses. Mr. Tree knows that spectacle is just what people want, and he gives it without stint.

In "Paolo and Francesca," the subject should allow greater chance of human interest. But, curiously, the result is as lifeless, as emotionless. The wonder is that Mr. Phillips could remain so cold, that he was not stirred, as he wrote, by the story of the lovers whom Dante has made types of youthful passion for all time. But he seems ever the well-trained showman, dangling his puppets, with one eye on the wires, the other on the audience. He has to build up a plot about the scene with the book—the book of Guinevere and Launcelot—that Dante has presented him ready-made. And so, he has introduced the character of Lucrezia, Giovanni's kinswoman, the childless widow, at first hard and bitter in her envy of Francesca, the possible mother of children whose little pattering feet will be heard in the grim castle, and then as fierce in her love when Francesca offers herself as child. He has introduced a "drug-seller" who savors overmuch of the apothecary at Mantua. And he has not read his Maeterlinck in vain. Again and again, as you watch the action, you find yourself thinking with regret of "Pelléas and Mélisande." Altogether, there is a distinct attempt at a plot—at something more than a succession of scenes through which the hero swaggers. But it leaves you as cold as Mr. Phillips himself. You are never carried away; you are as intent upon the wires as the author. There is not a thrill in Lucrezia's lengthy lamentation over her childlessness—you know too well she is there to provide a second good part for the accomplished or popular ladies in Mr. Alexander's company. There is nothing to clutch at your heart-strings in Paolo's visit to the apothecary and his demand for the poison that alone can save him from a love meaning dishonor to his brother. And how appalling is the comic relief, what a false note it strikes, how obviously it is designed to drag out the play to the necessary time limit of three hours! And, indeed, what plot there is evidently has seemed so thin to Mr. Alexander that he, as well as Mr. Tree, relies on spectacle to assure the play the long run that alone can repay him for his trouble. And so there are wedding processions and wedding hymns, a crowded stage and gorgeous costumes. A scene at a wayside inn, with its peasant maidens trooping in, its rakish soldier's song, its clinking and jangling of armor, is for all the world like a bit out of a comic opera. In a word, from beginning to end, there is but one episode that seems something more than an ingenious piece of stagecraft, and this you see through a glamour of poetry, of old emotions and associations, that makes you forget for a moment Mr. Phillips's puppets before you to remember the passion-born lovers of Dante and of the poets who, since, have told their love again in words or in paint.

Paolo and Francesca meet in a garden in the pale light of dawn; they sit and read the fatal book on a marble seat surrounded and overhung with roses; they wear beautiful clothes, and Miss Millard, the Francesca, is graceful, while Mr. Ainley, the Paolo—a priggish lover for the most part—manages to pose with equal charm; the result is a stage picture well designed. But if thus calmly their passion shook them, would the tragedy ever have been written—would Giovanni, in the next act, have entered with hands steeped in their blood? Mr. Arthur Symons, in his criticism of the play, has admirably expressed the weakness of this one scene, the very basis of the tragedy:

> "The two lovers do but recite to one another, either out of the book or out of their own heads; they sit together, look lovely, and speak melodiously; but it is Mr. Frank Dicksee's lovers who sit there, not Rossetti's."

And what of the verse? Why do I say nothing of it? Because, as with the verse of "Ulysses," there is nothing to say. Those who have read the book quietly at home have the advantage of me in this respect. Verse can be bellowed, sung, whined, murdered by the English actor, but not spoken. Mr. Alexander, as Giovanni, does his best and works very hard, but, not content with his own shortcomings, he is borrowing Sir Henry Irving's—even to the Irving stride and the Irving grunt. Miss Millard's voice, as Mr. Symons says, is melodious, and to me the pleasantest thing in the play, but only in the garden scene could I follow the words as she spoke them. Miss Elizabeth Robins, the Lucrezia, has more control of her voice, but I fancy she finds the prose of Ibsen easier to manage, because more sympathetic.

Impossible, it may be thought, that two plays, empty as the "Ulysses" and the "Paolo and Francesca" of my description, should meet with such success. In neither subject is there anything that makes for popularity with an English audience, and, as a rule, with a few notorious exceptions, poetry is doomed to failure on the modern stage. True enough. But I have written in vain if I have not explained that neither is to be considered as a play; it is the spectacle the public wishes to see. There is another reason. A *claque* in the English theatre, the critic boasts, would not be endured for a moment. But Mr. Phillips has had such a deafening *claque* in the English press as does not often delight the ears of the minor poet. He has his admirers who, I am told, cannot speak of him but in solemn whispers as "The Bard," and some of these admirers enjoy the freedom of the daily paper and the monthly review. His portrait now hangs in every bookseller's window in London. He is the man of the hour, and accepted as are so many other things, in and out of the theatre, once they have been enough talked about.

In the other theatres just now, managers are less ambitious. In one, old-fashioned sentiment, laid on thick, and called "Mice and Men," holds the boards, and a long run is predicted for Mr. Forbes Robertson and Miss Gertrude Elliot, who are playing it. In another, it is a comedy, "Frocks and Frills," that sets the fashions for all the

women in town, who are turning to it for hints before they buy their spring clothes. In a third, English versions of French plays, carefully edited by a scrupulous censor who accepts "Paolo and Francesca" without flinching, are having their little day. American farces and musical extravaganzas are everywhere, and, really, though I have diligently made the rounds, the only two plays that strike me as having the least merit are "Sherlock Holmes" and "Arizona," also American, and played by American companies. The reason is simple. Take "Arizona," for instance; it is honest melodrama, and pretends to be nothing else; it is good of its kind, for melodrama it has even a certain freshness, and it is performed not by puppets, but by actors and actresses who, if none is above the average, all have some life in them, and play with a go, a gayety, and an apparent belief in what they are doing, that, I, for one, found delightful after the prosing and mouthing and shamming of the gods and mortals who fill the stage in "Ulysses."

But the English theatre has sunk into a slough of despond, and I do not think the state is likely to drag it out again. The state-aided theatre in France has long and fine traditions behind it. The English National Theatre would be without traditions, and, if it fell into the hands of the enthusiasts whose societies were intended to bring about the much-needed reform, the hopes of its creating traditions of the drama as an art for coming generations would be small. The Stage Society has never been as enterprising as Mr. Tree or Mr. Alexander. What has it done of interest this winter except to produce "Mrs. Warren's Profession," one of Mr. Shaw's "unpleasant plays," for which it was difficult to find a manager who would lend his theatre or an actress who would take the principal part? The objection, however, is not the unpleasantness—that is a manner of speaking; the trouble is, it is not a play but a moral debate, and, from the dramatic standpoint, there is every reason why it should be rejected by a capable manager. Enterprise, really, is not the unknown quantity, nor is it the good play. The more you go to the theatre in England, professional or amateur, the more you realize that it is the good actor who is wanted. And I am afraid not even a National Theatre can produce the good actor at a word. N. N.

MADAME RÉCAMIER.—I.

PARIS, March 14, 1902.

M. Joseph Turquan has, for a time, abandoned the Empresses and Princesses of whom he makes himself the biographer, for a simple lady, Madame Récamier; but was she not a queen of beauty? His new volume is, in many senses, far more interesting than its predecessors, and I believe that it was written with more care and attention. Facts speak loudly enough in the case of the Empress Josephine, of the Duchess d'Abrantès, the former heroines of M. Turquan; with Madame Récamier the case is different—the art of guessing, of insinuating, has to be used; and M. Turquan uses it, not always without success, always in a highly critical, if not malevolent spirit. This constant effort has left its impress on his work, and gives it an interest which is often wanting in the other volumes of the series, "Souveraines et Grandes Dames."

Madame Récamier was the only daughter of M. Bernard, originally a notary at Lyons, and afterwards a tax-collector in Paris. She was born in Lyons on December 4, 1777, and was married in Paris to M. Récamier on the 5th Floréal, first year of Liberty (April 24, 1793), on the very day when the populace carried Marat in triumph through the streets of the capital. There was no religious ceremony; the civil marriage took place, almost in solitude, at the Hôtel de Ville. Madame Bernard had procured a place for her husband in Paris through the influence of M. de Calonne, who was a friend of hers, and had thrown him in the society of the bankers. One of the chief frequenters of her house was M. Récamier, the son of a hat-merchant of Lyons, who had made a fortune and become a banker in Paris. M. Récamier was forty-two years old when he married the girl, who was only fifteen years old, and whom he had for many years been accustomed to treat as a child.

The reasons for this marriage have always been enveloped in mystery. M. Turquan goes boldly into a delicate subject, and says that M. Récamier never claimed his marital rights, and it does not appear that she claimed hers.

"Their tie," wrote Madame Lenormant [Madame Récamier's own niece, who published, many years ago, two volumes under the title, 'Memoirs and Correspondence of Madame Récamier'], was never anything but superficial; Madame Récamier received nothing from her husband but his name. This may seem astonishing, but I am not bound to explain it; I can only attest it, as all could have attested it who, having known M. and Madame Récamier, shared her intimacy. M. Récamier never had any but paternal relations with his wife, and always treated the young and innocent child who bore his name merely as a daughter, whose beauty flattered his eyes and whose celebrity flattered his vanity."

Madame Lenormant says elsewhere in her book: "She missed the affections which are the true felicity and the true dignity of a woman; she was neither a wife nor a mother, and, her empty heart pining for tenderness and devotion, found some satisfaction for this need of love in the homage of a passionate admiration whose language pleased her ears." In the lifetime of Madame Récamier, it was said, or rather whispered, that she had married a man who was her father. M. Récamier was a man of pleasure, and all the details we know about Bernard and his wife favor a suspicion that Madame Bernard had received more than usual attentions from M. Récamier.

M. Récamier gave to his young and charming wife all that fortune could give—not at first, during the days of the Terror, when it was dangerous to appear rich, but after the ninth Thermidor. M. Récamier, who had been so prudent during the bloody days of the reign of Robespierre as to show himself among the witnesses of the executions which took place daily, seems to have been what is called in our time an opportunist. Perhaps he assisted at the execution of Robespierre and his friends; at any rate, he stood very well with the Thermidorians, and his fortune increased rapidly, as he became a large army contractor.

During the Directory, Madame Récamier became one of the queens of Paris. Her husband took her to Barras. Madame Lenormant defends her niece energetically against the imputation of having moved in the society of the famous Director; but she confesses that she had to go once to the Luxembourg, where Barras lived, in the spring of 1799, some time before Bonaparte threw the Directory to the winds. The papers of the time gave a detailed account of the feast at which Madame Récamier appeared, and at which some complimentary verses were read to her. If Madame Récamier allowed her husband to take her to Barras, she certainly knew nothing about the army contracts. She was young and inexperienced; she lived at a time and in a society where all social rules had become very loose. She met Madame Tallien, Madame Bonaparte, wherever she went. Sainte-Beuve, who treats Madame Récamier very kindly in his 'Causeries du Lundi,' says, however, in speaking of this period of her life: "To conform to the truth, I must lower my tone a little, and descend for a moment from that ideal height of Laura and Beatrice where people are accustomed to place her."

It was probably at the house of Barras, says M. Turquan, that Madame Récamier made the acquaintance of the famous Madame de Staël. This acquaintance developed rapidly into a great friendship. Madame Récamier herself thought it necessary to explain its origin differently. Her husband bought M. Necker's hôtel, which Madame de Staël wished to sell.

"One day—and this day was an epoch in my life," says Madame Récamier, in a note which she communicated long afterwards to Benjamin Constant, "M. Récamier arrived at Clichy [where the Récamiers had a château] with a lady whom he did not name, and whom he left alone with me in the drawing-room while he joined several persons in the park. This lady came to talk about the sale of a house. Her dress was singular. . . . I took her for a foreigner. I was struck by the beauty of her eyes and by her look; I could not understand what I felt. . . . She told me, with a penetrating grace, that she was charmed to know me; that M. Necker was her father. I then recognized Madame de Staël. I did not hear the rest of her phrase; I blushed; my embarrassment was extreme. I had just read her 'Letters on Rousseau' with a passionate interest. One felt at once in her a perfectly natural and a superior person. On her part she fixed on me her great eyes with a kindly curiosity, and addressed to my face compliments which would have seemed exaggerated if they had not seemed to flow from her."

This first meeting, as described, not without real literary talent, by Madame Récamier, resembles much what between lovers is called the "coup de foudre."

M. Récamier bought the Hôtel Necker, and had it arranged and furnished in the best style of the Directory, a style which afterwards was called the Empire style. Madame Récamier gave parties, received the literary men of the time, such as La Harpe, Lemontey; political men, such as Camille Jordan, Barère; *émigrés* who had returned to France, such as Talleyrand; bankers and army contractors, friends of her husband. She was very eclectic, and long is the list of her usual guests. When Gen. Bonaparte came back from Egypt, Madame Récamier opened her salon to his aides-de-camp, Lannes, Junot, Marmont; to Murat, his brother-in-law; to Bernadotte; to Eugène Beauharnais.

Bonaparte himself seems to have paid little attention to Madame Récamier; was it because her father, M. Bernard, who had become one of the administrators of the Post-office, was interested in a paper which was hostile to the Government, to the First Consul, and to his family? M. Bernard was accused of making it an instrument of correspondence between the Royalists and the Chouans of Brittany. Napoleon recalls this circumstance in the memorial of Saint Helena. M. Bernard was arrested, but was not tried, thanks to the intervention of Bernadotte; but he lost his place.

From that moment dates the opposition of Madame Récamier to Bonaparte. It must be said, also, that she had fallen under the influence of Madame de Staël, who could not forgive the indifference which Bonaparte had shown her at the time of the 18th Brumaire, when she tried to bring him under her sway. The salon of Madame Récamier became gradually a centre of opposition. She surrounded herself with Royalists; her intimate friends became M. Mathieu and M. Adrien de Montmorency. M. Turquan will have it that Madame Récamier obeyed only the vulgar feeling expressed since Thackeray's day by the word snobbery. I consider this accusation unjust; and, while there may have been in Madame Récamier a mixture of that feeling which draws the mind not unnaturally towards what has the halo and the consecration of the past, there were in her many other noble and delicate feelings, and her whole life protests against the accusation of having "meanly admired mean things."

Correspondence.

ENGLISH PRAYERS FOR PEACE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The English are praying for peace. Heaven will grant their prayer on its usual condition of self-help. But the English will not be helping themselves to peace so long as Lord Milner is kept in his present position. The prospect of submission to that man's insolent and vindictive tyranny is enough to drive the Boers to desperation. This is so obvious that it may not uncharitably be thought to be designed.

It would be easy to retire or transfer Lord Milner, without disparagement of his capacity or character, simply on the ground of the hostile relation between him and the Boers. It is one of the weak points in Lord Rosebery's manifesto that he tries to block this most desirable measure without giving any intelligible reason.

From Lord Milner's recent speeches, it clearly appears that, having been sent to rule the two races of the Cape Colony with an impartial hand, he, from the outset, conspired with the British against the Dutch. Every Dutchman put to death for treason against such a Government is murdered. Equity.

March 30, 1902.

A LETTER OF EDWARD FITZGERALD'S.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As every successive output of Edward FitzGerald's Letters (witness your issue of last week) appears to meet with a welcome, you may be willing to give place to the enclosed copy of one addressed by him to the late Fitzedward Hall, who forwarded it to the *Nation's* reviewer of his version of the "Agamemnon" of Aeschylus.

X.

March 31, 1902.

Woodbridge: June 14, '77.

My dear Sir—Thank you for the "Nation," which I return you, as you desire: sooner than I shd. do were it not that some one (I know not who:) had sent it to me before. So I have had ample time to digest myself. Perhaps I ought not to acknowledge that I think the Review *just*, seeing that it's praise so much overweighs it's blame; but I *do* think so, nevertheless; & am yet not intoxicated (at my all but 70 years of Age) with the credit given me for so far succeeding in re-producing other men's Thoughts; which is all I have tried to do. I know that many others wd. have done as well—and any *Poet* better—had they as much Leisure, & Inclination, for such work as I have had.

I have also seen the *Atlantic;* wh. I have taken in for two years on account of my friend Mrs. Kemble's "Gossip" which I am sorry to find is discontinued since she has returned to England.

I believe it is from no *personal* prejudice that I think American Reviews of English Books are apt to be juster than English of English. The Critics are removed from the Authors they criticize: from the Clubs, & Coteries, & Editors, who are *for* them, or *against;* & so can judge independently: wh. is scarce possible otherwise. So I maintain that we Country folks are—ceteris paribus—better Judges than the Londoners; for the same reason; & I see that Wilson—(Chr: North) said the same of Scotch Critics to N. P. Willis. "The opinion of one quiet, intelligent Country Parson was worth them all," he said.

My Versions, such as they are, were originally all privately printed to give to Friends: & these two have found their way into Public; I mean Omar K. & King Agamemnon—the Latter of whom remains to be slain anew, or trodden over, by our *Athenæums, & Academies,* I dare say. I have never sent a Copy to any but such Friends as I have spoken of; and to two or three American Gentlemen who took an interest in the Books. The Price they are published at—not my doing—pre-supposes only a small Sale, & seems to me ridiculously high. All which only means—"Will you have one?" I venture this, as you have been polite enough to send me it's Praises from among my Patrons in America.

Yours truly E. FitzGerald.

P. S. I re-post the Paper in the cover it came in, so as to make sure of it's finding you as clean as it left.

LORD DURHAM'S REPORT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is by the merest accident that I have come across a copy of your able and interesting journal, dated February 27, which contains a letter from a fellow-Canadian *re* the authorship of Lord Durham's celebrated Report. The writer guards himself by calling it a "local legend," but the assumed claim that the author of that Report was a Mr. Dunkin is so contrary to facts that it may be characterized as something else than a "legend."

The authors, and the only authors, of that Report were Charles Buller (afterwards the Right Hon. Charles Buller, M.P.), Mr. Turton (afterwards Chief Justice of one of the Australian colonies), and my late father, Adam Thom, LL.D., editor of the *Montreal Herald* (afterwards Chief Judge of Rupert's Land, B. N. A.)—all acting with and under the Earl of Durham. I have often heard my father speak of this matter, and any one who knew him would be sure of this, that he had too much generosity of character and too much fairness of mind to try to deprive any one of his right to share in the credit gained by those who drew up that celebrated state paper. To set up, at this time of day, such a claim as that made on behalf of Mr. Timothy Dunkin is an insult to the memory of three men, not one of whom would have condescended to "amend" or "polish" or put forth to the world what was not their own.

Yours truly, A. Bisset Thom.

Aylmer, Ont., Canada, March 27, 1902.

Notes.

A third revision of Dr. Edward Robeson Taylor's 'Sonnets of Heredia,' with fresh notes, is to be published by Elder & Shepard, San Francisco.

Albert Brandt, Trenton, N. J., will soon issue 'Cape Cod Ballads,' by "Joe Lincoln," illustrated by E. W. Kemble.

Early in April, L. C. Page & Co., Boston, will have ready 'Stephen Holton,' by Charles Felton Pidgin, author of 'Quincy Adams Sawyer.'

Directly forthcoming from Doubleday, Page & Co. are 'American Masters of Painting,' by Charles H. Caffin, and 'Our Literary Deluge,' by Francis W. Halsey.

Less than 130 pages have been added to Gen. Sheridan's 'Personal Memoirs' by his younger brother, Gen. Michael V. Sheridan (Appletons). They are not the production of a practised writer, and their tone is not unexceptionable; but as they relate the chief incidents of the greater soldier's life from 1871, where he left off, they materially enhance the value of the book. Sheridan had plenty to occupy him—politically in connection with reconstruction troubles in Louisiana; and with the Indians, for which period the bloody annals of Piegan, Sioux, Ute, Nez-Percé, Apache are here briefly, not always judicially, unrolled. The reader must go to other sources to discover the debatable character of much of this history. It is noticeable that Sheridan ended, as so many army officers had done before him, as the defender of the Indians against ill-treatment and broken pledges. His brother's personal tribute is sincere and pleasing.

Another work brought to a conclusion in a reissue is Mr. W. G. Collingwood's 'Life of John Ruskin' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), first published in 1893, seven years before Ruskin's death. There was much opportunity for the abridgment which has now been practised by rewriting, resulting in one volume in place of two. More personal details, some fresh letters, have been introduced. The author remains the devotee we found him in our notice of the original biography.

It is just four years since we reviewed at some length Prof. J. Mark Baldwin's 'Social and Ethical Interpretations in Mental Development' (Macmillan). The third edition, now before us, has been somewhat enlarged in response to the criticism the book has undergone, for which Professor Baldwin gives the necessary references in his new preface.

A reprint of the third English edition of 'The Greek Poets,' by J. A. Symonds, has just appeared in two handsome volumes (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). Symonds's work still

commends itself for its genuine literary flavor, for its hearty and intimate appreciations, for the wide acquaintance with modern literature which illuminates its criticism, and for the sustained enthusiasm which lifts the reader into an atmosphere proper for intelligent enjoyment. Symonds himself was half a poet, and contributed some of the best of the versions which make the book so valuable. He is somewhat diffuse; he rhapsodizes overmuch, and the ardor of his admiration often transcends the Greek law of measure; here and there, a statement or an opinion needs qualification or correction; but the book will not be superseded until some very thorough scholar treats the same subject with Symonds's literary gift and culture, warmed by his constant glow of sympathy.

In the latest issue of "Bell's Miniature Series of Painters" (Macmillan), the general editor, Dr. Williamson, deals with Holman Hunt. The little book is less one-sided in its criticism than most volumes of the sort, and gives a fair view of its hero's limitations as well as of his merits, though it might have been well to point out how far that artist's elaborate meanings are apart from the end of painting, and unrealizable in that art. Of "The Scapegoat," Dr. Williamson says: "As a piece of painting, it is one of Hunt's least important works; as an allegory, it ranks very high indeed." Yet the allegory is entirely in the title, and if that and all written commentary were lost, we should have nothing but the portrait of a goat. Who cares, except for curiosity, whether Titian's picture be properly entitled "Sacred and Profane Love" or "Medea and Venus"? It is only by a similar elimination of the unpictorial that one can judge of the proper æsthetic value of the works of Hunt or Watts.

The right of Wilkie to a place among "Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture" (Bell-Macmillan) is far from incontestable. With all the bias of Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower in favor of the brother-Scot and the family protégé, he is forced to admit the failure of Wilkie's later works, and he bases that artist's claim to greatness entirely upon a few pictures in his early manner. Of one of these, in which he thinks Wilkie "attained the high-water mark of his life," "The Letter of Introduction," he says: "It is in every sense a masterpiece; it is redolent of the finest humor, and the technique is as admirable as the humor. . . . It ranks in excellence with Hogarth or the greatest of the Dutch and Flemish *genre* painters." He has already said that Teniers "never gave so much luminosity to any of his pictures as did Wilkie" to "The Blind Fiddler." As to luminosity, color, and handling, the comparison can be made only in presence of the works themselves, but there are qualities of painting, and not the least important ones, that can be judged of in some degree from reproduction; and a very cursory comparison of the reproduction here given of "The Letter of Introduction" with almost any good cut after Ter Borch is enough to show the vast inferiority of the Scotch to the Dutch painter. Wilkie's picture is not disagreeably arranged, but it shows nothing of the Dutchman's admirable instinct for spacing and composition of line and mass. Wilkie's picture is not badly drawn, but Ter Borch was one of the most wonderful draughtsmen that ever lived. And there is nothing in the prints to suggest that Wilkie's work even approached that perfect notation of light which is the marvel of Dutch painting, and which one feels even in half-tone reproductions of the work of Ter Borch and Ver Meer and De Hooge. As an illustrator, Wilkie is more refined than Teniers or Ostade, and he perhaps approached them as a manipulator of paint; but between him and the little masters of Holland is a great gulf fixed.

The same publishers send us a volume of reproductions of the Chatsworth Sketch-book by Van Dyck, with a description of the book by Lionel Cust, Director of the National Portrait Gallery. This book is supposed to have been used by Van Dyck in Italy from 1621 to 1627, and contains 125 pages of rapid sketches, mostly from pictures by Italian masters. Forty-seven pages, or double pages, have been selected for reproduction, and the work is admirably done. A few of the sketches are from nature, but nearly all of them are such scrawled notes of compositions as supplied a technical memory in the days when photography was not. Some are from known works, but many more are of unknown or unidentified originals, and these may at any time prove valuable in the attribution of rediscovered works. The drawings are too hasty and too careless to have any great artistic value in themselves, and some of them are amazingly bad, even for what they are; but their historical interest is considerable.

In 'The Hesperian Tree: A Souvenir of the Ohio Valley,' edited by John James Piatt, and published by John Scott & Co., Three Rivers Elm, North Bend, O., the editor's aim has been "to offer to the public a magazine of literary miscellany in prose and verse—comprising original stories, sketches, essays, and poems—the contributors to which should be native to or identified with the Ohio valley; and to have the same accompanied by or illustrated with reproductions by the best current processes of pictures and drawings, as well as works in sculpture, by artists also native to or identified with that region." For such a work, "so far as he knows, there has been no literary precedent in this country—at any rate, none so limited geographically in its contributors, while at the same time largely representing writers and artists whose reputation has no such limitation." From a few such writers and artists of more than local reputation Mr. Piatt has succeeded in securing contributions, but with many more he has, apparently, failed; and the general level of the work given is hardly such as to interest other than a local public.

Mr. J. H. Huddilston's 'Lessons from Greek Pottery' (Macmillan) is a little book of 144 pages, intended to show, in a general way, what may be learned from the pictures on Greek vases by students of Greek history, religion, life, and literature, there being chapters devoted to different branches of each of these departments. It is, however, rather an argument for the study of the vases than an introduction to it, and addressed more to those who are not aware of the vast stores of material which the Greek potters have left for the student of their civilization than to those who are aware of the fact, but do not know how to make use of it. We are told, for example, that the vase-paintings give us many more details about the story of the death of Troilus than are preserved in literature, and that more than thirty of these paintings are known which are based upon various parts of the legend; but the author does not tell us how to get at them, nor does he show us how they may be recognized among the many thousand vase-paintings that exist. This is disappointing because, admirably as Mr. Huddilston has performed the task he set himself, there would seem to be more present need of a book which should give those "who are interested in all things Greek" a start in the study of Greek pottery than one which is limited to urging that study upon them. To many the most valuable part of the book will be the excellent bibliography which follows the text, occupying more than forty pages. This has been most carefully prepared and classified, and will be found both useful and convenient for advanced students as well as beginners. The book contains seventeen illustrations, among which are reproductions of the three plates of shapes of Greek vases from Furtwängler's catalogue of the Berlin collection.

The sheets of Professor Edward Arber's series of British anthologies are now presented in a new binding, with the running title "Selections from the British Poets." The eighth and tenth volumes of the set in this form, which have just come to our table, differ from Pope and Cowper Anthologies as previously noticed only by the insertion of tolerably well-selected and reproduced portraits of the major poets. Thus embellished, the series may prove not devoid of utility to the anthological student. The publisher is Henry Frowde.

Mr. Thomas Willing Balch of the Philadelphia bar has reprinted from the *Journal* of the Franklin Institute for March his article on the boundary lines of southeastern Alaska and Canada. To monograph the subject in all its details would require a somewhat bulky volume, but for those who would inform themselves of the main outlines of the case, Mr. Balch's article offers a convenient and reliable summary. It comprises some forty-five pages of text, with reduced facsimiles of the most important charts bearing on the subject, and is entitled 'The Alasko-Canadian Frontier.'

It would be difficult to find an American teacher, whether in the village school or in the university lecture-room, who would not find matter of special interest in the annual report of the Commissioner of Education. Yet there is evidence that too few are making use of this means of information and enlightenment in their own field of labor. The two heavy volumes recently issued are for the academic year 1899-1900, and, like their predecessors, contain a number of treatises—historical, critical, technical—of permanent value. The occasional lists of articles on a certain subject published in previous reports are a great help to those seriously interested in the subject. The new "dependencies" are, in these reports at least, not denied their rights, though the backwardness of the information, in their case especially, is trying to the reader's interest. Portions of the statistical matter are peculiar to each annual issue, but in some of the tables the changes from year to year are comparatively slight, and if delay in the publication of the en-

tire reports could be partly remedied by substituting quinquennial for some of the annual statistics, many might be glad of the change.

Adalbert von Hanstein's 'Das Jüngste Deutschland: Zwei Jahrzehnte miterlebter Litteraturgeschichte' (Leipzig: R. Voigtländer), first issued in the autumn of 1900, appeared last year in a second, though essentially unchanged, edition. As its title implies, it is a history of the new factors in German literature since the early eighties. Writers whose beginnings belong to an earlier period cut no figure in its pages, except so far as they may have fallen in with the new literary movement. With commendable diligence, the compiler has gathered together an immense mass of facts, most of which have been hitherto inaccessible. Information about the lives and literary development of a host of young German littérateurs, their grouping into schools, and the tendencies of these schools, together with numerous extracts from their writings, are here set forth in orderly historical array and supplemented by more than a hundred portraits. Hanstein writes good clear, readable German, and strives to approach his subject in a candid scientific spirit. Unfortunately, his tremendous conceit about his own literary work (which has played absolutely no part in the development of modern German literature) often blinds his judgment and leads him to take very distorted views. Striking evidence of this defect may be found in his treatment of Sudermann, Hauptmann, Holz, and George, who, though they may not belong to the immortals, are certainly leaders in their own generation. The book is nevertheless to be commended.

The long list of works dealing with the Greek tragedian Euripides has been increased by a substantial volume by Wilhelm Nestle, called 'Euripides, der Dichter der griechischen Aufklärung' (Stuttgart: Kohlhammer). Beginning with a consideration of the life, personality, and character of the poet, the author proceeds to a long and exhaustive examination of his attitude towards the doctrines of his countrymen. His ideas of life in general, his theology, natural philosophy, psychology, ethics, sociology, and politics are fully examined and illustrated by means of copious quotations from his extant works. The conclusion is, as one might guess from the title of the book, that Euripides is representative of the spirit of enlightenment and progress which was changing Hellenism from a national to a cosmopolitan basis. The work reads well, and cannot fail to interest others than the Euripides specialists. The frontispiece is a reproduction of the Naples bust of the tragedian. The indices are excellent, and the notes, which cover two hundred of the five hundred and fifty pages of the book, show that the author has collated and sifted his authorities in a thorough manner.

The dethroning of an ancient manuscript once regarded as next in value to the lost original is, to the enthusiast in textual criticism, something not much less important and perhaps more interesting than the fall of a dynasty. Such an event is announced and substantiated by Dr. William Peterson, Principal of the McGill University, Montreal, in his remarkable monograph on a ninth-century manuscript of Cicero in Lord Leicester's library at Holkham, for which, although hitherto neglected, he now vindicates the primacy among all manuscripts of the orations contained in it. No editor can hereafter safely ignore this new revelation. The monograph is from the Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde), from which we have also received two more volumes of the Oxford Classics, 'Propertius,' by J. S. Phillimore, and 'Cicero de Oratore,' by Prof. A. S. Wilkins, both well deserving the same praise which we have already given to earlier volumes of this series.

Mr. La Farge's article on Rembrandt lends distinction to the current number of *McClure's Magazine*, as it would, of itself, distinguish any publication in which it might appear. It is the third of a series of articles on the "Great Artists," which the editors have been most wise and most fortunate to secure. The first, on Michelangelo, was somewhat disappointing; in the second, Mr. La Farge fully found himself, and gave us a beautiful and rounded appreciation. The present article is, if anything, still better, and such as no other living writer could produce. Mr. La Farge writes with the authority of an accomplished painter, the sympathy of a deep and subtle critic, and the grace of a finished literary artist, and comes nearer than one would have thought possible to describing the indescribable, and to putting into words what only Rembrandt himself could ever express in paint or the etched line. If he shall be often so felicitous, we shall have, when the series is completed, such a book of art criticism as hardly exists in any language—a book to be thankful for, and of which America may be as proud as of its author's own varied contribution to the art he celebrates.

The supply of diaries kept by the German mercenaries in our Revolutionary war seems inexhaustible, and each one makes some contribution of importance to historical detail. Mr. J. G. Rosengarten begins in the April number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* a translation of one kept from 1777 to 1783 by Stephan Popp, who served in the Bayreuth Regiment, coming over at the age of twenty-two. The desertions already recorded in the present instalment from this and its fellow, the Anspach Regiment, harmonize with the account of the mutiny when they were forced on shipboard. Two of the three pencil maps accompanying the narrative are here reproduced. Another curiosity of this issue is the facsimile reprint of the first number of the rare *Philadelphische Zeitung*, published by Franklin on May 6, 1732.

In the March-April number of the *Revue Historique*, the editor, M. Monod, criticises unsparingly in detail the new Leygues-Ribot proposals for the reform of French secondary instruction. In his view, every French boy should attend the primary and advanced primary schools, in both of which thorough instruction in modern languages should be given; then he should choose between three courses, in which preponderance should be given to the classics, to modern languages, and to science respectively. The aim of French secondary instruction seems to him to be the accumulation of facts, not ability to think independently. Forty years ago, he feels, teaching was more thorough, if narrower, and the crying evils of to-day, carelessness and superficiality, had not appeared. The crowning iniquity of the new proposals is the repeal of the Falloux legislation guaranteeing freedom of speech.

—The April *Atlantic* presents a somewhat bewildering profusion of interesting and instructive matter. The leading position is given to Mr. Oswald Garrison Villard's statement of the abuses which have grown up in our army system, and the measures initiated by Secretary Root for their removal. "An Athenian" contributes his confessions as to the working of "Our State University," but one finds nothing so sensational as the anonymous authorship and the titles suggest, in the wake of the various State University storms of the past few years. Regents are sometimes wise and sometimes unwise, professors sometimes all that could be expected and sometimes not, irate parents occasionally annoy, thoughtless girls and boys commit distressing indiscretions—in short, we have simply the typical Western State University. If there is anything new, it is the writer's opinion that Western college girls are much less earnest in their work, much more given to regarding their college as a good place for a good time, than their sisters in Eastern schools. With boys, at least, there is a pretty widespread impression that the tendency is rather the reverse. Elizabeth McCracken, under the heading of "The Play and the Gallery," takes us into another kind of school, the theatre, and tells of its effect upon the tenement-house population with which she is brought into contact in her settlement work. One boy is impressed, on hearing "The Gay Lord Quex," with the thought that "the people are a bad lot, but they get out all right"; a young woman is somewhat more seriously disturbed by a similar reflection concerning Nell Gwynn; a Polish girl is led to read and study the plays of Shakspere which she has heard from the gallery, and is almost thrown into a panic by her first encounter at the public library with the Baconian theory. On the whole, one gets from the article a new idea of what the cheap gallery in the theatre really means as a social factor in the tenement life of a great city. We can merely call attention to a highly valuable paper by John W. Foster on "Pan-American Diplomacy," marred only by its incidental support of the ship-subsidy scheme for working up an increased trade with the Southern republics.

—In the *Century*, Noah Brooks draws a vivid picture of the rush across the plains to California a half century ago. It is a story often told, but the necessities of the situation and the ready ingenuity with which they were met insure something new in every retelling. M. Patrice Dillon, who came to California by sea late in 1849, and described the situation in a vivacious contribution to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, was a little envious of this American ingenuity. "Throw three Americans upon a desert island, with but a single spring of water: two of them will take possession of it, levy a tribute on the third, and then boast loudly of their 'Yankee trick.'" Mr. Brooks writes, of course, of his own experience, and thus makes a genuine addition to the store of first-hand material from which is some day to be written an adequate history of the great Western movement of our population. The promo-

tion of "civic beauty," so popular a subject of late with the best magazines, receives another impulse in an article by Sylvester Baxter on "The Beautifying of Village and Town." Perhaps Mr. Baxter is a trifle over-enthusiastic when he describes a certain Western city as having become, by ten years of artistic improvement, "the seat of a genuine civilization." Civic beauty is no doubt a strong elevating influence, under most conditions, but it will hardly do as yet for a test of civilization. The most suggestive article of the number is that of John Burroughs on "Literary Values."

—Dr. Gilman continues his reminiscences in *Scribner's*, under the heading of "Some Noteworthy Scholars." Of those permanently connected with Johns Hopkins, he speaks chiefly of Rowland, the physicist, and Sylvester, the eccentric mathematician. The peculiarities of Professor Sylvester gave rise to so many apocryphal anecdotes that one is pleased to find a few with the satisfactory attestation of Dr. Gilman's signature. It is of deeper interest, however, to know that Dr. Gilman was repeatedly warned, both in this country and abroad, of Professor Sylvester's idiosyncrasies and irascibility of temper, and yet preferred to disregard all these things rather than lose the chance to secure for the new university his brilliant mathematical genius. It was the secret of the success of Johns Hopkins that its President lived up to the advice with which he closes this chapter of his reminiscences: "In the conduct of a university, secure the ablest men as professors, regardless of all other qualifications excepting those of personal merit and adaptation to the chairs that are to be filled. Borrow if you cannot enlist. Give them freedom, give them auxiliaries, give them liberal support." Lowell, Child, Freeman, Cayley, and Stanley were examples of President Gilman's skill in borrowing; and interesting incidents of their sojourning at Baltimore, some new and some which have seen the light before, are woven into the present article. One can hardly be pleased with the statement that these reminiscences are to close with the next number. James B. Connolly contributes a twenty-page sketch of the night-seining and winter trawling of the Gloucester fishermen, and Alfred Mathews begins a study of the early westward expansion of Connecticut.

—One finds in the April *Harper's* rather a multiplicity of fairly good things than any one feature of striking interest. Carl Snyder gives a brief account of the achievements in synthetic chemistry which earned for M. Berthelot such imposing recognition at the end of the half-century since the beginning of his connection with the Collège de France, and Professor Shaler writes still more briefly of the important and intricate relations between plant and animal life, with the various modifications in each resulting therefrom. Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr., gives an outline of the recent German explorations on the site of ancient Babylon, particularly the ruins of the palace of Nebuchadnezzar and the temple of Marduk, and Henrietta Dana Skinner presents letters from John Adams to her great-grandfather, Francis Dana, throwing new light upon the diplomacy of the Revolution. These articles one and all are suited to raise the question whether the price which magazine editors seem willing to pay for brevity is not too great. Bret Harte contributes one of his California stories, characteristic in its essential features, but far below the level of his best, and not likely to spoil the sale of California oranges or depress the price of California lands, as some of his work has been said to do.

—'The Decorative Art of the Amur Tribes,' by Berthold Laufer, is the title of the seventh memoir of the American Museum of Natural History relating to the work done by the expeditions sent out by Prof. F. W. Putnam through the liberal aid given by Mr. Jesup of New York. The memoir contains 86 large quarto pages, and is abundantly supplied with illustrations. It relates principally to the Goldi and Gilyaks, who occupy the lower part of the Sungari and the middle portion of the Amur valleys. While there are many signs of the influence upon them of Chinese art, this has not been by any means overshadowing, but a great amount of originality has been preserved and a really high sense of beauty displayed in their ornamentation of implements and of their articles of dress. Of the animal forms which are woven into their decorations, the butterfly, the bear, the cock, and the fish are most numerous, while the skill with which groups of reindeer heads are carved upon their wooden dishes is really surprising. It is interesting also to see how frequently the "svastika" cross appears, and the artistic variations with which it is treated. Indeed, so beautiful are these forms that it will not be surprising to see the patterns of the Goldi liberally copied in the decorative art of Western nations. Those who devise patterns for calico prints can find no more suggestive book than this. The report goes far to sustain Mr. Putnam's theory that realistic art is among the earliest developments of human effort, often long preceding any other signs of progress. Mr. Laufer well closes his memoir with the question "whether people, like the Goldi, who are able to produce such fine work, may justly be classified among primitive tribes," adding that "there is no doubt but that they are chosen for their share in civilization, and that they will have a future, if only the Russian Government will continue to lend its assistance in improving the economic life conditions of this intelligent tribe, which numbers so many good-natured and highly gifted individuals."

—The late Grant Allen tried his hand at almost every kind of literary composition, but he is not usually remembered as an historical writer. At the same time he had a keen interest in men as well as in science, and his alert intelligence enabled him to deal cleverly with every subject which occupied his attention. He devoted more of his leisure to historical reading than those may have supposed who knew him only through his publications; moreover, he had strong historical instincts. After this word of preface, we may say that Prof. York Powell has recently edited, with an introduction, a posthumous volume of Allen's which is entitled 'County and Town in England' (Dutton). The various chapters of which it is made up were first printed, twenty years ago, in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The author considered them unfinished, and for this reason declined to reprint them until he should be able to complete the series. As it is, however, they do not create the impression of being fragmentary. They disclose a distinct method of approaching local history, and, either directly or indirectly, they deal with more than three-quarters of England. Allen might easily have made himself an expert archæologist, and it may be that some readers who are looking out for a guide-book will find the antiquarian motive a little strong in the present collection of essays. He had a keen eye to economic and social conditions, and, most of all, to ethnology. "He was the first English historian," says Prof. York Powell, "to put forward in a convincing way the fact that the Teutonic element is not the only important element (perhaps not even the chief element) in the present population. He welcomed the arrival of the 'præ-Celtic theory,' which he had foreseen." One very interesting feature of this book is a sketch which is called "Annals of Churnside." Here Allen goes back to very early times, indeed. Churnside is a fictitious place which is made to lie near the sea in a southern shire. How ancient its annals are may be gathered from the following sentence: "The little Euskarian colony which occupied the lower Churn Valley entered Britain, like the rest of their race, by a broad bridge of land which still connected the modern island with the mainland of France and Belgium." Proceeding from this distant point, Allen touches upon the Celtic invasion, the Roman road, the Roman villa, Domesday Book, and the neighboring Cistercian Abbey of Churney. All this is well conceived, and carried out in a manner which will appeal to mature students of English history.

—The study of Greek vases in recent years has thrown many interesting sidelights on the civilization of the ancients. The frescoes of the Italian Renaissance might be made to yield no less valuable results. Their intrinsic beauty, however, has led the spectator to regard these works of art from the purely æsthetic point of view rather than as documents in the history of culture. So great a wealth of material exists in approaching the study of the Renaissance that this neglect is perhaps excusable. At the same time rich mines have been discovered in the few instances where art has been considered from the standpoint of what it represents. It may well be hoped, therefore, that other books will be written similar to Dr. Warburg's 'Bildniskunst und Florentinisches Bürgertum' (Leipzig: Seeman), a study of the portraits in the "Confirmation of the Rule of Saint Francis" by Ghirlandajo in the Sassetti Chapel of Santa Trinità in Florence. It had long been known that Lorenzo de' Medici was in this fresco depicted standing between the two Sassettis, the donors of the chapel. The identity of the other portraits remained, however, unknown. It was left to Dr. Warburg to recognize in them Poliziano, the poet-scholar; Luigi Pulci, the humorist and forerunner of Ariosto; and Giuliano, Piero, and Giovanni de' Medici, the three sons of Lorenzo. He himself is convinced that the remaining head is that of Matteo Franco, best known for his interchange of scurrilous sonnets with Pulci. While there is every probability that this is true, no real

proof, unfortunately, exists. Dr. Warburg promises further studies of a similar nature, illustrations and evidences of the interest taken in art by the cultivated bourgeoisie of democratic Florence. He himself modestly professes only to follow in the footsteps of Burckhardt, and add a chapter to his essay on the "Portrait" contained in the posthumous 'Beiträge'—a work which still remains almost unknown outside of Germany. Highly commendable are the illustrations, typography, and good taste shown in the execution of this book, which is in striking contrast to so many German contributions to the history of art.

LANG'S MYSTERY OF MARY STUART.

The Mystery of Mary Stuart. By Andrew Lang. With illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

More than three hundred years ago, controversy was raging around the character of Mary Stuart, and never since that time has it ceased to rage. For many, the subject possesses a perpetual interest, which is due mainly to the Queen's gifts and misfortunes, but also in part to the disputed evidence regarding her career. Mr. Lang sets out by likening her tragedy to the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus, and the example is one to which he recurs. Schiller's "Maria Stuart," he thinks, would come more near to reality than anything else, if only the facts were real. Alas, here lies the crux, not only with Schiller but with every other writer, in both poetry and prose, who has ventured to offer a solution! There is no dearth of evidence. Information of greater or less value keeps accumulating about her and the other *dramatis personæ*. But while every new document helps to confirm some theory, the tangle of theories grows ever more intricate, until scoffers may well call into question the credibility of any. Mr. Henderson, in his 'Side-Lights on English History,' has reproduced that singular picture of her which was engraved by Goltz at the time of her execution. According to Goltz she was a wanton; according to Chalmers she was a paragon; and between these extremes may be found a multitude of judgments, more or less qualified.

It is the opinion of Mr. Lang that "increasing knowledge of facts, new emergence of old MSS., have, on the whole, weakened the position of the defence." The stage of hypothesis has not yet been left behind. The appearance of the evidence may still, at any moment, change the whole face of the situation. But just now the Queen's case seems less plausible than before. In 1889 Mr. Henderson, by publishing for the first time Morton's sworn declaration concerning the discovery, inspection, and safekeeping of the Casket Letters, added to the weight of testimony against her, and Sir John Skelton's criticism of the damaging document has been unable to destroy the impression it created.

Though Mr. Lang's aims, in the present volume, are not unpleasantly pretentious, they are by no means inconsiderable. After generations of discussion, the points at issue have grown numerous and complicated. Of course the main question is outlined with sufficient clearness. Did Mary know that a plot existed against Darnley's life, and did she assist his murderers? This is the real issue around which the battle-royal is fought. And hardly second to it, if, indeed, a distinction between the two matters can be drawn, is the nature of her relations with Bothwell before the Kirk o' Field was blown up. Firstly, should Mary have been burned at the stake, according to the laws of that time, when she was a prisoner at Loch Leven? Secondly, are the stories which George Buchanan and others have told about an intrigue between Mary and Bothwell during Darnley's lifetime, truthful or lying?

Mr. Lang is not so ambitious as to put forward a theory which demands implicit acceptance, but in certain respects his book aims high. He begins by portraying the leading figures of the court at Holyrood—not with bare enumeration of facts or qualities, but dashingly and to the life. Mary, her lovers, and her foes must be made more than mere names before the unfolding of their plots and counterplots begins. Even the Queen's dresses and jewels are described: "the ruff from which rose the snowy neck; the brocaded bodice, with puffed and jewelled sleeves and stomacher; the diamonds, gifts of Henry II. or of Diane."

"Many of her jewels—the ruby tortoise, given by Riccio; the enamel of the mouse and the ensnared lioness, passed by Lethington as a token into her dungeon of Loch Leven; the diamonds bequeathed by her to one whom she might not name; the red enamelled wedding-ring, the gift of Darnley; the diamond worn in her bosom, the betrothal present of Norfolk—are, to our fancy, like the fabled star-ruby of Helen of Troy, that dripped with bloodgouts, which vanished as they fell."

All this delineation of character and setting forth of circumstances is done with a refinement of literary art, which yet remains in close touch with recorded fact. Mary, Darnley, Bothwell, Moray, and Maitland of Lethington form a group of major characters, after whom come Morton, Archibald Douglas, the two Melvilles, John Wood, the Secretary of Moray, Kirkcaldy of Grange, Huntly and Darnley's father, the Earl of Lennox. These are but a few of the personages. The action is as crowded as it is rapid.

With Mr. Lang, however, the vivid portrayal of Mary's *entourage* is simply a step on the way. Men and places must be clothed with actual existence if the narrative of intrigue and danger is to have a meaning. Then comes the development of the plot, with "mystery" enough to justify the title and satisfy the most romantic taste. As Mr. Lang gets deeper and deeper into the intricacies of the story, he becomes less picturesque and more analytical. Here his object would seem to be not the defence of an infallible theory, but the close scrutiny of views that have been already advanced. It is only little by little, as he demolishes the legends of George Buchanan, on the one hand, and the pleadings of Mr. Hosack on the other, that his own position becomes clear. Concerning his attitude towards the Queen we shall speak in a moment. At present it is well to observe that he makes a distinctly ambitious effort when he goes over the whole ground, which is covered by the controversy of the Casket Letters, and scrutinizes the reliability of the witnesses on either side.

Mr. Lang manifestly admires the Queen, and defends the course she took at several important moments of her reign. None the less he fixes upon her the stigma of having known that Darnley's life was threatened by the nobles. He brushes aside "the special and specious" excuses with which her conduct before her husband's murder have so often been covered—the excuses that she brought him from Glasgow to Edinburgh for the good of their child or for his own protection beneath "the ægis of the royal presence." According to the conception of her innocence, Mary "was a weak, ailing, timid, and silly woman, with 'a heart of wax.' On the hypothesis of her guilt, though ailing, worn, wretched, she had 'a heart of diamond,' strong to scheme and act a Clytæmnestra's part, even *contre son naturel*. The *naturel* of Clytæmnestra, too, was good, says Zeus in the Odyssey." The strongest link in the chain against Mary is a letter of Archibald Douglas regarding the meeting of Morton, Lethington, and Bothwell at Whittingham, which shows that Mary knew in January, 1567, of *some* plot against Darnley. He was killed on the 10th of February.

"Had she not brought him from Glasgow to Edinburgh under a semblance of a cordial reconciliation, he might, in some way or another, have escaped from his enemies. The one measure which made his destruction certain was the measure that Mary executed, though she was well aware that a conspiracy had been framed against the unhappy lad. Even if he wished to come to Edinburgh uninvited by her, she ought to have refused to bring him."

What was the Queen's motive in wishing to be quit of Darnley? Leaving the Casket Letters aside, Mr. Lang can find no contemporary evidence which shows that she was mastered by passion for Bothwell. Moray hated Bothwell, and in politics the Queen had been following her brother's lead from the date of Rizzio's murder to that of Darnley's. She had restored Lethington to favor at Moray's instance, and in spite of Bothwell's remonstrances. At Craigmillar, Moray and Lethington, not Bothwell, had by her favor taken the lead. The learned Buchanan has added the weight of his authority to the revelations of the Casket Letters, but he did not write his scandals until the affair was quite over, and in important details they are demonstrably false. If the Casket Letters should be rejected, Mr. Lang finds no reason to think that Mary's action at the time of Darnley's murder was dictated by anything more than resentment against her husband for his insults, his part in Rizzio's murder, and his general wretchedness of character.

But to leave the Casket Letters aside is impossible, or possible only in a rhetorical sense "for the sake of argument." The discussion of Mary's character must always come back to the authenticity of the documents which the Lords used in working up their case against her. If she actually wrote to Bothwell in the terms of the letters as they were finally published, she becomes so culpable that few will care to justify her politics or her morals. The best ground of the defence is in the black dishonesty of the Scottish nobles, the Queen's triumphant enemies. Estimated by their previous conduct, and, indeed, by the whole course of their lives, they cannot be placed above suspicion of forgery. At the same time it is most difficult to bring such a charge home, and, moreover, in some respects the letters appear so genuine that the concoction of them would be almost

beyond the cleverness of the forger. The handwriting might have been imitated, but a forger could only by a triumph of genius have grasped that yielding side of Mary's nature which appears in the Casket Letters. As Mr. Lang says: "That any forger should have known Mary so well as to place her, imaginatively, as regarded Bothwell, in the very attitude which we see that, on occasion, she chose later to adopt in fact as regarded Norfolk, is perhaps beyond belief. To myself the internal evidence of style seems rather in favor of considerable and compromising portions of the letters." Besides the Casket Letters, there are the Casket Sonnets, and, though these were rejected by Brantôme and Ronsard, who thought from Mary's previous verses that she could not have written so uncouthly, the prima-facie reasons for accepting them are not slight.

Notwithstanding his willingness to look adverse evidence squarely in the face, Mr. Lang must be called a friend of Mary Stuart. Either from forethought or incidentally, he does her service by representing in such an unfavorable light the men against whom she strove for power. Lethington he admires on the score of superior cleverness, though morally as bad as the rest. "Few are the good men, rare are the good deeds, that must meet us in this tragic History. 'There is none that doeth good; no, not one.'" In politics, murder was a rule of the game; in the pursuit of pleasure, every one followed his own devices. Moray was a shifty hypocrite, "looking through his fingers" at murder whereby he profited. Morton was born with falseness in the blood, and "his sanctimonious snuffle is audible still." Mary at least was born with a good heart. "She was no natural dissembler, and with difficulty came to understand that others could be false. Her sense of honor might become perverted, but she had a strong native sense of honor."

Mr. Lang is a hard hitter, and this volume is not one which will command anything like universal assent. It is bound to displease Mary's champions, while it runs even more counter to the strictly Calvinist view of the Queen and her generation. At present a settlement of the debate is out of the question, and it may long remain so. In the meantime, it is enough that Mr. Lang should have written a very clever, exhaustive, and well-informed account of Mary's struggles with her enemies and with her fate.

GIDDINGS'S INDUCTIVE SOCIOLOGY.

Inductive Sociology: A Syllabus of Methods, Analyses, and Classifications, and Provisionally Formulated Laws. By Franklin Henry Giddings. The Macmillan Co. 8vo, pp. xviii, 302.

Perhaps the best way to convey to our readers an idea of what they may expect to find in this volume will be to give a brief account of the contents of one of its more elaborate chapters, that upon Concerted Volition. We find this chapter to be divided into four parts: (1) The Rise of Concerted Volition; (2) On Coöperation; (3) On the Modes of Concerted Volition; (4) The Laws of Concerted Volition. Under the head of the Rise of Concerted Volition are considered, first, its subjective conditions, and, secondly, its objective conditions. The latter are said to be principally, (1) Developed Communication (the press, etc.), and (2) Association in meetings. Since it is our business to criticise and doubt, we ask ourselves whether this enumeration of the objective conditions evinces a thorough historical study. Volition is not desire nor passion; it is action. Now does history show that a passionate state of public temper is transmuted into volition by those two influences alone; or does it show that, upon the top of them, some startling act of apparent violence is usually requisite besides? Was our civil war brought from smoke to flame by the attack on Fort Sumter, or the Franco-German war by the supposed insult to the French Ambassador, or our difficulty with Spain by the destruction of the *Maine*?

Under the head of Coöperation, we note that Professor Giddings is not one of those who would make this the essential fact of society. But, on the other hand, neither is he one of those who conceive that it, like responses to stimuli, is divisible into the two grand divisions of coöperative volition and competitive volition, and who opine that these two are pendants to one another; roughly speaking, of equal importance in sociology. So far is he from accepting this view that no chapter of his book is devoted to competition. In all his pages there are but a dozen lines in which the word occurs, and there only as one of two topics. Is this factor of human society, then, not worth any special study? The nature of coöperation is analyzed and found to involve four factors—common interest, perception of what others are doing, intercommunication, and mutual confidence. Its causes are inquired into with the result that men first find that they are virtually coöperating, and then do deliberately what they began to do instinctively or accidentally. Other influences, however, are recognized as secondary. Coöperation is found to have four forms. Two are simple—that in which all do the same thing, and that in which there is division of labor. Two are complex; but the definitions are not very clear, and the division, though possibly useful, is somewhat artificial. Perhaps we should say that the line of demarcation is artificial; for two classes may be as really separate as two branches of a tree, and yet it may be equally impossible to find any real defining line between them. Distinctions in the extent of coöperation are noticed, as well as the distinction between public and private coöperation.

There follows a somewhat elaborate analysis of the work of coöperation. The practical activities of a social population are said to have four modes, Appreciation, Utilization, Characterization, Socialization. This had been said in an earlier chapter. Appreciation is liking or disliking a thing. By Characterization is meant adapting ourselves to things; by Socialization, adapting ourselves to our social environment. Now, granting that this is a good division of the results of our activity, can it be truly said, or not, that these four results of activity give rise to four forms of cooperative work? To make this out, the author first defines Culture as the coöperative development of appreciation. We must all admit there is such a thing. Perhaps it is what is commonly called fashion or the prevailing taste of an historic period. Professor Giddings says there are three orders of ideas belonging to it—the linguistic, the animistic, and the scientific. Apparently, this is where Science is pigeon-holed in his scheme of society. But if there be anything more distinctly foreign to science than another, it is appreciation, in the sense of liking or disliking. The scientific interest of things disgusting is just as great as that of the most sugared sweets.

We now come to the third division of the chapter, on Modes of Concerted Volition. The like-mindedness is either Instinctive, Sympathetic, Dogmatic, or Deliberative. The instinctive is seen or read of in the squatter. Of the sympathetic, the subjective factors are said to be (1) impulsive like-response; (2) suggestibility; (3) reciprocal consciousness of kind; (4) the suggestions of shibboleth, etc.; (5) imitativeness; (6) contagious emotion. The objective factors are communication with physical conditions, and the crowd. Sympathetic likemindedness especially enriches cultural activities. It is manifested especially in panics, revivals, sympathetic strikes, riots, and similar phenomena. Dogmatic likemindedness is traditional, customary, and conservative. Its subjective factors are belief and deductive reasoning. Its objective factors are the communication of common beliefs and authoritative instruction. Its contribution to coöperation lies chiefly in its conversion of common ideas into differentiated traditions and of common activities into customs. It is marked by partisanship, reliance on legislation to regulate private conduct, deference to tradition, and some other phenomena. Deliberative likemindedness is characterized by critical thought and well-coördinated action. Its chief subjective factors are public opinion and inductive research. Its objective conditions are freedom of speech and of meeting. Without giving all Professor Giddings's items, we may sum them up by saying that he conceives that this kind of likemindedness brings rationality into every department of coöperative work. It is found in the most advanced modern nations. Now follow thirteen pages of tables of questions to be investigated as to the state of concerted volition in any society.

Finally, we reach the fourth division of the chapter, that on the Laws of Concerted Volition. The formulation of these betrays imitation of a bad model, that of Tarde, who is one of that well-known type of Frenchmen who copy the phraseology of mathematics, as if that possessed, in itself, a secret virtue of rendering vague ideas precise. Thus, we are told that "impulsive social action tends to extend and to intensify in a geometrical progression." Mathematicians, we are aware, speak of one variable increasing geometrically, while another increases arithmetically; but what (if anything) may be meant by saying that a quantity varies in geometrical progression without reference to any second quantity, we must confess transcends our powers to divine. Nor do we see that imitation can be so measured that it is worth while to attempt to say what the mathematical nature of the function is that connects it with another quantity. For the present, such ideas seem irrelevant. At any rate, the meaningless expression must excuse our suspecting that there is nothing more val-

uable beneath it than the simple remark that where there is a tendency to imitate, the imitation of imitations will multiply imitations. The second law is, that "Impulsive social action varies inversely with the habit of attaining ends by indirect and complex means." Here again, the language is to a mathematician repellent. Is anything more meant than the truism that when men are in the habit of acting reflectively, they are less under the dominion of impulse? If so, why should it not be expressed non-mathematically? So, likewise, why cannot a sociologist content himself with saying that, other things being the same, the older a tradition is, the more it overawes men, instead of laying it down that "tradition is authoritative and coercive in proportion to its antiquity"? The use of mathematical phrases in the other laws leads the reader to suppose a mathematical proportion is intended here. There are several other laws which the reader will find in the book. If this class of writers would study the mathematical theory of measurement — say, Clifford's 'Analytical Metric'—sufficiently to perceive how such talk as theirs must appear to those who understand what quantity is, we believe that all such phrases would disappear from their pages. Prof. Giddings's work would only be strengthened if this were done.

Perhaps there may be persons who do not reckon the syllabus as a distinct form of literary composition, but there is none which calls for a severer classicality, meaning by that the effect resulting from an abhorrence of the too much, and from long pondering every sentence, as if papyrus were costly and the use of the stylus laborious. It has been the mathematicians who have most excelled in it. A syllabus needs to be a feat of intellectual strength, under pain of sinking to an exhibition of a wooden model, less like science than a painter's mannikin is like a man, by far; for a mannikin may take an expressive pose. The specimen we have given will have convinced the reader that Prof. Giddings is a man of no mean analytic power. Such a scheme as he has drawn up will have its utility in the incipient state of sociological science, even if it is not what a syllabus of sociology ought to be. The index is like the book itself. It is not perfect; but it is much more than pretty good.

Scottish Men of Letters in the Eighteenth Century. By Henry Grey Graham. Macmillan. 1901.

It was the intent of Plutarch, as he tells us in beginning his life of Alexander, not to write histories, but only lives. For, he explains, the noblest deeds do not always show men's virtues and vices, but oftentimes a light occasion, a word, or some sport makes men's natural dispositions and manners appear more plain than the famous battles won, wherein are slain ten thousand men, or the great armies, or cities won by siege or assault. So Mr. Graham declares his aim to be not so much to give a history of the literature produced by Scotsmen in the eighteenth century as an account of the men who made it. In this undertaking he has been helped very little by such diaries and correspondence as abounded in England and have enabled us to reconstruct the social life of that age, for the Scots were not addicted to diaries, and if letters were written, few were preserved.

Nor is much to be gained from biographies, for those who wrote them thought it beneath the dignity of literature to mention such trivialities as Plutarch eagerly caught up. Dugald Stewart wrote the Lives of Reid, of Robertson, and of Adam Smith; but he was careful not to draw their frailties from their dread abode, and disclosed their merits only in sounding platitudes and stately periods. Even in 1811, when the relatives of Dr. Carlyle of Inveresk thought of publishing his autobiography, which is a mine of instructive gossip, "they were discouraged by those whom they consulted—Adam Ferguson among the number—on the ground that the incidents and anecdotes were too unimportant to interest the public." Adam Smith, it is true, said in his lectures on rhetoric that he was glad to know that Milton wore latchets in his shoes instead of buckles; but this Plutarchian touch must have offended the pedantic taste of the day. Fortunately, before it was too late, the artificial proprieties of Lord Kames ceased to shackle literature, and a few inquisitive spirits rescued some of the oral traditions, which, like the old ballads, were on the point of sinking into oblivion. What was thus preserved Mr. Graham has cleverly sifted and assorted to make this entertaining volume.

It must be said, however, that he goes rather too far in omitting the noblest deeds and dwelling on the "light occasions." It is well enough to describe the clothes, the gait, the manners, the foibles, the personal oddities and defects of by-gone worthies; but more than this is necessary to understand a "character." Mr. Graham is very rigorous in his exposure of corpulency. Some of his heroes were indisputably gaunt; but he eagerly notes all tendency to adipose deposit, and "paunchy" is his favorite epithet. We are told much about Hume; but the chief impression that we receive is that he was fat. On page 35 he is called "the obese philosopher"; at page 36 he is "becoming fatter"; he is "portly"; his "physical exuberance" is to pass into "unwieldy corpulence." At page 39 he has a "broad, fat face," and his corpulence is "vast." On page 42 we read of his "bulky body," and on page 43 of his "unwieldy self." At page 45 he is a "portly man"; at page 46 he is "ponderous"; his face is "broad and fat," his person "corpulent"; he distributes "fat, amiable smiles." His face continues "broad" on the next page, on the next he is "ponderous," then he is a "corpulent pagan," then he is "fat," and his "fatness" and "corpulence" are again referred to, as well as his "huge paunch" and "ponderous frame," and at last the grave closes over his "huge, corpulent form." That should end the matter, but when he is mentioned in other parts of the book we have to be reminded of his fleshiness.

This illustrates the vice of Mr. Graham's style. Often he fails to be sympathetic and appreciative because he is trying to be effective. He has a jaunty, superior manner, and looks down on his subjects with amused and sometimes contemptuous condescension. He has acquired Macaulay's tricks of style, and it is no more than fair to say that he does the tricks nearly as well as his master. Nor can we deny that he is graphic; his pictures of individuals and of society are vivid and impressive. After we overcome our annoyance at his affectations, we are fairly captivated by his entertaining stories, his incisive criticisms, his lively descriptions. Never was there such an age for "characters"; uniformity was not expected, nor even conformity. Every one was poor, and even those who passed for rich lived on incomes which day laborers would now think meant starvation. The muse was cultivated literally on oatmeal, and little of that; although drink was a prime necessity. With a moderate excise and active smuggling it was abundant, and was, according to our standards, almost the only luxury of the time.

The housing of the better class was mean, gloomy, and cold, and the general filth was appalling. To get a suit of clothes was the event of a lifetime, and people could no more vary their raiment according to fashion than leopards can change their spots. It signifies much when men can count on finding their friends wearing the same coats for years, and every coat as distinguishable as the features of the wearer. It means that men have opinions and habits of their own, and care not whether they suit the prevailing taste. Even George III. could appreciate sturdy individuality, and we are ready to forgive the awful misdeeds enumerated by our forefathers in justifying the Declaration of Independence, when we read of his message to that Jacobite of Jacobites, Laurence Oliphant, the laird of the "Auld House of Gask" and father of the gifted Lady Nairne: "The Elector of Hanover presents compliments to the laird of Gask, and wishes to tell him how much the Elector respects the laird for the steadiness of his principles."

None of these sketches is better than that of Lord Monboddo, whose whims were only less amazing than the sincerity with which he believed in them. He was to be seen in court, sitting among the clerks, having quarrelled with his fellow-judges because they had found against him in a case wherein he was personally interested. He held that all knowledge was of Greek origin, and, following ancient customs, daily anointed himself with oil, after bathing; the latter practice being as much out of vogue with his contemporaries as the former. Carriages and sedan-chairs being unknown to the Greeks, he would not enter them, although if it rained when he came out of the Parliament house, he would put his wig into a chair and walk by its side. He held to our descent from simian ancestors, questioning travellers as to their meeting with survivals of the lost appendage, and even watching at bedroom doors, when children were expected, to catch the midwives snipping off their tails. He was well mated on the bench with Lord Hailes, who once dismissed a cause because a document had the word "justice" spelt without the final "e," and with Lord Hermand, who would smite his bosom as he gave an opinion, exclaiming: "My laards, I feel my law—I feel it here." Worthy of their company was Lord Kames of the 'Elements of Criticism,' who was interested in everything from law to letters, and so devoted to agriculture that he allowed a pet pig to sleep in the same bed with him. His industry and inquisitiveness never flagged, and two days

before he died he declared that he was eager to be away, because he was exceedingly curious to learn the nature and manners of the other world.

The most interesting of these sketches are those which deal with the less famous men. Hume, Smith, Boswell, and Burns have been abundantly described, and we are glad to read of the minor but not less remarkable characters whose works have passed almost out of recollection. Thomson and Smollett are treated with really sympathetic appreciation, and Robertson, Hutcheson, Ferguson, Macpherson, and others are well portrayed. The chapter on "Women of Letters" is capital, although these women were as careful to avoid fame for their writings as the men were to win it. Lady Anne Barnard has lately been revived in her letters from South Africa; but Lady Griselle Baillie, Mrs. Cockburn, Jane Elliot, and Lady Nairne deserve to be remembered with her.

We have not hesitated to complain of some of Mr. Graham's faults, to which we must add a vexatiously meagre index; and he has perhaps told nothing that other writers had not told before. But he has chosen, culled, and condensed with excellent judgment and with really admirable skill. We owe him hearty thanks for a very entertaining book about a number of the most interesting characters of a most interesting period. Whatever the future may bring forth, we shall not see such men and such times again.

Fame and Fiction: An Enquiry into Certain Popularities. By E. A. Bennett. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Bennett pursues his interesting and timely inquiry in a series of short articles which are not sedate enough to be called essays, but are lively, peremptory, pointed, altogether in the best style of literary journalism. His gravity is often captured by irony and converted into gayety; he is perfectly sensible, and sometimes witty. His first article, entitled "The Average Reader," sets forth the chief aim of his work, which is, "to explain to the minority why the majority likes or dislikes certain modern novelists." He imagines a reciprocal attitude, the smaller faction arrogating to itself a monopoly of "artistic feeling," refusing to consider the tastes and sympathies of the larger, which becomes, in consequence, defiant and bitterly resentful of leading-strings. His benevolent purpose is to readjust the minority's point of view, and to bring about a compromise whereby the multitude may be detached from its Miss Corelli and its Mr. Silas Hocking (the most popular novelist in England), and gently led—towards whom? No living novelist is definitely named as the goal of progress, but there is no doubt that to Mr. Bennett's mind that desirable position is at present adequately filled by Mr. George Moore, whose 'Mummer's Wife' is described as "more than a masterpiece—one of the supreme novels of the century."

Though Mr. Bennett's notion of a great public ranged to defend to the death its cherished purveyors of fiction seems to us heated, his intervention is proffered in an excellent spirit. It is a pity that his analysis of the "average reader" does not promote confidence in a happy result. The best he can say for this composite person is that he is unaffected and honest in his preferences, and can never be driven to buy a book because those who pretend to a superior taste say he should. Additionally to his credit, it is affirmed that he demands imperatively some "central righteousness"—a vague phrase, which, whether it be taken to imply mental or moral virtue, we are not able to perceive conspicuously shining in many of the objects of his delight. Mr. Bennett's spirits perceptibly rise when he abandons the ground of reasonable presumption and speaks as one having conviction about the defects of the average reader. We learn that he has some of the instincts of the untutored savage, "loving noise and glare and crude sentiment; that he hates to have the basic ideas of his existence disturbed," and is so dull that he doesn't know when he is bored. But what seems to us to make him a hopeless object for artistic missionaries, however resolute, looking upward and onward to Mr. George Moore, is, that "he has no sense of beauty—that is, beauty of form. He ignores it not only in imaginative literature, but in every art and in life. The most atrocious ugliness does not annoy him, and he has a blind spot in his eye for beauty."

Thus, almost vindictively, does Mr. Bennett vitiate his own plea, and when he announces triumphantly that Mr. Moore's artistic ideal, with its incorruptible and implacable perfection, is "positively distasteful to the English temperament," he gives his case for compromise away. An artistic minority struggling to overcome national temperament shows itself bold but not wise. The attempt has been made several times in England, in more than one art, and we think it has always failed. The greatness of English literature abides in the matter rather than in the form, and a conceivable novelist, with a conscience not so exclusively artistic as Mr. Moore's, would, we think, be a more hopeful instrument, or bait, for attracting the Average Reader. We cannot see the slightest chance for a compromise to be based on the agreement of a British public to accept ideals and methods which are French to the point of servile imitation.

Mr. Bennett's conclusion, that the public demands sincerity in its novels, and can easily detect fraud, is not infallible. The public that makes ostentatious popularity has only recently learned to read, cannot think, and wants both to be diverted and to be informed. It is just in the condition to be taken in by clever, unscrupulous jugglers who have gauged its capacity and guessed its desire. To-day, to have ability for combining a story with incorrect information about history, or science, or society, or a future life, is to be potentially a popular novelist; but by the middle of the century this state of things will have changed. Labors of a regenerating minority are not to be despised, but it should not insist too much; it must give the people time.

Japan: A Record in Colour. By Mortimer Menpes. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan.

To attempt to transfer one's impressions of a country and people so distant both in space and in the inheritances of civilization as are the Japanese, by means of one hundred colored sketches or pictures, is the bold enterprise of an artist. No doubt, in foggy and sooty London, this book will stir up objectors and unbelievers. Nevertheless those who, from years of residence, can recall both the variety of the coloring and the richness of nature in this ocean-girdled land of mountains and valleys, will heartily appreciate Mr. Menpes's attempt to tell a story in colors. One may be inclined to consider the text somewhat in the light of rhapsody, but will be slow to charge exaggeration upon these pictures.

This English artist, as we remember well, was in no hurry when he came to Japan. He took his time, he dwelt among artists and artisans, he found out where the fountains of artistic power were, and where the streams of appreciation of the beautiful among the lowly ran. He saw that the native finger, predestinated to do fine work, matched the head, able and trained to think out artistic surprises; and that continual observation of nature was the secret of the freshness and absence of monotony so characteristic of the work of the Japanese artisan. He realized also the depth of rascality to which the Japanese shop-keeper can normally descend, especially when he has the conceited, the blatant, and the purse-proud for his game. The end justifies the means, it is argued, for the bland native, assuming innocence or ignorance, dearly loves to take down the lofty alien. Mr. Menpes also discovered, what is patent to one dwelling among the Japanese artisans, gardeners, painters, children, and even geisha of the old school, how intensely the love of beauty is part of their lives.

Some of the mistakes in the text, due, perhaps, to imperfect hearing, or possibly to a delight in orthographic mutiny, are very amusing, as are also some of the artist's prejudices against Americans, and his occasional little preachments and moralizing, when he reminds one of a spoiled child. Yet these slight blemishes do not for one moment militate against the fact that he has in this book given us a wonderfully true and fascinating picture of Japan. Of the general trustworthiness of his statements there can be no reasonable doubt. From beginning to end, there is a childlike delight in the ways of the working people, who toil with head and hand to make the land they live in lovely, every object of use comely, and their surroundings attractive.

Of course, the attempt to put his original paintings into page spaces of five by four inches is much like that of breaking up grand oratorios into hymn tunes and the melodies of street songs. Nevertheless, the delicacy, richness, and brilliancy of still life are here wonderfully reproduced. Besides being a joy in themselves, these drawings stimulate the delights of memory. Whatever exaggeration there may occasionally be in the text, Mr. Menpes has not overcolored his pictures, nor has he failed to be realistic in rendering the countenances of his human subjects. He has not attempted to make his *mousmes*, or peasant girls, too exalted, or his babies and little folks too wise-looking, or his artisans too remote from common and even sordid care, while yet showing the joy which not only lightens but sweetens their toil. His chapters on the drama, on art

in practical life, and on gardens, besides the very suggestive one on "placing," will be approved even by the most sober critics who know the facts. If, in treating of the geisha, he walks in the broad road with the mob of writers on Japan, and overstates perhaps, one is less inclined even here to find fault with him because his comments, criticisms, and even appreciations are not those of the globe-trotter or the mercantile traveller, but of the true and genuine artist. The work is a veritable triumph of expression by means of most appropriate media.

School Architecture: A General Treatise for the Use of Architects and Others. By Edmund March Wheelwright. Boston: Rogers & Manson. 1901.

Mr. Edmund M. Wheelwright became known as the official architect of the city of Boston, not merely by the excellence of the buildings which he designed, but by his fearless honesty in everything connected with their erection. During his tenure of office it was his duty to design and supervise the erection of many schoolhouses, and he acquired in this way, as well as from his general practice, a knowledge of school architecture that has enabled him to speak with authority in his recently issued work bearing the above title. The fact that a book comes from a recognized expert is by no means an assurance that it will treat its subject satisfactorily. Too often the expert fails to get beyond the limits of his own experience or prejudices; he cannot see his subject whole. But in the present case there is no such trouble. It is not a view of school architecture in Boston or even in the United States that Mr. Wheelwright gives us, but rather a view of typical examples of the schools of most of the countries in which public education is well developed. He displays the plans of a very large number of schools, so arranged and so connected by the text that the reader is able quickly to grasp the typical solutions of the schoolhouse problem to which the system of any of the more important countries has given rise. Thus, for instance, in dealing with German schools, we have first a few words on the origin and history of the system and on its present condition, an enumeration of the sundry kinds of schools in use throughout the Empire, and finally examples of each of these, with intelligent comment and explanation. Similarly, but in a less extended way, France, England, and Scandinavia are treated, and finally the United States, to the schools of which more space is given than to those of any other country. The division of the work is not, however, purely geographical, since it is the elementary school in various countries that is first considered, then the secondary school, and finally manual-training schools, mechanic-arts high schools, and training schools for teachers.

At the end of the section devoted to elementary schools, Mr. Wheelwright institutes some interesting comparisons between those of our own country and those of Europe; and because the elementary schools are frequented by far more pupils than all other schools put together, and because it is on them that our whole educational system rests, it will be interesting to review the deliberate judgment of our author regarding them. He selects for his comparison the best examples, the most recent types, whether at home or abroad, and very properly neglects antiquated or discredited systems. In the matter of equipment for gymnastic exercises, for bathing facilities, for instruction in cooking, and in manual training, he finds that American elementary schools are not generally as well provided as are those of Northern Europe, or even of England. The feature of the school garden, already widely in use in Northern Europe, is practically unknown in the United States. In the area and treatment of their playgrounds, American schools are deficient when compared with those of Europe. On the other hand, however, in our elementary class-rooms, we allow a greater floor area per pupil and a greater number of cubic feet of air per pupil than are found in those of any other country. Excepting, perhaps, in the Swiss and in a few recent English schools, American practice provides an ampler supply of warmed fresh air and larger ducts for ventilation than may be found elsewhere. In the best American examples a more satisfactory provision for the disposal of outdoor clothing is made than is the case anywhere except in Switzerland and Scandinavia. A more generous provision of individual desks for pupils is made in America than in any other country.

In one very important way, Mr. Wheelwright finds our elementary schools inferior to those of Europe, and that is in the matter of the distribution of daylight in their class-rooms. In Germany and in Europe generally it is very properly held that light, while abundant, should be admitted to the class-room only from the left of the pupils. Now light, even under such high ceilings as are usual in school-rooms, will not carry satisfactorily in a room wider than twenty-four feet. At the same time a limit of usefulness is soon reached in the length of the room, beyond which pupils are so far from the teacher as to be out of control. It follows, therefore, if the class unit is fixed at a high number, that either efficient control by the teacher or the proper diffusion of light must be sacrificed. In America, since the unit of elementary classes is generally fifty-six pupils, it has been found necessary to make the width of rooms twenty-eight feet, resulting, except in corner rooms, in a dark area along the hall-side of the room, and, in corner rooms, in the introduction of windows in the wall opposite the teacher—a practice as fatal to the teachers' eyesight as would be the use of windows in the opposite wall to that of the pupils. This is a state of affairs over which our architects have manifestly no control, and until our system is modified by the adoption of a class unit of forty-eight or, better, forty pupils, we cannot hope that, in the very important matter of their lighting, our schools will compare favorably with those of Europe.

Mr. Wheelwright's book is intended not alone for architects, but for all who are interested in the deeply important problem of the proper housing of schoolchildren.

The Art and Craft of Garden-Making. By Thomas H. Mawson, Garden Architect. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

Of the making of gardens there is no end; neither is there any end of the making of books about gardens. Among the latest is this by Mr. Mawson, an Englishman—or, rather, the second edition of it, for the first edition was soon exhausted. The author treats his subject from the point of view of the professional garden architect. He holds the happy medium between the extreme formalism of the architect's garden and the complete formlessness too often characteristic of the landscape garden. He deals with such subjects as the choice of site for a garden and the way to treat it, of fences and gates suitable for parks and gardens, of gateways, carriage courts and drives; curbing the fancy of the artist with the practical experience of the engineer. To flower-gardens he naturally gives large space, for gardens are the heart of his matter. Such useful things as kitchen-gardens and orchards do not escape his attention. Thus, from a brief outline of its contents, it will be seen that his work is devoted to the design of gardens and of the surroundings of houses rather than to horticulture; yet that side of the subject is not entirely neglected, since the various trees and flowers grown in Great Britain are treated in some concluding chapters.

The essay, though it lacks high inspiration and delicate touch, fills a useful niche, and is on a far higher plane than the literary output of the average landscape-gardener. Mr. Mawson shows himself in sympathy with the best, both of the old methods and of the new, nor is his work as an artist without its own peculiar attractiveness. His volume is well illustrated—here by photographs of existing gardens, there by pen-and-ink sketches or perspective drawings. In brief, 'The Art and Craft of Garden-Making' is one of the best among recent publications of its kind.

James McNeill Whistler: The Man and his Work. By W. G. Bowdoin. M. F. Mansfield & Co.

The author of 'The Gentle Art of Making Enemies' is the reviewer who could best do justice to the above work, and to his tender mercies we should like to recommend it. Like "Rusty Christopher," Mr. Bowdoin "mingles praise and blame," and it is his praise that we should expect Mr. Whistler's delicate temper to find the more intolerable. In its externals the book is got up to resemble its hero's own publications, but the resemblance does not extend to the writer's style. Imagine the fastidious Whistler reading such sentences as this: "It is but a portrait, and yet it conjures up all that is finest in a young girl, and renders the composition most satisfactory, and makes of it one that is seldom equalled and more rarely excelled." Or this: "While Whistler's art has immortalized Chelsea, the works of both Rossetti and Swinburne have not had similar and appreciable inspiration thus."

One more paragraph we are tempted to give in full, as a sample of both style and reasoning. It is as follows:

"It is possibly as an etcher that Whistler has received the apogee of appreciation and acceptance. There is, it must be said, a

strength of contrast in mere black and white, which when skilfully arranged, combined and massed, in light and shade, and that which is intermediate, produces, at least under the inspiration of the Whistler needle, an art result in an etching that is, generally speaking, more readily accepted by the masses than is the work into which the more elaborate and more intricately complex element of color has been introduced. When one has revelled in admiration for black and white and studied the charm that is inherent, the way is somewhat prepared for the better and more ample understanding of the subtleties that belong to color. The portrayal results that lie within attainment grasp are very great. There is a brilliant firmness and emphasis of touch compassed by the etcher and his lines. They frequently suggest far more than they directly reveal, all of which easily spells fascination to a larger extent even for the observer who entirely lacks art education, and is minus advanced culture, than is the case with more elaborate essays in color and color combination."

Why one of the seven plates should be devoted to a photographic portrait of Lady Eden it is difficult to see.

Samoa, Bismarckarchipel und Neuguinea: Drei deutsche Kolonien in der Südsee. Von Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg. Mit 36 Vollbildern, 113 in dem Text gedruckten Abbildungen, und 2 Karten. Leipzig: J. J. Weber. 1902. 8vo, pp. viii, 329.

Seventeen years ago Germany suddenly proclaimed a protectorate over a large part of New Guinea and the archipelago of New Britain. This action was not taken in order to defend other neighboring German territory, or because of great commercial interests in these regions, for none existed, but simply in a fever for colonial expansion to forestall its annexation by Great Britain. If Prince Bismarck was also actuated by a belief that there was great natural wealth in these tropical lands which would speedily be developed by his enterprising countrymen, he was grievously disappointed. The German nation has remained not only without interest in but profoundly ignorant of its South Sea colonies, and the Government has systematically neglected them since they have proved, instead of a source of wealth, merely an additional burden upon the Empire. The estimated revenue for 1900 was in round numbers $18,000, the expenditure $200,000. There seems to be no inherent reason, however, why New Guinea should not prove as profitable a possession as Java, if the right means to develop its resources are taken. To show this, and also to arouse the interest of his countrymen in the little isolated band of officials, traders, and missionaries on these lonely shores, is the main object of the book before us. Herr von Hesse-Wartegg brings to his patriotic task well-trained powers of observation, gained from extensive travel, and considerable descriptive ability. He has been thoroughly conscientious in his work also, for to inform himself of the conditions he visited nearly every place in the two colonies, however remote or difficult of access, where a white man was stationed.

His starting-point was Singapore, and he calls attention to the fact that the voyager from the East, after leaving the Moluccas, finds no trace of the white man until he reaches the German station, Berlinhafen, a thousand miles distant. In the western half of New Guinea, over which Holland has claimed sovereignty for three-quarters of a century, there is not a white settler nor a Government representative, and during the four days' steaming along its shores, not even a canoe was seen. In Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, as the German colony is called, there are seven trading and mission stations, which are struggling for existence under great difficulties, the chief of which now are the remoteness from a market and the scarcity of labor. The cultivators of the tobacco, cotton, and coffee plantations are Melanesians and Chinese, the few natives being averse to any work save the gathering of cocoanuts. Our author was most impressed with the remarkable beauty, surpassing anything he had ever seen elsewhere, of the neighboring colony, Bismarck Archipelago, as New Britain has been renamed, and expresses his surprise that these "island paradises" should still remain far aside from the stream of world travel. The inhabitants, who are addicted to cannibalism, are apparently of a higher degree of intelligence than the Papuans, and many interesting particulars are cited in respect to their life and peculiar customs. The music of several of their songs is given, doubtless on the assumption of their being characteristic. Two of the Samoan, however, are unmistakably revival tunes taught the islanders by the missionaries. The Germans are slowly forming friendly relations with these people, and Hesse-Wartegg was one of the Governor's companions on a first visit of white men to the island of St. Matthias. The ship came to anchor at nightfall off the shore, and, in order to detect any hostile designs of the natives, a searchlight was cast upon the beach and adjacent water.

"When the blinding white light fell on the dark, mirror-like surface of the sea, there sprang from the illumined circle thousands and tens of thousands of frightened fishes seeking with great leaps refuge from the strange disturber of their rest in the dark water beyond. Their bodies shone and glistened like electric lights, and the falling drops as well as the upspringing spray of the agitated sea glowed like a continuous shower of diamonds in indescribably dazzling beauty. . . . On the disappearance of the fish from the lighted spot, it was only necessary to turn the ray upon another place to produce the same spectacle. Now here, now there, now in the immediate neighborhood, now in the far distance, the spectral illumination was repeated to our unwearied gaze."

These islands are subject to frequent earthquakes, and the natives have a remarkable prescience of their coming. In the early morning of September 11, 1900, the whites at one of the stations saw the natives rushing from the bush to the sea without any apparent reason. For nearly two hours they stood waist deep in the water, and then the shock, of which they had had mysterious warning, came.

At Samoa our author is on comparatively familiar ground, but he has much that is interesting to tell of his excursions to the different German stations, and of the impression which the attractive natives made upon him. In describing their habits and social customs he offends, at least in one instance, against good taste by giving unnecessarily minute details. Another blemish is the bitter anti-English spirit manifested throughout, which would be amusing if it had not its serious side. He continually resents the prevalence of "Pidgen-Englisch," and impliedly finds fault with the English and American missionaries, who have been laboring in these regions for half a century, because they teach in English and not in German. He actually accuses those in Samoa of "spreading the belief among the natives that England would reconquer Samoa as soon as the South African war was ended." For the French Roman Catholic missionaries, on the other hand, he has nothing but commendation for their self-denying work. The first two questions which the colonists put when a ship arrives are, "Have the Navy-Increase and Colonial Bills passed? Have the English had more trouncings from the Boers?" This hatred, born apparently of simple jealousy of England's success in colonization, has not prevented the Germans from imitating English methods. In these colonies there is little or none of the despotic militarism which chokes the growth of German East Africa. The few officials have great freedom of action, due largely to the fact that it takes four months to communicate with the home Government and get an answer, even by cable. A very great obstacle to the substantial growth of the colonies, to which repeated reference is made, is the unwillingness of the German women to share in the toils and privations of the men. In the three colonies, containing some five hundred Germans, mostly young men, there were, at the time of our author's visit, only two German women; in Samoa, not one.

A most instructive feature of this entertaining volume is the beautiful illustrations, which enable one to form the best possible conception of the appearance of the natives, their houses and customs. They also show very effectively the marked distinctions of type between the brutal Papuan and the beautiful and intelligent Samoan, and fill one with astonishment that such differences could exist between people living in almost the same conditions. There are some excellent maps showing each mission and trading station, and in Samoa the lands belonging to the different companies. We have noted a slight error in the account of the Solomon Islands, which were discovered, not, as is stated, in 1566, but in 1568.

Chapters on English Metre. By Joseph B. Mayor, M.A. Second edition, revised and enlarged. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901.

The first edition of this book (1886) we reviewed in the following year. We are concerned here with chapters vii., xiv., and xv., which are added in the second edition. Chapter vii. consists of the examination and criticism of two recent metrical systems. The former is that of Mr. Robert Bridges in his 'Milton's Prosody' (Oxford, 1893); the latter, that of Dr. Skeat on the Scansion of English Poetry, in the Transactions of the London Philological Society for 1897-1898 (pp. 484-503). These two systems are taken up, scrutinized, weighed, valued, and, one may say, disposed of. Mr. Bridges possesses much insight, fine feeling for the verse he expounds, and unquestionable comprehension of Milton's subtler beauties in handling the heroic line. This chapter leaves our admiration for Mr. Bridges's qualities undisturbed, but makes it difficult, if not impossible, to have any

faith in the system which he has devised for expressing his ideas of metrification. Dr. Skeat is handled more roughly. His system is riddled; we might almost say it has been demolished by the hot shot of these strictures. Even more, we are left little regard for his capacity to discriminate between the rhythms of English verse, and less for his feeling for the poetic lilt of admirable lines.

Dr. Mayor has not merely the appearance of entire fairness in what he says in this chapter; fairness itself is manifest throughout, and many of his utterances are admirable, as, for instance, on page 104:

"The type of the metre is ascertained, like a botanical or anatomical type, by comparison of a large number of recognized examples. It is the musical air or theme on which different variations are composed. It is Plato's one in the many, the permanent in the changeable, the persistent background in the mind of the poet and the reader."

Chapter xiv., on Shelley's metre, exhibits the results of careful study, guided by sound sense. Read understandingly, it will be for any beginner an adequate introduction to the study of English verse. A questionable device in scanning is the dissyllabizing of such words as "dares," p. 245, and "tears," page 251. At one point only does the analysis fail. No writer on English verse has yet acknowledged the existence in English of pæonic rhythms. Not recognizing that such is the cadence of the stanzas considered on pp. 251, 252. Mr. Mayor naturally fails to detect and explain the nature of their movement—very tumultuous and varied, indeed; but quite obvious when one has the key.

Chapter xv., on the hexameter and pentameter, is scholarly and satisfying. It does not, to be sure, give an opportunity for trenchant crispness like that of chapter vii., nor does it attain to the well-rounded completeness of the chapter on Shelley. Yet it has some delicious bits, as when (p. 284) we read of dactyls "woolly with harsh elisions." It is surprising that Mr. Mayor considers the fine free hexameters of Swinburne's 'Hesperia' to be "metre . . . not dactylic, but anapæstic"; still more astonishing that he takes them for elegiacs (pp. 292, 293). But this is a small matter, whereas, taken as a whole, this book, of all existing works on English versification, is the most helpful, the sanest, and the best.

The Golden Poppy. By Emory Evans Smith. Palo Alto, Cal.

This book, devoted to the State flower of California, is unique in conception and execution. So far as we know, it is the first attempt to present a full popular account of the artistic capabilities and of the characteristic features of a State floral emblem. The author secured the active service of a hundred willing hands. Some of the scientific helpers brought to him their contributions as to the earliest history, the distribution, and the chief botanical peculiarities of Eschscholtzia, the golden poppy. They have given even a copy of Chamisso's original sketch and of the Latin description, and have traced, in an extremely interesting manner, the course pursued by the first comers, who were either too far south or too far north, perhaps, to see the wonderful bronzing of the hills. Professor Rattan says:

"The first European who came anywhere near the region of Eschscholtzia was Cortez, who visited the peninsula of California in 1534. It is scarcely possible that he saw our plant. Cabrillo, the Portuguese, may have seen it when he landed at San Diego, in 1542; but it is not likely that he knew it from a buttercup. Thirty-seven years later, Sir Francis Drake may have crushed Eschscholtzias when he landed on this coast. It must have been two hundred years after Drake's visit that civilized people—the founders of our first missions—began to notice our State flower, and to talk about it under some Indian name or one of their own making."

And so on down to the coming of the poet, Chamisso, the first botanist who described the plant.

The different species of the genus and the allied genera are indicated with sufficient fulness, so that the book is really a good short treatise on the Californian poppies generally. The giant poppy, the cream-cups, the tree-poppy, and Canbya, all find due place. The author has succeeded in giving, by his fine plates, a clear idea of the vastness of the prodigal wealth of bloom, in its season, and shows how prominent a part the flower plays in the scenery of certain portions of the State. He has been equally fortunate in obtaining photographs of single flowers and in the application of their distinctive features to decorative purposes. Our readers will be surprised at the effects which the dissected foliage and graceful curves of all parts produce, and at the skilful way in which the artistic elements are handled.

The literature is represented, also, in a fairly well-proportioned way (no doubt a most difficult bit of editing), and poems are contributed from many sources, all of which indicate at least the devotion of the people to this interesting blossom. The quatrain, by Philip Morse, which closes the book, shall also close our notice:

"When Israel's captain bade the sun stand still,
Loosed from the orb a million flakes of flame
Were wafted down on meadow, vale, and hill;
And so to earth the golden poppy came."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atherton, Gertrude. The Conqueror. Macmillan.
Bagot, Richard. A Roman Mystery. John Lane. $1.50.
Bourchier, John. The Chronicle of Froissart, Vol. IV. London: David Nutt.
Bridges, Robert. Bramble Brae. Scribners.
Carhart, H. S., and Chute, H. N. Physics for High School Students. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25.
Collingwood, W. G. The Life of John Ruskin. Rev. ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Dobson, Austin. Miscellanies. (Second series.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Dudeney, Mrs. Henry. Spindle and Plough. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Eggleston, G. C. Dorothy South. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Elliott, Walter. The Life of Jesus Christ. The Catholic Book Exchange.
Flynt, Josiah. The Little Brother. Century Co.
Garland, Hamlin. The Captain of the Gray Horse Troop. Harpers. $1.50.
Gunter, A. C. The Surprises of an Empty Hotel. The Home Publishing Co.
Halsey, F. W. Authors of Our Day in their Homes. James Pott & Co.
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Hamilton, E. J. The Moral Law, or the Theory and Practice of Duty. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.60.
Hurll, Estelle M. Tuscan Sculpture. (The Riverside Art Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Isham, F. S. The Strollers. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Joulin, Léon. Les Établissements Gallo-Romains de la Plaine de Martres-Tolosanes. Paris: C. Klincksieck.
Kordgien, G. C., and Kunow, E. Portuguese Conversation-Grammar. Brentano's.
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Little Masterpieces: (1) Swift, (2)) Bacon, (3) Johnson, (4) Milton, (5) Emerson, (6) Goldsmith. Doubleday, Page & Co.
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Mabie, H. W. Parables of Life. The Outlook Co. $1.
McKee, Lanier. The Land of Nome. The Grafton Press.
MacMechan, Archibald. Carlyle on Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic in History. (Athenæum Press Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co.
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Meakin, Budgett. The Moors. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $5.
Meyer, E. C. Nominating Systems: Direct Primaries versus Conventions in the United States. Madison (Wis.): Published by the Author. $1.50.
Morehead, George. Francesca da Rimini. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. 25 cents.
Müller, Margarete, and Wenckebach, Carla. Legenden von Gottfried Keller. H. Holt & Co. 35c.
Munn, C. C. Rockhaven. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Norton, C. E. The Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri. 3 vols. Rev. ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.50.
Pattee, F. L. Mary Garvin. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 10, 1902.

The Week.

President-elect Palma explicitly declared, in his address to the Chamber of Commerce, on Thursday, that the tariff measure for Cuba proposed by the Ways and Means Committee "will in no way afford any relief to the present distress of the Cuban producers." This is in line with his article in last week's *Independent*, in which he asserts that, with anything less than 33 per cent. reduction on Cuban sugar, "the attempt, for us, is hopeless." With that our own Military Governor, Gen. Wood, agrees. He publicly stated, before leaving Washington the other day, that the 20 per cent. reduction would not do. Yet no larger concession will a Republican House grant, and then only after endless wrangles and delays, and with most onerous conditions attached. Already, too, the Senate is preparing to loiter about the business in its most approved fashion. Indeed, Senator Burrows is now urging the President to have the whole thing put over till next December, with a commission of Congress to be appointed to ascertain "the facts." But it is not facts that Congress lacks. Leadership and consistency are what it wants, with the courage to legislate for a dependent people, instead of for Oxnard. Meanwhile, the country has grown exceedingly weary, not of the well doing of Congress, but of its doing nothing at all; and in place of our old fine glow in behalf of the wronged Cubans, we hear it muttered that they always were a nuisance anyhow, and are now a set of unblushing beggars. It is American protectionists who say this now. It used to be the Spanish protectionists who said it. But we heroically freed Cuba from *their* oppression.

We congratulate the infant and struggling Beet-Sugar Trust on its flattering financial statement covering the past year's operations. An increase in gross profits of $185,853 over the previous year, on a product more than doubled; the most rosy estimates for "the campaign of 1902," and not a word about any danger of competition by Cuban sugar, or fear of what Congress may do—can the Oxnard who lays all this good news before the world be the same friend of the beet who is striving at Washington to show that he will be a ruined man if Cuban reciprocity prevails? It must have been some nefarious use of a proxy that attached his name to this annual report. As it stands, it is a document as awkward to the rescuers of the imperilled beet as was that famous Oxnard-Cutting circular maintaining that beet sugar could be profitably manufactured in this country, even if Cuban sugar were to come in absolutely free.

The Oleomargarine Bill has passed the Senate by a vote of 39 to 31. It is an application of the principles of "protection" to our internal trade, and it is capable of indefinite extension. The pretence originally set up against oleomargarine that it was injurious to health has been abandoned, but not without a struggle. The creameries and the manufacturers of "process butter" clung to the theory that oleomargarine was a deleterious compound until they were thrown out of court by their own witnesses, the experts of the Department of Agriculture. The regulations and the Government inspection which have been enforced for several years past have had consequences the very opposite of what were intended by the promoters. They have improved the quality of oleomargarine, and they have given it reputation and popularity which it would not have gained so soon or so easily in any other way. This warfare against it has advertised oleomargarine throughout the world as a wholesome and cheap article of diet to millions of people who would never have thought of eating it if its merits had not been thrust before their eyes and dinned in their ears through successive sessions of Congress. According to the testimony of the anti-oleomargarine Senators, this "fraudulent butter" has become so popular that its sale is increasing, in spite of the most stringent laws of the several States. Hence the necessity of new and severer laws on the part of the Federal Government.

The law provides that any person selling oleomargarine and furnishing it for the use of others, except his own family, who shall mix with it any artificial coloration that causes it to look like butter, shall be held to be a manufacturer of it, and shall be subject to the tax provided by existing law; that upon oleomargarine colored so as to resemble butter a tax of 10 cents a pound shall be levied, but upon oleomargarine not colored the tax shall be one-fourth of one cent per pound; that upon adulterated butter a tax of 10 cents a pound shall be levied; and that upon all process or renovated butter the tax shall be one-fourth of one cent per pound. The only article in the list that is really injurious to health is "process butter," which is a mixture of old and new butter, sweet and rancid butter, chemicals, salt, and coloring matter, produced largely in various parts of the country. This stuff is taxed only one-fourth of a cent per pound, and there is no prohibition of artificial coloring matter. Any amount of deception may be employed to work this off upon the public, but if any person colors oleomargarine which is perfectly fresh and sweet he must pay a tax of 10 cents per pound.

The American sailor suddenly took a hand in the discussion of the Chinese Exclusion Bill in the House on Monday. An amendment was offered to exclude Chinese sailors entering American ports on American ships. This seems logical. If Chinese competition is too strong ashore, it must also be on shipboard. Moreover, here was a direct way to aid the American sailor, for whom the shipping interests have such a tender concern—when they are asking for a subsidy. Curiously enough, however, they strenuously objected to this form of Chinese exclusion, saying that it would compel them to transfer their vessels to the British flag. The amendment was adopted by the House, nevertheless; but it will probably be squeezed out before the bill finally gets through Congress. Yet it has served to display, in a strong light, the sincerity of the subsidy-seekers in their assertion that their hearts bleed when they think of the American sailor, and that the high wages they desire to pay him explain their raid on the Treasury.

The Chicago *Tribune* animadverts on a clause in the Ship-Subsidy Bill which was offered as an amendment by Senator Hanna just before the passage of the measure in the Senate. It is at the end of section 17, the last one in the bill, and in these words:

> "Nothing contained in this act, or in any other act of Congress, shall be construed to prevent any citizen or corporation of the United States or of any State from contracting for, acquiring, holding, or operating any interest in one or more steamship lines engaged in foreign commerce; but no foreign-built ship of any such line shall hereafter be admitted to American registry."

This amendment was adopted without debate. The Chicago *Tribune* thinks that it is intended to open the way to the purchase and control of foreign steamship lines by American railway companies, and to exempt them from the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. This would seem to be the effect of the words employed, since the exemption is made applicable to former acts of Congress, as well as to this particular one. The Chicago *Tribune* rightly calls it a dangerous and audacious proposition.

The *Tribune*, by the way, has been a consistent and untiring opponent of the bill from the beginning, and has rendered conspicuous service to sound principles

of government by repeated exposure of its swindling features. Its Washington correspondent has made an informal poll of the House, and finds that if the bill were brought to a vote at the present session, it would be defeated, and that in the short session beginning next December it will meet the cold shoulder of Speaker Henderson and other House leaders, who will find means to stave it off altogether. The Washington bureau of the New York *Herald* reaches the same conclusion, after a personal canvass of the House. It quotes the opinions of Hepburn and Cousins of Iowa, Corliss and Smith of Michigan, Crumpacker and Robertson of Indiana, Mann of Illinois, Loud of California, and Cushman of Washington, as strongly opposed to it, either now or at any other session. Congressman Bartlett of Georgia is quoted as saying that "Speaker Henderson will not allow it to come to a vote," but, of course, that must be a mere guess. Gen. Grosvenor, the champion of the bill in the House, made the remark, according to the *Herald's* correspondent, that "all he hoped for this session was a report from the Committee," but it seems doubtful whether even this can be obtained.

Signs of doubt and hints of heresy, on the subject of protection, have long been multiplying among its supposed beneficiaries, but few declarations in favor of a modified confession of protectionist faith have been more frank and decided than those lately made public in a number of letters from manufacturers to the editor of the *American Machinist*. They embody the views of some fifty-eight leading makers of machine tools, and may be taken as the fruit of the business experience of men employing more than 21,000 artisans, and with more than $35,000,000 of invested capital. Of the fifty-eight who were willing that their views should be put into print, no less than thirty-eight endorsed, without qualification, the opinion as to the necessity of reciprocity treaties laid down by the late President McKinley in his last speech at Buffalo; seven approved it with some qualifications, and none disagreed. Thirty-four openly acknowledged that on their own products they need no protective tariff, while only two asserted that there is still such a need. On the question whether to modify or do away with the present tariff on machine tools, there were forty-two for and but three against a change. Thirty-eight expressed the belief that the tariff now in force restricts our foreign trade in machinery.

Hardly less revolutionary are the reasons assigned by the manufacturers for their present belief. Conditions, they make bold to pretend, have changed. "We have largely outgrown the need" of protection, says one; "it is already beginning to hamper and injure our industries by retarding the growth of our foreign trade." Another adds, "We are out of our infancy as a manufacturing country, and have very few industries that cannot stand alone. What we want is markets, not protection." Protection is but "a course of training for that industrial and financial battle for the world's supremacy which it is our determination to win." Says one letter: "The alarm about the tariff is an inheritance which became rooted at a time when conditions were almost directly the reverse of what they are to-day." Labor is no gainer from protection, believes a Philadelphia manufacturer of gear-wheels. "Tariff can protect only investors of capital. Labor cannot profit by it, for it tends to increase wages only in the measure in which it tends to increase prices." So the comments run. Gentle or harsh, the criticisms passed on existing laws are manifestly the result of no idle web-spinning, but rather the product of long and often costly experience in broad commercial fields. Yet to champions of the so-called American system, this practical repudiation must seem both unkind and ungrateful.

Senator Hansbrough on Monday week introduced an amendment to the Army Appropriation Bill which provides one million dollars for the construction of post exchanges—that is, recreation buildings for army posts. In a letter to the *Evening Post* which has been widely copied, Capt. Edward C. Brooks of the Eleventh Cavalry urged, some months ago, that just this action should be taken by Congress as a means of keeping the soldiers contented, without the sale of intoxicating liquors by the Government. Hitherto one of the strongest arguments for the canteen has been that out of its profits billiard tables, reading-matter, gymnasium outfits, etc., could be purchased for the use of the enlisted men. At the same time the desire to make a good showing along these lines has led many a canteen officer to allow indiscriminate and excessive drinking, to the detriment of the morals of the troops. Gen. A. S. Daggett is another officer who has been urging that the Government should supply a post club out of its own means in the interest of temperance and morality. Indeed, Senator Hansbrough's proposal will have the endorsement of men of both schools in the army—of those who favor the sale of beer, and of those who are opposed to it on principle and in practice. It is an interesting fact that some of the officers who have recently returned from the Philippines are not nearly as enthusiastic about the canteen as they were.

In the matter of army promotions to generalcies, President Roosevelt has had to choose between two classes of candidates—those who are comparatively young and still vigorous, and those who are near retirement and worn out by forty years of service. It has been his desire, where possible, to put young and vigorous officers in responsible positions—men who could be counted on for at least ten years of energetic service, and who were in hearty sympathy with the progressive ideas which have come to prevail in the War Department under Secretary Root's régime. On the other hand, Mr. Roosevelt has recognized the desirability of rewarding men even at the close of long and faithful careers, and this feeling dictated the promotions last week of Brig-Gen. Hughes and Cols. De Russy, Burt, and Sheridan. Gen. Hughes's service in the southern Philippine Islands is still fresh in mind. In recognition of this and his approaching retirement for age, he was jumped over five other generals. Cols. De Russy and Burt were the senior colonels of infantry, and Col. Sheridan the ranking officer in the Adjutant-General's Department, next to Gen. Corbin. It is expected that all of the new brigadier-generals will shortly retire at their own request, thus leaving the President free either to promote and retire other old officers, or to fill their places with some of the younger men who have come to the front since 1898. Congress has, however, shown little sympathy for the former procedure, on the ground that it rapidly loads up the retired list with officers of high rank. Singularly enough, it does not object to a similar process of weeding out the older naval officers now going on right merrily, any more than it does to putting numberless loafers and deserters upon the pension lists. The promotions made last week stimulate the hopes and ambition of every officer by demonstrating that long and faithful service will not be overlooked.

Secretary Shaw's proposed regulations for the inspection of baggage belonging to returning American travellers probably go as far as is possible under the law. His plan is, in the first place, to hand each outgoing tourist a circular, fully setting forth the statutes as respects duties and declarations. Then the repatriated American is to pack his trunk so that the dutiable goods he has to declare will be on top and ready to the inspector's hand. That official is to credit the passenger's oath, to collect duty only on the articles declared, and to refrain from delving into trunks except in cases where the service has information that smuggling is being attempted. Even then the examination is to be conducted on a part of the dock screened off from the public, so that the spectacle of baggage gutted as by looters, and underwear flung about the pier, will no more remain as the first introduction of foreigners to Ameri-

can official delicacy. Mr. Shaw is to be highly commended for having so far listened to the prayer of the ladies who have been memorializing him for a modification of the existing barbarous regulations. He has acted like a man of sense; and if Congress would only muster an equal amount, and return to the McKinley baggage law altogether, a national reproach would be removed.

If Boss Platt was to be canonized at all, it cannot be denied that the "Amen-Corner" tributes to him on Friday last were paid with fitting accompaniments of harlequin and circus clown. Mr. Depew, in his character of machine jester, thought it infinitely amusing to tell the company how Platt absorbs all the powers and perquisites of that Senatorship which he contemptuously flung to "Our Chauncey," as a cook would throw a crust to an importunate beggar. Ex-Gov. Black joined the merry-making with a handsome certificate to Platt as the boss who "never betrayed," and whose position was "never in doubt." This came trippingly from the tongue of the man who, in 1897, told all the world of Platt's treachery to him and treason to the party. But the greatest mirth-producer of them all was Secretary Root, who, amid screams of laughter, we should suppose, produced a "glowing eulogy" of Senator Platt. The aim of the speakers seemed to be to see who could most completely throw decency and character to the winds. First prize should go to Secretary Root, so far as we can make out from the report of the speeches in praise of a man whose political influence he has himself declared to have been wholly bad.

More complete details of the election in Chicago on April 1 indicate that the outcome may well be regarded as highly gratifying to the friends of good government, there and elsewhere. Unfortunately for the general understanding of the result, the Chicago correspondents insisted upon "featuring" in the early reports the reëlection of that bizarre character, "Bath-house" John Coughlin, whose absurd notoriety throughout the country furnished a pretext for headlines dear to the yellow heart. The fact is that the Municipal Voters' League went into the eight supposedly hopeless wards, and, out of the eight, succeeded in defeating four of the notorious corruptionists of the Board of Aldermen. On account of these efforts, and the excellent results in other parts of the city, three-fourths of the members of the new Board of Aldermen are men who have either already behaved with credit in the Council, or who have such a standing in the community as to afford a reasonable presumption that they will work in the public interests. Not the least of the causes for joy over the result is the final abolition of the township system that existed within the city, which has been a source of endless scandal. Altogether the League has a right to congratulate itself. As a result of more than six years of persistent fighting, it has carried the city safely through a critical period of its history, and the outlook was never brighter than it is to-day.

That "British camp" near New Orleans, which the Governor of Louisiana excitedly reports to Secretary Hay, must be peopled by ghostly visitants from the graves in that vicinity which Andrew Jackson filled with British soldiers. If the British Government is buying horses and mules and fodder and provisions in this country, it is acting perfectly within its rights, as are those American citizens who embrace the opportunity to dispose of their produce to a good cash purchaser. In order to ship horses and cattle, there must be some sort of place to receive and keep them, and to call it a "camp" does not make it a military occupation of our soil by a foreign Power, as Gov. Heard seems to imagine. Nor in all this is there any violation of our neutrality laws. Americans could even sell munitions of war to Great Britain, and this Government could not interfere. A naval or military expedition fitted out on our shores against a foreign country we should be bound to prevent; but the rest is simply lawful commerce, which it is our duty to protect, not suppress, and the British Minister is justified in asking, as he is said to have done, that his agents in Louisiana be protected in their lawful pursuits.

That extraordinary human document, the last will and testament of Cecil Rhodes, is based upon a single idea—the advancement of the English-speaking race towards the domination of the world. It is needless at this time to discuss this theory of a conquering Anglo-Saxondom. It is a political axiom which we utterly distrust, and we recall who it was that told the first earth-dwellers, "Ye shall be as gods." Mr. Rhodes never learned that this was rather a temptation to mankind in general than a promise to the Anglo-Saxon race. What he has done is to endow lavishly upwards of a hundred scholarships at his own university, Oxford. This shows, to begin with, the confidence of a very shrewd and absolutely unsentimental promoter of vast financial schemes, in what is usually regarded as a dilettante and ultra-academic education. Mr. Rhodes believed that leaders of men like himself were best bred among the leisurely studies and the frank comradeship in sport of the English college. That he had in mind a kind of moral efficiency, rather than mere intellectual alertness and culture, is shown in the very curious provisions under which the beneficiaries of his scholarships are to be selected. To intellectual capacity only a minority account of four-tenths is to be allotted; the remaining six points are based upon love of sport, "manly qualities, and moral force." One can see here an echo of Mr. Rhodes's own academic career, and the desire, natural and even pathetic, to create strenuous passmen after his own image. The assignment of two scholarships to every State and Territory of the United States is the most striking feature of the plan. It is an inspiring idea, to bring together in the close companionship of English college life, an élite of American and English students. One may doubt that such association will produce numbers of Cecil Rhodeses for the militant purposes of the two great English-speaking nations, but one cannot doubt that it will lead to a greater friendliness between two nations which should be friends.

Every one is delighted to find that Lord Rosebery's name leads the list of trustees, even if it appears somewhat incongruously upon the same board with Dr. Jameson and Mr. Beit. At Oxford there is naturally only one voice—and that of commendation. But the Masters of the various colleges are beginning to ponder the practical implications of this astounding gift. The aristocratic Christ Church practically warns off all Rhodes Scholars unless they are willing to spend the whole of the $1,500 stipend in term time—an interesting, because unconscious, opinion as to the average cost of living at this famous college. New College and Magdalen, which divide with Christ Church the honors for numbers and social prestige, have not been heard from. All Souls', which, by deed of foundation, accepts only four undergraduates, is not affected by the new dispensation. Balliol, from a scholar's point of view the foremost of the Oxford colleges, is friendly to the project. In general, it may be said that Oxford, and especially the smaller colleges, will welcome the Rhodes Scholars heartily. No thoughtful educator will fail to see, however, that there are great practical difficulties in applying to candidates the kind of tests which the will stipulates. The authorities of the Oxford colleges also remind the public that the Rhodes scholarships, as is almost inevitably the case with this form of benefaction, add to the charges of the colleges without supplying sufficient additional revenue. In general there is a large idealism and, possibly, impracticability about the bequest, surprising in view of Mr. Rhodes's great practical achievements. Dealing with these high questions of education and of international conciliation, he leaves the somewhat pathetic impression of one who "wanders in a world unrealized." But let our readers turn to our London letter.

SINCERITY WITH CUBA.

All public policy ought to be sincere and straightforward, but there are peculiar reasons why our dealings with Cuba should be free from the suspicion of tortuousness. In addition to the special and solemn obligations which we took upon ourselves in regard to that island, at the beginning of the Spanish war, we have a very delicate political and governmental problem on our hands. We are proposing to solve it by one of those legal fictions so dear to the Anglo-Saxon mind. Cuba is to be treated as if she were independent; yet we all know, and the Cubans know, that it is only a quasi-independence that is in contemplation. The American protectorate over the island is not to be declared, but is to be tacitly exercised nevertheless. Obviously, the relations of the two countries, under such circumstances, will have to be very circumspectly managed and nicely balanced. This makes the case one for absolute good faith and proceedings, within the limits mutually agreed upon, entirely above board. Failing such a course, there will be certain fiasco.

We rehearse these simple truths merely in order to apply them to the latest proposal respecting Cuba. Admiral Bradford has returned from his naval survey of Cuban harbors, and is to urge our Government to demand a naval station at Havana. The reasons he gives are partly based on that "high-priori" naval strategy into which the mind of the awe-stricken layman cannot, of course, pretend to venture. But his excuse for passing by the magnificent harbors of Guantánamo and Nipe sounds very much like the argument of one who asks, with Franklin, why man is a reasonable being unless for the purpose of inventing a reason for what he wants to do. It seems that in neither of the otherwise perfectly satisfactory sites would "labor be available in time of peace" to erect the necessary shops, docks, etc. Therefore, concludes Admiral Bradford, Havana must be the naval station which the Cubans, under the Platt amendment, are to be asked to sell or lease to the United States.

Now, what are the objections to this proposal, and why should the President overrule it at this time? We pass by the large question of transcendental naval strategy, simply remarking that, if the President and Congress were to let the strategists have their way, we should soon fall to fortifying every spare island in the seven seas, and should have frowning fortifications on every headland. It is enough to point to the exceptional circumstances at Havana which make this particular scheme wholly inadvisable. Strategy is all very well, but statecraft is something higher; and unless Mr. Roosevelt wishes to see the Cubans wrought to a high pitch of suspicion and distrust and cynical despair, and to have his whole Cuban policy put in imminent peril, he will quietly order Admiral Bradford to pigeon-hole his report on Cuban coaling and naval stations.

Why the demand for a naval station at Havana would appear to the Cubans to be an outrage, is clear to any one who looks at the situation as they must view it, and as the Havana press pictures it from day to day. The natives remain, in spite of all we have said, and notwithstanding all our Presidential proclamations, highly incredulous about our withdrawal from Cuba. They doubt if our flag over Morro Castle will ever come down. What would they say if it did come down, only to be run up again a little further around the bay over an American naval station? They would call it a trick, a cheat, an insult; and the look of the thing would justify such language. In the very issue of the *Tribune* containing Admiral Bradford's cool proposals, appears a letter from a Havana correspondent showing how inflammable is Cuban public opinion on this question. President-elect Palma has protested against a naval station at Havana, and "in this," says the correspondent, "he is sustained by so unanimous and so pronounced a sentiment that to attempt such a concession, after having once declared against it, would wreck his Administration."

In that single statement of fact, which is undoubtedly correct, the President would find his warrant in calling a halt upon our impatient naval strategists. To let them go ahead would be to doom President Palma to failure in advance, and if he fails, the announced American policy is also a failure. This is what we have to bear in mind. The Cuban question is, at best, intricate and delicate. The rôle we have undertaken is extremely difficult. For success in it, we require perfect sincerity and absolute truthfulness in all our dealings with the Cubans. If we attempt to be sly, to overreach them, to have unrevealed plans and purposes in the back of our heads, to drive a sharp bargain, to go upon the theory that they cannot be trusted, but that they will trust us no matter how circuitous a route we follow—we shall surely make a botch of it.

The Cubans need no instruction in craft and cunning from us. To undertake the astute and subtle line of policy with them would be as great a mistake as was the dispatch of Lord Palmerston's agent to Italy to teach, as Disraeli said, the countrymen of Machiavelli how to play the game of unscrupulous politics. If we have any hidden Jesuitical schemes concerning Cuba, we shall do ill to attempt to impose them upon the countrymen of Loyola and Molina and Suarez. They can give us points in double dealing and casuistry and beat us hollow. Our only hope is in simple faith and manly honor; and our Cuban policy can succeed only as the Cubans are convinced that we have those qualities and mean to act upon them. Our Cuban diplomacy will be wholly at fault if it resolves itself into "veiled menace or tart lecturing," and does not show itself, rather, what John Morley declares diplomacy to be at its best, when it is "the beneficent art of so reconciling interests, soothing jealous suceptibilities, allaying apprehensions, organizing influences, inventing solutions, that the world may move with something like steadiness along the grooves of deep pacific policy."

"LABOR" AND PRINCIPLE.

The late President McKinley was persuaded by the politicians of the Keystone State to appoint Mr. Terence V. Powderly to the office of Commissioner of Immigration. Powderly had been for some years the head of the organization styled the Knights of Labor. He was not known to possess any qualifications for the office for which he was named, but was believed to possess efficiency as a politician. Shortly after he assumed his new responsibilities at Washington he vindicated his reputation as a "hustler" by writing a letter to Mr. Thomas Fitchie, the head of the Immigration Office in New York, urging him to send his subordinate officer, Mr. McSweeney, to Connecticut to work for the President's private secretary, Mr. Porter, who was a candidate for the nomination for Governor of that State. The method by which Mr. McSweeney was to assist in this enterprise was original and interesting. He was to get Democrats to vote at the Republican primaries. The letter was as follows:

"TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE OF COMMISSIONER-GENERAL OF IMMIGRATION, WASHINGTON, D. C., AUGUST 5, 1898.

"MY DEAR MR. FITCHIE:

"I have just had a long interview with Mr. Porter, the President's private secretary, who is a candidate for Governor of Connecticut. He wants help to carry the primaries, and it is, in a sense, an Administration fight. In Bridgeport they have taken snap action in calling the caucuses for to-morrow night; this he did not know until after he arranged for the interview with me. Under the rules of the party in that State, this year, any one who 'believes in the principles of the Republican party and who will vote for the nominees' may vote in caucuses; and now to the point. Can you reach any one in that city who will assist Mr. Porter to-morrow evening? I know the time is short. The Mayor of Bridgeport, Mayor Taylor, is friendly to Porter, but he is a candidate. Can't Mr. McSweeney run over and get some of his Democratic friends to get into the caucuses and help our friends out? I make this suggestion, and ask you to do what you can. I am writing other friends on the subject. If you have any other one who understands Connecticut politics, who can be trusted, get him to work.

"With best wishes, I remain sincerely yours, T. V. POWDERLY."

We have the best reason to believe that Mr. Fitchie did not make to his subordinate, Mr. McSweeney, the suggestion which his chief, Mr. Powderly, desired, and that no steps were taken by the Immigration Office in New York

to pack the Republican primaries in Bridgeport with Democratic voters.

Other difficulties arose between Powderly and Fitchie, from time to time. About January 1, 1900, Powderly sent a certain George Sladovich to Ellis Island to serve as interpreter. Shortly after reporting for duty he gave evidence of being on terms of too great intimacy with shyster lawyers, ticket scalpers, and other harpies who infest the immigration station, and at the same time newspaper clippings and letters making complaint about his past life were received by Commissioner Fitchie. His appointment was a temporary one, and when the complaints became so frequent and so circumstantial, Mr. Fitchie wrote to the Austro-Hungarian Consul, asking him if there was any truth in them. After some delay, the Austro-Hungarian Consulate reported that Sladovich was, if not a criminal, a fugitive from justice. His temporary appointment being about to expire, the correspondence was transmitted to the Bureau without comment, and immediately Mr. Powderly commenced a series of letters in which the facts were distorted, demanding that Sladovich be continued in the service, and pressure was brought to bear to this end. A civil-service list of three names was received for interpreter in the Serbo-Croatian languages, which contained Sladovich's name. In reply to question 10, which relates to whether the applicant has ever been indicted for a crime, Sladovich falsely answered "No." These facts were reported by Mr. Fitchie to the Commissioner-General, with the request that the matter be reported to the Civil-Service Commissioners, and Sladovich's name crossed from the civil-service list; on which request no action was taken.

The next move was the receipt of a letter by Commissioner Fitchie from Mr. Powderly, enclosing a copy of the original transcript of court proceedings from Croatia, with a sworn translation made by Sladovich himself, in which it was made to appear that he was entirely innocent of crime, and that, while he had been indicted, the court had reversed itself and had given him a triumphant acquittal. This translation was found, upon examination, to be false; the very documents which he had submitted, when properly translated, showed that he had been convicted of a crime, with two others; that he had, with the others, been granted a new trial; that the two had remained and were reconvicted, but that Sladovich had fled from the jurisdiction of the court. Mr. Fitchie's response to this letter was an appeal to the Secretary of the Treasury, stating the facts, and asking him to protect him from such attempts to foist criminals upon the service. The only reply was a vague and indefinite letter from Powderly, which said that he was trying to do justice.

Subsequently Mr. Powderly got his man appointed inspector at New Orleans, where he now is. The inspector formerly in charge at New Orleans, Mr. John A. Wright, now stationed in New York, has stated repeatedly that one of his reasons for applying to be transferred from New Orleans was the action of Sladovich. A New Orleans paper recently stated that Doctor Sladovich had examined a ship with over 700 Italians aboard, and that not a single one had been held up. In view of the notorious fact that those Italians are sent to New Orleans who are afraid to pass the inspection at New York, and that the best Italian ship coming to this port always contains a certain percentage of immigrants who are not only held up, but finally deported, such a general delivery furnishes presumptive evidence that the immigration laws at New Orleans are not being enforced.

Meanwhile, the differences between Powderly and Fitchie have led the President to make a clean sweep at Ellis Island, by an infraction of the principles of civil-service reform which ought not to pass unchallenged. In order to get rid of McSweeney, the Assistant Commissioner, without giving reasons, it was necessary to take his place out of the classified service. That the good of the service was not promoted by this act may be inferred from more than one circumstance. If Powderly was an unfit man for his place, the fact that he was in a constant quarrel with Fitchie and McSweeney was creditable to them. It was presumptive evidence that they were doing right, and it pointed to the clear duty on the President's part to find out on which side justice lay, and to satisfy the public that he was doing right also. The regular and usual procedure in such a case, if the Ellis Island office really needed "cleaning out," would have been to remove the responsible chief of the office and put somebody in the place who would be the real head, and not, as was alleged of Mr. Fitchie, a mere figurehead. That could have been done without violation of the principles of the civil service to which the President has been so strongly committed in the past. Instead of taking this unequivocal course, the President first removed the office of Assistant Commissioner out of the classified service, then called for McSweeney's resignation, and appointed, or caused to be appointed, or intends to appoint, his own friend Murray to McSweeney's place. We know nothing against Mr. Murray, but his merits cannot render harmless the subterfuge to which he owes his appointment.

THE STEEL COMPANY'S FINANCES.

The quarterly report of the Steel Corporation reflects, as was to be expected, the great prosperity of the iron trade. The past quarter's profits, $26,200,000, are, it is true, the smallest of any quarter in the twelvemonth, but this was sufficiently foreshadowed in the January statement, where it was clearly pointed out that the closing of lake navigation cut off the company's mining and transportation earnings. The publication of this report gives occasion to speak again of the two important services which the company's management has rendered to sound finance. It might have suppressed reports, except when convenient to itself, leaving the public to imagine that October's $12,000,000 monthly earnings were to be indefinitely repeated. It might, in the language of the trade, have "forced the market," by joining hands with its only too willing competitors, and driving the price of steel and iron to figures which would have actually repeated last autumn's heavy profits. For either policy it might have found abundant precedent, but it rejected both. It adopted a form of statement of earnings far more complete than any which an industrial concern had previously ventured, and adhered to that policy in the face of decreasing monthly profits. It set its face steadfastly against the efforts of fellow-manufacturers who insisted, angrily and persistently, on putting up prices in full proportion to urgent trade demands. These are services to which, whatever occurs in industrial finance hereafter, the public should give generous recognition.

We have frequently pointed out that the more serious pitfalls in the way of this notable undertaking were financial, not industrial. The directors last week approved the proposition to issue $250,000,000 bonds, of which $50,000,000 go to raise money for needed improvement to the mills, and $200,000,000 to take up an equal amount of preferred share capital. As to the first appropriation, we have already expressed the opinion that the money should have come, in part at least, from the funds diverted into dividends on the common stock. The plan for converting one-fifth of the company's share capital into bonds, however, raises a more serious question. The main objection to this project has been tersely expressed by so sound and experienced a trade organ as the *Engineering and Mining Journal*, which remarks:

> "In a business which is subject to such fluctuations as the iron and steel trade, it is never wise nor safe to substitute fixed charges, which must be met, for dividend payments, which can be postponed in a bad year. This is an axiom which even so powerful a company cannot disregard."

The conversion of share capital into bonds is an experiment always to be undertaken with the utmost regard to future possibilities of diminished earnings, and to be rejected, in our judgment, unless circumstances make it imperatively necessary. Had there, for instance, been an adjacent property which the Steel Corporation absolutely needed for its business purposes, and had the money market been in such condition that the requisite capital could not be raised ex-

cept through the sale of bonds, we think the expedient would have been defensible.

But the Steel Corporation's proposed conversion is not a case in point. The $200,000,000 funded debt to be created adds not a dollar's worth of property to the company. It saves, undoubtedly, in annual outlay as compared with the fiscal year just closed. The transformation of two hundred million dollars' capital from 7 per cent. preferred shares into 5 per cent. second-mortgage bonds will save four million dollars annually to the company, so long as the dividend on the existing preferred share capital is earned. The directors were also careful to point out that conversion is not compulsory. No one who chooses to take his chances for future 7 per cent. dividends on his stock will be forced to accept a 5 per cent. bond instead. But that phase of the matter is, we should say, somewhat beside the question.

It is the financial wisdom of the policy, from a corporation's own point of view, which is under debate. The Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway has outstanding upwards of forty millions' worth of 7 per cent. preferred shares. The conversion of this respectable sum of capital into 5 per cents would save $800,000 annually, and enable the company to pay nearly 2 per cent. extra on its common shares. Instead of proposing such a policy, even when the stock was selling at low prices, the company made some older mortgages convertible into stock, and has thus converted thirty millions of its funded debt in the past generation. The Chicago and Northwestern's $22,000,000 7 per cent. preferred stock would have offered a similar annual saving of some $400,000 through such a funding plan. The Lackawanna Company pays 7 per cent. on $26,000,000 common shares. If it had funded half of this capital into bonds at 5 per cent., it could obviously pay 9 per cent. on what was left. Why have these companies, with their shrewd and alert financial management, failed, in the numerous vicissitudes of trade and prices, to make use of this philosopher's stone of profit? If the expedient was wise for the Steel Corporation, surely the railway companies have been remiss in their duty to their shareholders.

We have had a number of striking illustrations, very lately, of the possibilities involved in such a policy. Each month emphasizes the conviction that these huge industrial corporations are experiments. We are confronted, on the other hand, with perfectly unmistakable evidence that the tendency of the time, in many quarters, is to fling aside all restraint imposed by the bitter recollections of 1893, and to pile up the liabilities of ambitious corporations as if the present industrial "boom" were to last for ever. We say, therefore, that, wholly irrespective of the result on the Steel Corporation's own finances, its move in this line is a very serious thing. There are interests to consider, it must not be forgotten, quite apart from the interests of the Steel Corporation's constituency. Glancing over the list at random, we can point out nineteen separate industrial companies, with aggregate preferred share capital of $238,000,000, every dollar of which draws 7 per cent. annual dividends, largely cumulative, and every dollar of which has as much *prima-facie* right to conversion into bonds as the Steel preferred. People who argue that the Steel Corporation's action, as ratified by its Board of Directors, will not exert a most baleful influence on these other corporations, show that they do not understand the history of American finance. For we wish to make this point emphatically, that the inducement to such conversion, in the case of a board of managers which suspects disaster, will be ten-fold greater than in a sound and solvent corporation.

ACADEMIC STUDIES AND DEGREES.

A Ministerial scheme for the reorganization of secondary education in France bears striking analogies to the recent development of collegiate training in this country. At present the secondary schools, which correspond roughly in their later years to our colleges, are conducted upon the principle of "bifurcation"—that is, scientific and humanistic studies are separated from the first, and each course has its appropriate degree—respectively, Bachelier ès Sciences and Bachelier ès Lettres. Practically, the latter degree has been the most valued; it has, in fact, been required for entrance into the liberal professions, and it carries something of the social prestige of the traditional degree in arts. Against this degree, with its requirements of the ancient languages and philosophy, the same complaints have been made that were used against the traditional college course in America—its impracticability, and its failure to recognize science and modern languages, with its lack of application to an industrial democracy.

Just how the French Ministry proposes to secure the "democratization" of secondary education is aside from our present purpose. Suffice it to say that the older scientific and modern-language courses are to be of seven years' duration, like the classical course; that each course is to be subdivided into periods of four and three years, so that those who have no marked scholarly capacity may withdraw with a sufficient general education, and even enter upon their professional studies, at the end of the first "cycle"; while those who continue to the baccalaureate degree may follow either the traditional courses in philology and philosophy, or reach the same goal after three years' study in the sciences and the modern languages. Criticism of a plan which resembles strikingly the American college course under the elective system, would point out the confusion of two wholly different kinds of education—one absolute and humanistic, one mediatory and utilitarian.

This confusion, if confusion it be, we have in practically every American college to-day. Wherever the elective system has been fully established we see, beside the students who follow "humane letters" in the old sense, and come out of college educated, to be sure, but unprepared for any particular profession, students who are following natural science to the practical exclusion of the so-called "humanities." These students are often in their upper-class years following strictly professional studies; in fact, the practice of several universities allows them to enter the professional school at the end of their junior year. Now, it is not the time to plead the cause of one education against the other, but it does seem fair that somewhere or other the difference of intention should be recognized. For centuries the degree of Bachelor of Arts has stood for disinterested and "clerkly" study, and there is a real confusion of ideals in applying this historic degree to a candidate who offers a modicum of modern languages and history to adorn a four years' period spent over a laboratory table. The training of such a student has been in science, and he is a Bachelor of Science. To call him otherwise is to class him where he does not belong.

We are aware of the theory of academic equivalents, which is fairly admissible for the university studies. President Gilman, in starting the "group system" in the undergraduate department of Johns Hopkins University, practically gave his assent to the theory that it matters little what is taught; much how it is taught. President Eliot of Harvard has forced upon this entire country, with something very like genius, his belief that all subjects of college study are of essentially equal educative value, so they be taught equally well. It is due to his influence that the colleges have generally yielded Greek, and are likely to yield Latin. He, too, is responsible for the tendency to crown the most diverse college courses with the single degree of Bachelor of Arts. With such an authority one differs with great reluctance; as against a condition which has pretty thoroughly established itself, one probably protests in vain. But it is well to see if a course in the humanities does not yet mean something, not necessarily superior to but different from the great variety of curricula which borrow its name and degree.

It is hard to see how any uniform style of nomenclature or any system of academic polity which treats different things as if they were the same, can

do away with the prime distinction between the humanities and the sciences—the studies that lead to knowledge of man, with the flexibility of mind which we call culture, and the studies that lead to knowledge of nature, with immediate practical efficiency. This is a very real difference which is in danger of being obscured. There is no true quarrel between the two ideals. The liberally educated man must in his own time and way become specially educated, and the specially educated man must in life, if not in college walls, seek his liberal education. Only it is absurd to take the two at graduation and affirm by the letters of their degree that both are liberally educated, when one is not.

It should not be forgotten that the degree of Bachelor of Arts has always been in its essence an aristocratic or, if you will, a "clerkly" degree. Until very recent times it has been sought after only by students who had in view the scholar's life or some learned profession. A state of things where the greater majority of Bachelors go into commerce or industry is of yesterday. The influx of those who brought no scholarly ideals and abundant practical needs has changed the whole aspect of college education. In many ways it has quickened it to new life, in other ways it has forced the changing of standards which should have been immutable. These new comers in the colleges were and are welcome. It was fitting that a democratic education adapted to their needs should be worked out, and that the traditional courses in humane letters should gain from this contact with actuality. The mistake was in allowing this new and democratic training to borrow the name and seriously affect the character of the course in arts. The two should have, as they do in several institutions, lived together each under its appropriate name and degree. As things go in our American society, only a few college-bred men are in any fair sense—only a few need to be—Bachelors of Arts. The great majority are Bachelors of Science or Bachelors of Letters, and the institutions which have the courage to call them so have severe logic on their side as well as common sense. The attempt in France or elsewhere to democratize the degree in arts, which is essentially aristocratic, must bring with it no small danger of "plebification."

MR. CECIL RHODES.

LONDON, March 27, 1902.

The death of Mr. Cecil Rhodes does not for the moment affect the situation in South Africa. So long as the war lasted, he was resolved to remain in private life, seeing no means of useful interference. But his departure is nevertheless a momentous event, for, had he outlived the war, he would doubtless have thrown himself into the task of pacifying the hostile elements in the country, and of trying to rebuild the shattered fabric of colonial government. He was by far the strongest personality in South Africa; and although the Dutch had become profoundly alienated from him since the raid of 1895, he had not abandoned the hope of recovering some measure of their confidence, and of inducing them to work in harmony with their fellow-citizens of English stock, as in the days when he was Prime Minister of Cape Colony. Personally, he liked the Dutch, for whose strength of character and sense of personal dignity he was fond of expressing his admiration. He was a strenuous advocate of colonial self-government, and would have done his best to secure its immediate restoration to Cape Colony. His disappearance may thus be regarded as a loss to the prospects, in no case very bright, of reconcilement in South Africa.

Cecil Rhodes was the son of a clergyman of the Church of England, rector of Bishop's Stortford, a small town half way between London and Cambridge. He was educated at the grammar school of the town, and is thus another instance to be added to the many which show how little ground there is for the notion, sedulously propagated and generally accepted by the English, that what is called a "public-school training" is specially favorable to the development of energy, boldness, and the talent for ruling men. His lungs were so weak that at nineteen he was sent to live with a brother in Natal, whence he presently drifted to the recently discovered diamond mines at Kimberley, and spent a number of years there acquiring "claims," and laying the foundations of his immense fortune, while returning from time to time to England to keep his terms and pass his examinations at Oxford. Ultimately he effected a consolidation of all the numerous interests at the diamond mines into one huge company, of which he became the ruling spirit, and turned to politics. His career thereafter is known to all the world.

The characteristic note of his intellect was its power of concentration. He had no very wide range of tastes and interests, nor did his mind play freely upon different subjects. It was absorbed by a few ideas, was accustomed to brood upon them, and was not easily drawn off, even in general society, to other topics. Literature and art seemed to have no great attraction for him. The only department of history which he cared for was the history of the Roman Empire, apparently because it touched his imagination and suggested to him analogies with the history of the British Empire as it has grown during the last two centuries. Indeed, he was so fond of it as to have special translations made for his own use of the works of those more obscure historians of the later imperial period who had not been turned into English; for though he had taken his degree at Oxford, he had no special turn for languages, and had allowed his Latin and Greek to grow rusty. But though he did not shine in general conversation, those who talked with him were always impressed by the force with which he spoke on any practical question. He had always formed his views for himself; he held them with tenacity; he stated them with an air of almost passionate conviction, reiterating them again and again in almost the same words, and seldom seeming to recognize the worth of any objections that might be brought against them. He could, when it was necessary, attend carefully to details and be patient in working them out. No such success as he achieved in business and (for a time) in politics would have been possible without a mastery of details. But he liked better to deal with large conceptions, and to dwell upon a few dominant facts or forces, as if these were the only things that needed to be regarded.

Though he sat for many years in the Cape Parliament and led it as Prime Minister, he lacked the ordinary accomplishments of the practical politician. He was a powerful rather than a persuasive speaker, and by no means skilful in debate; sometimes offending people whom he ought to have conciliated, and often blurting out opinions which it would have been prudent to conceal. His colleagues in the Ministry were always nervous when he rose, though his talent for going straight to the vital issues, and the force of his personality, made him effective. He might in this respect be compared to Bismarck (although the latter was a much greater master of expression), and while not an orator in the recognized sense of the word, he often struck out phrases of extraordinary strength and point.

Although Cecil Rhodes was a sociable man, hospitable and always surrounded by friends, his intellectual life was solitary and isolated. He did not seem to profit much by the counsel of others, nor indeed to feel the need of consulting others. He thought things out for himself, brooding upon them in a half-dreamy way, which seemed in contrast to the steady direction of his thoughts to practical aims. This habit constituted part of his strength. It gave his views consistency and solidity. He had reflected so deeply that he felt sure of himself, and was not easily turned from his purpose. But it had also a weak side: it gave him an undue confidence in his own star, a confidence fostered by the deference which he received from all those who surrounded him, among whom he found no equal. And by putting him out of sympathy with the persons he had to deal with, it affected his judgment. He was so self-absorbed as not always to foresee how his action would strike other people. There can be little doubt that the anger which the colonial Dutch showed against him after the raid of December, 1895, was not foreseen by him, and that, even as late as 1897, he expected to win over enough of their votes to recover his political position in the colony. Men far inferior to himself perceived that this was not to be hoped for.

This mistake—the capital mistake of his life—which brought his political career to a close, was largely due to a singular feature of his character. He had a clear view and a firm grasp of all material forces. He knew how to use money and how to appeal to men's interests; but he did not equally appreciate the influence of sentiment. He had carried the bulk of the colonial Dutch with him in his struggle against President Kruger, because the colonial farmers resented the tariff which the Transvaal Government had placed on their produce, and thus he had come to look upon the whole question as one of economic interests. When the racial feeling of the Dutch burst into a strong flame on hearing of the attack upon the republic of their

kinsfolk, and when this feeling continued to burn strong against himself, effacing from their minds the recollection of their old grudges against the Kruger Government, he was taken by surprise. A force was at work of which his philosophy had made but slight account.

It was said of him by one of his South African colleagues that, proud as they were of his abilities, and much as they found to like in his character, he had done something to lower the tone of their political life by his constant appeal to material considerations. Yet, highly as he valued money for the political uses to which it could be put, he had a soul above money, and never thought of turning aside from his larger aims in order to accumulate wealth. He had no taste for vulgar luxury, and spent little upon his own enjoyment. He was generous in his gifts, and lavish in carrying out any purpose which appealed to his imagination. Neither was there anything petty or malignant about his nature. He roused strong antagonisms as well as inspired strong attachments; but he did not seem to be moved by personal resentments, and would often speak in a genial and liberal way of those who had attacked or opposed him most bitterly. The love of fame and the love of power did no doubt largely influence his course, but they were not separated in his mind from the desire to extend the dominion and consolidate the power of England.

One of the most incontestable proofs that he had a kind of greatness is to be found in the sort of fascination which he exerted over most of those with whom he came in contact. He found it natural to lead and influence men because he had initiative. He made the impression of knowing exactly what he wanted, of knowing how he meant to attain it, of being quite determined to attain it by one means or another. His frankness and directness, which had something Bismarckian about them, heightened this impression. Nothing so much disposes men to follow as the self-confidence of a leader with a record of success. Cecil Rhodes did not boast, but it was easy to see that he had faith in himself.

He belonged to a type of man less common in modern times and civilized countries, because the conditions are less favorable to their development than they were in the Middle Ages or have been in Asia—the type which may be called in no unfavorable sense that of the Adventurer, the man whose imagination is fired by ambition, and whose power of seeing and grasping facts becomes effective by being united to boldness in execution. This type most usually appeared in war, and carried to greatness men whose talent lay in military leadership. Now it has other engines of power available. Mr. Rhodes is the first person who has conspicuously known how to use finance and financial combinations on a large scale as a means of attaining political power and pursuing large political aims. He is a new form of the type, a form suited to the conditions of a still undeveloped country like South Africa. Even those who censure some of his acts cannot but admit that his aims were not solely personal, that he was cast in a large mould, and that an unkind fate denied him the chance which he desired of retrieving the chief error of his life. He will certainly be remembered as one of the most striking and brilliant figures of his time.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

BOSTON, April 5, 1902.

The one hundred and fourteenth Meeting of the Oriental Society took place on April 3 to 5, under the auspices of the trustees of the Boston Public Library, who were good enough to lend the lecture-hall of the Library for the sessions of the Society. While the attendance was not unusually large, the number of papers presented (over sixty altogether) exceeded precedent, and it was necessary to cut down some of the communications to the shortest measure consistent with a clear explanation of the contents, in order to allow any time for discussion between the papers, to each of which in any circumstances a scant quarter of an hour is allotted.

As usual, the papers fell into two main groups, Aryan and Semitic; but there was also a sprinkling of information interesting to both sides, which fell gratefully upon the specialists present. A refreshing study of this sort was one by Dr. Scott, on the Owls and Parrots of Polynesia, from which, although political questions are by mutual consent usually not discussed in the meetings of the Society, allusions to the Eagle also were not omitted, but they were inserted so delicately that neither Imperialist nor anti-Imperialist felt offended at the happy comparison of that bird's expanded wings to these Expanded States. From Manila itself came a letter acquainting the Society with the fact that a number of valuable manuscripts written by the Spanish friars in regard to Polynesian dialects had been discovered by the Department of Education, and papers on these dialects and on Tagálog grammar were read by Dr. Blake.

Some general reports and announcements made to the Society were of more than usual interest. Dr. Casanowicz sent an account of the exhibit of Oriental antiquities in the National Museum at Washington, which has a good collection of Egyptian, Assyrian, and Indian relics. Professor Jackson reported that the Parsi Panchayat of Bombay had kindly sent to the Society a gift of valuable manuscripts, and the Rev. Mr. Yohannan sent a description of the new Persian manuscripts at Columbia. Professor Moore, now of Harvard, distributed advance copies of the long-expected Index to the first twenty volumes of the Society's Journal, his modest announcement of its completion scarcely doing justice to himself as regards the skill and labor expended upon it. The Society has every reason to be thankful to Professor Moore and to Mrs. Moore, who aided him in this arduous work, though it was unable to show its appreciation in any other way than by electing Mrs. Moore to membership in the Society; which it was very glad to do in recognition both of her scholarly ability and of her devotion to the interests of the Society.

The collection of Arabic manuscripts at Yale was reviewed by Professor Torrey, who showed that it was the most important collection in the country after that at Princeton, and cordially invited all Arabic scholars to make use of it.

Professor Lanman, who is the successor of Professor Whitney in the Atharva Veda work which occupied the last years of Professor Whitney's life, announced the speedy completion of the translation of the Atharva with a critical commentary. This translation was made by Professor Whitney, and he had already done some of the exegetical labor required for its completion when he died. Professor Lanman assumed the responsibility of completing the volume, and has spent several years in bringing it to its present perfect form. As it comes now from the press, it is the most complete and exhaustive text critique and translation that has yet appeared in the field of Vedic criticism. Professor Lanman and the little world of Sanskrit scholars are alike to be congratulated on the result of his toil.

Another successor of Professor Whitney, in being a continuator of work begun by him, Professor Oertel, spoke of his renewed investigations of the Jaiminīya Brāhmana, a text prepared by Professor Whitney, but only now reviewed and critically compared with similar texts. Still another announcement (and exhibit) was made by Professor Bloomfield, who described himself also as a successor of Professor Whitney. In conjunction with Professor Garbe, he has just brought out a photographic reproduction of the Kashmirian text of the same Veda, a masterpiece of mechanical skill, and very creditable to the scholars who were willing to spend their time in overseeing so nice a piece of photography, though of course the scholar's work begins where the photographer's leaves off, and there is still to follow a critical edition of the text so handsomely put into permanent form by the aid of modern science.

To speak of the special papers: On the Semitic side, not courtesy alone puts foremost the able paper on the text of the archaic tablet of the E. A. Hoffman collection, presented by Miss Ogden and interpreted by Professor Barton. Two other ladies, members of the Society, also read papers, Miss Lucia Grieve offering a contribution on the evidence of the practice of suttee among the ancient Greeks, and Miss Runkle discussing a Pâli text. As indicated by their titles these papers belonged to the Aryan division, but further papers of general interest on the Semitic side were a handful of literary parallels to the Song of Songs, Professor Haupt leading with a paper on "Biblical Love-Dities"; an account of Syriac wedding and funeral songs by Mr. Huxley of Harvard; a paper on the name of the ferryman in the Babylonian story of the flood, by Mr. Langdon of Columbia, and Professor Wright's report on the excavation of Gezer. Other papers in the same department were offered by Dr. Ward, Dr. Arnold, and Dr. Foote (text critique); Professor Torrey, a Phœnician inscription; the Rev. Mr. Oussani, on a Christian Arabic legend; the Rev. Mr. Yohannan, on the influence of foreign languages on modern Syriac sounds, and by others. Another, which brought out considerable discussion, was by Professor Moore, on Hebrew metre.

On the Aryan side, further studies were presented by Professor Jackson, Indo-Iranian Notes; Professor Hopkins, on the numerical categories in the great Hindu epic and their historical significance; Dr. Gray, on the inscription of Behistun; Dr. Bolling, on the Vedic dual; Dr. Ryder, on Çakuntalâ; Dr. Woods, on the Mândûkya Upanishad; and others.

As has been customary for several years, papers relating to the study of religions were all read on Friday afternoon, before

an audience composed in part of those to whom the more technical essays of specialists are indigestible. The chief paper of that class presented this year was one by Professor Toy, on Creator gods, a searching critique of the Langian system of theogony, as affecting the development of moral gods —a critique that merited far more time for discussion than could be given to it. Professor Jackson, at the same session, gave another instalment of his researches in regard to the religion of the Achæmenians, and, with the help of some excellent photographs, recalled very pleasantly for the Society's benefit his visit to the little-known "Avon of India," Ujjain. Some of the papers already enumerated were read at this session—that, for example, by Professor Haupt, who also brought three more technical studies. Professor Hopkins gave illustrations of epic beast fables in India, presenting at the same time some smaller contributions; popular superstitions in Arabia had been collected and were explained by the Rev. Mr. Oussani; and the Rev. Mr. Sanders of Aintab sent a contribution on Jupiter Dolichenus; while the Rev. Mr. Kohut contributed a paper on Jewish folklore—to name only some of those read at length or in condensed form.

Not the least valuable parts of the communications read at the annual Meeting are the papers from scholars abroad, sometimes missionaries in active service, sometimes students who take this opportunity of acquainting the Society with the latest facts, or it may be fancies, that have come under their observation. At the present Meeting the Society heard from Mr. Stratton, the Principal of Punjâb University, that he had recently been studying a Gandhâra (Kandahar) figure bearing a date which shows the work to have been made about 191 A. D. The most important of these communications came from Dr. Grierson in the form of a letter to the Secretary of the Society; and as the subject-matter is one of general interest, it may be spoken of somewhat fully. For several years Dr. Grierson has been the head of a great scientific enterprise which shows its character by its name, The Linguistic Survey. Out of the data furnished by this Survey, the first attempt thoroughly to coördinate the heterogeneous masses of dialects and languages in British India, have come new facts of ethnographical as well as linguistic bearing. In adjusting these facts and fitting them into their proper historical relations Dr. Grierson has shown a marked ability, and though the results of his keen combinations are not, as he admits, indisputable, yet he has furnished strong evidence in support of the belief that, besides repeated invasions from the Northwest, through the western passes of the Hindu Kush, and so on across Kandahar and Afghanistan into the Punjâb, there was another line of invasion from the headwaters of the Oxus down through the Chitral and Gilgit country, and that this northern invasion was conducted by tribes dialectically different from those which came directly from the West; that it was the latter who first broke into the Punjâb, and that the northern tribes, who eventually entered and conquered the same territory, split apart the homogeneous mass of first settlers, driving them east and south and into the northern hills, while they themselves formed with this semicircle a compact circle of Aryan tribes, differing in dialect but not in race from the earlier inhabitants thus pressed to the wall. The latter were the Vedic Aryans, while the inner circle were the ancestors of the later Sanskrit-speaking people, who called all this inner circle the holy Middle Land in antithesis to the outer rim of Aryan but not Sanskritized people.

It is impossible to display here the linguistic evidence for this theory, which has much in its favor. If, as seems likely, it shall prove the working hypothesis of the future, these Aryans must be credited with having repeated among themselves, on a small scale inside their own racial limits, exactly the procedure of the Aryans as a whole in respect to the Dravidians, who also were beaten southward and eastward and into the hill-country by the superior ability of the Aryans. Dr. Grierson, it may be added, gives a reserved approval—but who would speak with certainty of events so doubtful?—to the theory that these Dravidians formed a connecting link between the Finnish and Australian languages.

The Society had to regret the absence of its President for the second time in two years, the pressure of new duties and his immediate departure for Europe preventing Dr. Gilman from attending. Apart from this, the place of Chairman being well filled by Dr. Ward and Professor Toy in turn, the social side of the Meeting was as pleasant as the scientific was helpful and encouraging. In the latter regard, the number of young scholars who come bringing papers is a good omen for the continued activity of this now venerable society.

E. W. H.

Correspondence.

A BRITISH ACADEMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With regard to your recent article on "A British Academy," permit me to quote a few paragraphs from an address which I delivered last Christmas as President of the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Philological Association, on the "History of English Philology." These paragraphs, incomplete as they are, represent, I think, the first attempt to outline the earlier history of a British Academy. I submit them here with the distinct hope of eliciting some additions and corrections from some of your learned readers:

"The opposition against the opinion of 'rudeness' and 'barbarism' cast by some on the English Language and repudiated by English patriots from the time of Sir Thomas More and Ascham, led to an interesting movement, as far as I know not noticed in the histories of English literature and thought; a movement in favor of following the example set by Richelieu's foundation of the Académie Française (1635). If the purity of the language, its grammar, its orthography needed looking after, why not do this officially? *James Howell* writes in 1650: 'The new Academy of wits call'd l'Academie de beaux esprits, which the late Cardinall de Richelieu founded in Paris, is now in hand to reform the French Language in this particular [viz., in Orthography], and to weed it of all superfluous Letters, which makes the Toung differ so much from the Pen, etc.' (Letters, Sect. II., ed. 1650, p. 257; repeated in, if not quoted from, his ed. of Cotgrave, 1650). Howell writes this to justify his own orthographical 'weeding' out of superfluous letters, and perhaps in the hope of stimulating the foundation of a similar institution in England. It is the same Howell who, in 1630, despaired of calling English 'a regular language in regard, though often attempted by some choice wits, ther could never any Grammar or exact Syntaxis be made of it.' (What this lack of a grammar meant in the eyes of pedants, for centuries, show the words of Royal Ben, and his attempt to 'free' the language from such a blame! But Howell could not know of this first English syntax in 1630!)

"*Dryden* hopes in 1664, two years after the establishment of the Royal Society, for such an Academy to keep foreign words on the other side of the Channel, and to sanction the recent 'refinements' of the language. 'I am sorry,' he says, 'that (speaking so noble a language as we do) we have not a more certain measure of it, as they have in France, where they have an Academy erected for that purpose, and endowed with large privileges by the present King' (Epistle Dedic. Rival Ladies, 1664).

"The *Spectator* (No. 135, Aug. 4, 1711) despairs as to the leaving out of the relative pronoun, a question which 'will never be decided till we have something like an Academy that, by the best authorities and rules drawn from the analogy of language, shall settle all controversies between Grammar and Idiom.' And in May, 1712, follows what Dr. Johnson called the 'petty treatise' of *Swift*, viz, 'A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue.' This expressed its author's desire for an 'Academy,' to correct and 'fix' the English language; 'a Society or an Academy to provide that no words which it shall give a sanction to be afterwards antiquated,' because the English language, 'so defective in Grammar,' was to be 'settled.' Perhaps the climax of Swift's statements is contained in the following words, which show how little he knew of the historical conditions of the development of language: 'I see no absolute necessity why any language should be perpetually changing'—a statement, though, which Swift may have merely copied from a man whose name even a modern philologist does not mention without humility and reverence, *Bentley*, who winds up a paragraph in the *earlier* dissertation (ed. Dyce 2, 13): 'Nay, it were no difficult contrivance, if the public had any regard to it, to make the English tongue immutable, unless hereafter some foreign nation shall invade and overrun it.'

"It required the services of a new St. George to kill these follies and 'Academic' dangers; and *Dr. Johnson* arose as the champion of English liberty, and as a man with an insight, at least, into the main fact of the history of language. He banished at least for a hundred years the dreams of 'regulating the language,' and he did it because he knew that the Germanic mind is not made of a fibre to submit to the dictations of an 'Academy.' He writes: 'If an Academy should be established for the cultivation of our style, which I, *who can never wish to see dependence multiplied, hope the spirit of English liberty will hinder or destroy*, let them, instead of compiling grammars and dictionaries, . . . stop the license of translators' (a humble service, to be sure, for an Academy!)."

Let me add to these remarks that we find an interesting early criticism on the French (?) Academy given innocently in Howell's edition of 'Cotgrave's Dictionary' (1650), *s. v.* "*Academié*, masc., *ée* fem. Besotted, puzled, or plundered with too much skill, or studying." We need not be astonished at not finding this word in the 'Dictionnaire de l'Académie'!

Let me add further to the above that an Academy, or rather several English Academies, were suggested long before the time of Howell and Dryden, by the eminent Antiquary *R. Carew of Anthony*, who, after

becoming a member of what he calls the "Antiquarum" Society (the earliest Elizabethan attempt at an English Academy of the historical sciences), writes in 1605: "It imports no little disgrace to our nation that others have so many Academyes and wee none at all" (Letters of Eminent Literary Men, ed. Camden Soc., p. 99). This last quotation, as well as the one from Dryden, precedes considerably the earliest one in the New English Dictionary (given under 6) from 1691.

The foundation of the Royal Society in 1662 ought to have put an official end, directly or indirectly, to all these desires, if it had carried out fully what was one of its duties, viz., the inclusion of men from fields of learning other than the natural sciences. But the English conception of "science," the unjustifiable narrowing, so abhorrent to the German mind, of this large and universal conception in English, has proved a curse for centuries—a curse not only for the mother country, but also for America. What we need almost as much as a "British Academy" is the getting rid of the narrow application of the word "science," and I think we *are* gradually getting rid of it.

If, therefore, eminent English scholars are calling now for such a supplement to the Royal Society, for an Academy not to give its official stamp to productions in the field of belles-lettres, poetry, and fiction, but to represent the highest scholarship of the country in the field of the historical sciences itself (a *German* conception), it should be hailed as an excellent movement, to which a wonderful future might be promised—a future which would give the quietus to all the unacademic dilettantism which, in spite of brilliant exceptions, has been the curse of the history of the "historical sciences" in England during the past.—Yours respectfully,

EWALD FLÜGEL.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., March 28, 1902.

THE RHYTHM OF EMOTIONAL EXPRESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested by the remarks on metrical cadences in Greek prose in your review of Professor Goodwin's edition of Demosthenes on the Crown. It would be instructive to learn whether the rhythms in this and other orations occur in passages of strong emotion, where language naturally runs into verse. If so, it would seem to follow that, as the speeches were composed for delivery, the orators either wrote under the influence of such emotions, or, with exquisite forethought and discernment, adapted their language to the requirements of the case.

A remarkable instance of the tendency of strong feeling to run into verse may be produced from the last quarter where one would have thought of looking for it—the proceedings of the Parliamentary Committee which inquired into the British Museum in 1835 and 1836. One of the principal witnesses is Professor Robert Edward Grant, Professor of Zoölogy and Comparative Anatomy in University College, London, who is described by Darwin as "a man of much enthusiasm beneath his outer crust." Such must have been the case, for, although his evidence is in general sufficiently prosaic, when he approaches the deeply moving subject of the deplorable and disreputable condition of the stuffed animals in the national collection,

> "The wild language of his grief is high,
> Such as in measure were called poetry."

Nay, more than that, for it *is* measure and poetry. With but a few trifling liberties of omission, substitution, and transposition, Professor Grant's lamentation becomes a sustained passage of sonorous blank verse:

We have in the Museum some stuffed skins
That once resembled the giraffe. But now,
In hideous rents that stretch along the carcase,
The straw and beams of wood are visible
Through the wide openings of disfigured hides
Whence characters and forms and hues are gone.
The naked blistered hides have been exposed
To dust and insects many a long year
Without the least protection. They have served
Their time long since, and, zoölogically,
Their characters are now completely gone.
That slender tapering nose that once was straight
Is twisted to the left. The soft smooth skin
That once with beauty spots was coverèd,
Melting into a light and pleasing ground,
Is now hard, naked, tanned, and uniform.
The cords by which the skin was stretched have torn
That skin by their contraction into rents.
Those slender limbs, in their proportiöns
As in their movements graceful once, are now
But as distorted pillars, stretched asunder
Like pyramids to prop the rotten fabric.

After which Professor Grant relapses into prose, nor does the sacred fire descend upon him again.

I am not aware whether Professor Blass has made any reference to the 'Lives of the Sophists,' by Philostratus, where several passages may be found throwing light on the employment of rhythm by Greek orators—of a much later date, certainly, but still, in all probability, following traditional rules. Phœnix Thessalus, for instance, is censured for not being sufficiently rhythmical; and Apollonius Atheniensis is taxed with having fallen into downright poetry, like Professor Grant. It is added, however, that he is not always open to this imputation, and a passage from him is quoted in proof which probably shows to what extent rhythmical diction was thought permissible by a Greek of taste in the time of Philostratus.

I am, dear sir, very truly yours,

R. GARNETT.

HAMPSTEAD, LONDON, March 27, 1902.

ANOTHER FIRST-RATE GERMAN THEATRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* of March 27 contains an article on Ludwig Fulda, by Edward Stockton Meyer, in which the statement occurs that the Irving Place Theatre, New York, is "the one theatre with a real literary and artistic standard in this country." I beg leave to call the writer's attention to the Pabst Theatre of Milwaukee. Mr. Meyer may loathe, perhaps, to associate the name of this theatre with art and artists, but Leon Wachsner of the Pabst Theatre keeps an able corps of European artists busy producing such plays as Hauptmann's "Versunkene Glocke," Fulda's "Talisman," Tolstoi's "Die Macht der Finsternis," and a score of others of equal real literary value. If the ensemble of a theatre and the literary productions staged are a measure, then the artistic standard of the "Pabst" is fully equal, if not superior, to Conried's Irving Place Theatre.

Very respectfully, PAUL GERISCH.

NAT. GER. AM. TEACHERS' SEMINARY, MILWAUKEE, April 3, 1902.

A STRIKING LIKENESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Authors occasionally fall into inexplicable similarities of ideas and expressions. Notice the following:

From 'The City of Washington,' by John Addison Porter (Johns Hopkins University Studies, page 14. Published in 1885).

After the first influx of speculators—among whom none bought more largely or lost more heavily than Robert Morris — the "Superintendent of finance" and friend of the government during the dark days of 1781—the sale of real estate languished. Foreigners seemed to have more confidence than natives in the success of the experiment. Engraved plans of the city had been well distributed abroad; Congress passed a law allowing aliens to hold land in the city; and for a time lots brought absurdly high prices in London. But after 1794 the home trade ceased almost entirely. There were some legal difficulties in transferring real estate. One of the main reasons, however, why the city did not grow faster, was that Congress could not remove thither for a number of years.

From 'Washington: The Capital City,' by Rufus Rockwell Wilson (Lippincott, pages 32-33. Published in 1901.)

After the first influx of speculators—among whom none bought more largely and lost more heavily than Robert Morris, the "superintendent of finance" and friend of the government in the dark days of 1781—the sale of real estate languished. Foreigners had more confidence than natives in the success of the experiment. Engraved plans of the city were widely distributed abroad; Congress passed a law allowing aliens to hold land in the city; and for a time lots brought absurdly high prices in London. The home trade, however, ceased almost entirely after 1794, while many of the earlier contracts for lots were repudiated by buyers unable to fulfil their agreements or who had taken alarm from the hurtful rumor, industriously spread, that Congress would never remove to the Potomac, but would remain in Philadelphia.

Q. E. D.

April 3, 1902.

Notes.

Augustus De Morgan's paper 'On the Difficulty of Correct Description of Books,' contributed in 1853 to the *Companion to the Almanac*, has never since been republished. The Bibliographical Society of Chicago now contemplates a reprint of it, "(possibly the first of a series of reprints and translations)," in an edition of 300 copies, for which they invite subscriptions at a dollar each. The work will be elegantly produced by the Blue Sky Press of Chicago. The treasurer of the society, Carl B. Roden, should be addressed at the Chicago Public Library.

'True Tales of Birds and Beasts,' edited by President Jordan of Stanford University, and illustrated by Miss Mary Weldman, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston, has nearly ready 'Iolaüs: An Anthology of Friendship,' by Edward Carpenter.

'Five Great Painters of the Victorian Era' (Leighton, Millais, Burne-Jones, Watts, and Holman Hunt) is the subject of a work by Sir Wyke Bayliss, President of the Royal Society, illustrated with twenty-two characteristic examples, which will be issued in this country by James Pott & Co.

'The West Indies and the Empire,' by H. de R. Walker, and 'The Domain of Art,' by Sir W. Martin Conway, are to be marketed here by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Two additional books on Macmillan Co.'s list are Sir John Lubbock's 'Scenery of England' and 'The Lower South in American History,' by William Garrott Brown.

'Roman Law and History in the New Testament,' by the Rev. Septimus Buss (Rivingtons), is a book of excellent intentions but poor workmanship. Something of the kind is much needed to elucidate the legal and historical points which are so plentiful in the New Testament. That this book, however, does not supply the need, may at once be seen from the fact that the ambiguous Greek term which we translate "testament," as it occurs in the difficult passage of Heb. ix., 15-17, and elsewhere, is not explained at all. Nor is anything said about the Roman will or the Roman system of inheritance, as treated by St. Paul; and his allusions to the Roman law of adoption are most inadequately dealt with. A certain number of useful facts respecting Roman taxation, army organization, judicial procedure, provincial administration, and the like, have indeed been collected, but the author's information is antiquated, and the works on which he relies are seldom referred to. He appears to think that Ewald, Zumpt, and Strauss are sufficiently modern, and discusses difficult questions of historical criticism, such as that of "Cyrenius and the Taxing," too often without regard to the most recent scholarship. Sometimes he is painfully picturesque, after the fashion of Dean Farrar and General Lew Wallace; and sometimes we find him deficient in the sense of humor no less than in learning, as when he accounts for the varied epithets "purple" and "scarlet" applied to the robe of Christ, by stating that the ancients were "not so careful in the discrimination of colors as we are, they having been partially color-blind" (p. 233). We have seldom read a more disappointing book.

'St. Paul and the Roman Law,' by Dr. W. E. Ball (Edinburgh: Clark; New York: Scribners), is a recent publication in the same field, far better written than that of Mr. Buss, yet by no means worthy of its interesting subject. The first three chapters, expanded from the *Contemporary Review* of August, 1891, are the only ones described in the title. The nine remaining chapters treat of Roman Law in the early theologians, of the much vexed "Logos" controversy, and of the New Testament quotation of canonical and uncanonical scripture. Each essay makes excellent reading, but the topics handled are so many and so large, in proportion to the size of the volume, that their treatment is necessarily superficial. Moreover, it is nowadays scarcely possible to regard any book as a solid or even serious contribution to learning when its author sees fit to eschew footnotes and to give no index. These omissions are probably due to the fact that Dr. Ball intended merely to write readable and suggestive articles. Viewing these essays in that light, we may say that the work has been well done. The common defect of such writings is that the reader is seldom warned of there being "another side," and this defect is particularly noticeable in the essays on the "Logos" and Philo-Judæus.

Seven years ago we referred with unqualified praise to a 'Text-Book of Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' by Diana Clifford Kimber (Macmillan). After numerous reprints, a revised edition has just appeared. The chief change is a practically new chapter upon the nervous system, credited to Dr. P. M. Dawson of Johns Hopkins. Metric equivalents are now entered wherever English measures are used, and in a number of illustrations the arteries, which formerly were plain, are colored. A curious error of the pen has been retained on p. xvi., where "contents" stands for "branches" of the aorta. We reiterate our former comment, that to limit the use of this admirable book to nurses would be to neglect other deserving students, especially those in high-grade schools and colleges for young women, where it might be studied to great advantage.

Sir Henry Thompson's widely known 'Diet in Relation to Age and Activity' (F. Warne & Co.) reappears in a revised and enlarged edition, well deserving its established popularity. The burden of his essay is that, with advancing years and diminished strength and exertion, the powers of assimilation and elimination are lessened, and the character and amount of food should be correspondingly reduced. While some of the advice bears particularly upon English habits and the English climate, the general instructions for attaining comfortable longevity are adapted to all intelligent people, and they are the more acceptable from their felicitous style.

Dr. C. G. Kerley makes, in 'Short Talks with Young Mothers' (Putnams), another contribution to the rapidly increasing library of popular information upon the care of children. If "to" replaced "with," the title would better show that these familiar, easily apprehended, and judicious observations are monologues.

'The Baby,' by Marianna Wheeler (Harpers), a little volume upon care and training, is plain and sensible in the last degree. If the chapter on measles and scarlet fever alone were absorbed by parents, the saving of life should be great and the limitation of sickness greater.

A popular summary in 170 pages of what is thought to be known about the planet Mars at the present day ('Mars: Eine Welt in Kampf ums Dasein'), by Otto Dross, has recently been issued by Hartleben (Vienna). The work is beautifully printed, though but charily illustrated, chiefly from the published sketches of Schiaparelli and Brenner. The earlier observations of Kaiser, Dawes, Green, and others are not neglected, nor the bearing of them on the modern researches which were so admirably summarized and collected by Flammarion ten years ago. The strange canal system, of which Dawes may be said to have been the real discoverer, not Schiaparelli, occupies nearly a third of the entire work; but the author does not advance any theory accounting for either the canals themselves or their very remarkable gemination in a fashion more satisfactory than that of his predecessors. Herr Dross concludes with a few brief sketches of the lives of very eminent astronomers—Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, Tycho, Newton, and W. Herschel; but on the whole it cannot be said that he adds more than a mite to our knowledge of an absorbingly interesting and baffling problem.

In a volume of clear, if not always tasteful, typography have been gathered 'The Proceedings of the Webster Centennial of Dartmouth College,' issued by the College. The date commemorated was that of Webster's graduation, September 24, 25, 1801, and a good deal of the matter naturally relates to the future statesman's college career. This has been looked after with some research and a few gleanings by Prof. Charles F. Richardson. The formal oration was by Representative McCall of Massachusetts, and here, as in most of the speeches, Webster's 7th of March defection was smoothed down into a virtue. Senator Hoar easily surpassed this speaker by his recipe for annulling the just censure of contemporaries: "Each man has given to him his own light. He is a laggard or a dastard if he do not follow it. But he is nowhere commanded to sit in judgment on the motives of other men." Amid these apologies for Webster's support of the Fugitive Slave Law, the College honored with the degree of LL.D. *in absentia* Booker Washington, who, if born earlier, might, as a slave *in absentia*, have heard Webster invoke Northern man-hunters to perform a "disagreeable duty" "with alacrity," and who may now read the letter of Dartmouth's former President, Dr. Nathan Lord, asking Calhoun for references to authorities in the "argument for the Divine Right of Slavery in general or Negro Slavery in particular."

The Proceedings of the Bostonian Society contains, besides President Guild's reminiscent address, extracts from the diary of Dr. William Read for April, 1851. The principal events noted are the great storm in which Minot's Ledge lighthouse was destroyed; Daniel Webster's speech in Bowdoin Square, when the Mayor and Aldermen refused him the use of Faneuil Hall; and the election of Charles Sumner to the Senate. Dr. Read's reference to this result of a coalition deemed unholy shows the bitter feeling at that day on the part of the Whigs: "This election has been accomplished by one of the most barefaced and unblushing sacrifices of principle ever made by any party. . . . If he [Sumner] has any sensibility, and is a man of honorable feelings, the price at which he has purchased his seat must sting him to the quick." Dr. Read closes by saying that the "detected fraudulent voting and bribery . . . will render this transaction to the end of time a standing disgrace to the Legislature of Massachusetts, and a monument of political infamy too great to be soon forgotten." Nevertheless, the diarist lived to become an enthusiastic supporter of Mr. Sumner. The frontispiece is a reproduction of an original hand-colored engraving of Paul Revere's "View of Part of the Town of Boston in New England, and British Ships of War Landing their Troops, 1768."

Many lists of children's books have been prepared for school use, but none on a scale to compare with that just issued by the Buffalo Public Library. 'Class-Room Libraries for Schools' is the title of the pamphlet, of which the scheme is this: The nine grades of the grammar schools have each a "library" marked out

for them, "suggestively and approximately"; to these lists succeed an author-title index, and a subject-index (the kernel of the catalogue), and finally a list of books desirable for reference libraries in connection with school work. The execution of this scheme is to our mind wholly praiseworthy, and we cannot think that any serious charges of omission will be brought against it. Stress is laid in the subject-index on American history and historical personages, and to the latter a pithy quotation in prose or verse is allotted by way of introduction. We do not doubt that this aid to juvenile reading and study will be welcomed in many a home as well as in schools, to satisfy the cravings of young minds for specific guidance. Whether parents, too, like teachers and librarians, may procure it for thirty cents (the cost price), we do not know. It will, at all events, serve to knit the alliance between the home, the school, and the public library.

The agricultural possibilities of Alaska are described by Prof. C. C. Georgeson of Sitka in the *National Geographic Magazine* for March as of a high order. In the interior, hardy vegetables and grain can be grown, and much land is good for stock-raising. He believes its conditions to be more favorable from an agricultural standpoint than those of Finland, which, in the same latitude, has a population of two and a half millions, mostly cultivators of the soil. The chief hindrance to the development of these resources is that settlers cannot acquire land titles without prohibitive expense. A series of pictures, with explanatory notes, show in a graphic way how Havana has become a city with a better bill of health than Washington. "By the end of the second year of American occupation, every house in the city had been cleaned from top to bottom at least once," the floors with electrozone and the walls with a solution of bichloride of mercury. By this means and by the cleansing of the sewers, "which had not been touched since they were built, long ago," the deaths from yellow fever, which in 1896 were 1,262, in 1901 were only 5. We will mention further a detailed description of the rare Sarichef's Atlas of the far northern Pacific and the adjacent coasts published by the Russian Hydrographic Office in 1826, and an account, by Dr. L. A. Bauer, of the objects and work of the magnetic survey of the United States.

The most important article in the *Geographical Journal* for March is a study of the Isthmian Canal from a commercial point of view by Col. G. E. Church. He begins by briefly sketching the various South American transcontinental routes, as to which he is probably the greatest living authority, as well as the history of the Spanish explorations in search of the strait which was supposed to exist between the two oceans. After a technical description of the rival canal projects, he gives tables of distances from and to prominent ports in both hemispheres, and a careful summary of the South American trade upon which a canal must depend. Attention is, however, directed to the extremely problematical character of statistics, especially those of tonnage: "A single 2,000-ton vessel, running from Panama to Valparaiso, and, during every trip, *entered* and *cleared* perhaps at a dozen ports, picking up or discharging a few tons of freight at each, may add yearly 200,000 to 300,000 tons of *entrances* and *clearances* to the commercial record." Col. Church's conclusion is, that the canal is not a commercial necessity; that its traffic will be far less than is anticipated, and that, if constructed, it will prove for many years a heavy burden to this country. A narrative of a journey through southwestern China impresses one with the great industrial future of the country, especially when railway communication with Burma is established. Cheng-tu Plain is described as probably the most intensively cultivated portion of the earth's surface. It is about 70 miles by 40 in area, and supports a population of four millions. "It often grows seven crops a year, and it pays to borrow money at 30 per cent. to cultivate it." The scheme of artificial irrigation, to which this marvellous fertility is due, was devised two thousand years ago by an engineer who has been assigned by his grateful countrymen a place in the Chinese Pantheon, a magnificent temple having been erected in his honor. Mr. Stanley Gardiner gives the results of his explorations in the Maldives to determine the interdependence of the physical and biological factors in the formation of atolls. The indications are that their base is of volcanic origin, and it is hoped that the investigations of Mr. Alexander Agassiz, who has been at work in the same group of islands, will settle the vexed question.

The Royal Medallists for this year of the Royal Geographical Society are Sir F. D. Lugard, High Commissioner of Northern Nigeria, and Major Molesworth Sykes, late British Consul in southeastern Persia. This honor is, of course, due to their notable contributions to the accurate geographical knowledge of the countries in which they have been stationed, but they both have done far more than this. They have studied sympathetically the native life, customs, beliefs, points of view, and laws in the interest of the native himself. The conviction of the urgent necessity of this knowledge for the enlightened government of the inferior races has led two British scientific societies to petition the Government to order a full and systematic inquiry into the laws and customs of the natives of South Africa. Such inquiry, they affirm, must precede any comprehensive attempt to solve by legislation that most difficult problem, the relations of the white population to the native and of the natives to one another.

The English are having considerable trouble in circulating on the Continent the various translations of Dr. Conan Doyle's 'Cause and Conduct of the War in South Africa,' a semi-official apology. Translations into eight European languages have been made, but it has been impossible to secure publishers in Germany and Holland. Accordingly, it has been found necessary to print these two translations in England, and a German edition of 5,000 copies has already been issued in London. The French and Italian editions have appeared in those countries, and the Scandinavian version is about ready, while the Russian, Spanish, Hungarian, and Portuguese editions are in rapid preparation. The list of subscribers for the spread of this book is headed by Lord Rosebery, with a donation of fifty pounds.

The leading papers of Italy are engaged in a rather bitter controversy over the recent reorganization of the National Museum of Naples, which is of more than local interest, as it involves the entire scientific management of this famous depository of the finds of Herculaneum and Pompeii. Nearly a year ago, Prof. Ettore Pais, who holds the chair of history in the University of Naples, was appointed to the directorship by the Cultus Minister in the place of Petra, who had been regarded as "an offensive partisan" by those in power. Pais went to work radically to rearrange the whole museum, expending 50,000 lire, it is alleged, for useless buildings, and discharging tried helpers in the scientific department, until the press resounded with denunciations, the chief critic being Professor Ceci of the University of Rome, seconded, in a measure, by the Archæological Committee of the Museum in Naples itself. The new Cultus Minister, Nasi, has now ordered an investigation of the charges of incompetency against the new director. Special personal interest attaches to this controversy, as it was Ceci who made the sharp attack on the foreign archæologists in 1900, and Pais is Chairman of the Committee of Arrangements for the International Congress of Historians to assemble in the near future in Rome.

For twenty-five years the indefatigable Catholic priest, Father Delattre, has been engaged in archæological researches on the site of ancient Carthage, and now reports what he declares the best find made during this period. It is a white marble sarcophagus, 2.09 metres in length, partially covered with designs, that on the lid being a relief portrait of a woman, of rare artistic beauty. The sarcophagus belongs to the Punic period, and is the work of a Greek artist. It is now regarded as the *pièce de résistance* in the well-stocked museum of the Pères Blancs in Carthage. The find was made in the necropolis near Ste. Monique.

The Herbarium and Botanical Institute of Bucharest has begun the publication of a quarterly *Buletinul*, edited by Michel C. Vladesco, professor of botany in the University. The initial number contains five articles in parallel columns of Rumanian and French or Rumanian and German. They comprise contributions on the bryological flora and the vascular cryptogams of Rumania, and on the flora of Ceahlu, together with the first instalment of a Rumanian botanical vocabulary.

The *Verhandlungen* and the *Zeitschrift* of the Geographical Society of Berlin have been united in one publication, entitled *Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde*, of which ten numbers will appear during the year. The first number contains papers on the Somali coast, on the physical geography of Honduras, and on the German North Polar expedition.

Beginning with 1902, the *Mémoires* of the Society of Physics and Natural History of Geneva will not appear, as heretofore, in semi-annual parts, but will be made up of several numbers published at irregular intervals.

The Astronomical Observatory of La Plata has begun the publication of *Anales* of the meteorological bureau of the province of Buenos Aires. The first volume is devoted to a record of meteorological observations made at La Plata between 1886 and 1894, and at outlying stations during 1894.

—Concerning the subject of historical series it is not necessary that we should speak, save to observe that they must be profitable, or else there would not be so many of them. One other remark may also be offered, namely, that two distinct types of composition are mainly represented. The first may be termed a piece of "vulgarization," the second is the independent monograph. We have before us three volumes which represent two well-known and bulky series—the "Story of the Nations" and the "Heroes of the Nations" (Putnams). They are 'Mediæval Rome,' by Mr. William Miller, 'Wales,' by Mr. Owen M. Edwards, and 'Henry V.,' by Mr. C. L. Kingsford. Though they all bear strong marks of resemblance in point of length and illustration, they differ widely in other respects. For example, Mr. Miller's 'Mediæval Rome' is an attempt, in the main, to abridge a celebrated work of German erudition, while Mr. Kingsford's 'Henry V.' is a careful study which has cost the author a good deal of research. To say that this book on 'Mediæval Rome' is frankly derived from Gregorovius, with embellishments drawn from Reumont, is not necessarily to condemn it. In such a case abridgment is quite justified if it is well done. But in this instance we cannot refrain from saying that the title which has been chosen is most misleading. The period covered is 1073-1600, and as half of the text is occupied with a narrative of events which lie between Nicholas V. and Clement VIII., we must reconstruct our historical terminology in order to give the title an adequate meaning. That is to say, Mr. Miller writes the history of Rome during the Renaissance quite as much as during the Middle Ages, and in this way he fails to bring out the characteristic features of the mediæval period. We may even term this an organic weakness in the structure of the volume, because from it there results a hasty and inadequate treatment of constitutional history and social life during the era which purports to have been chosen. Though the dates 1073-1600 are given on the title-page, the general reader will be captured by the words 'Mediæval Rome.'

—On the contrary, Mr. Edwards's 'Wales' deserves to be specially praised for the clearness of its arrangement and for the skill with which it distinguishes between the salient features of Welsh history. It comprehends everything from the Roman occupation of Britain to the present day, and, although fulness of detail is rendered impossible by the rigid requirements of the series, one sees that the author has a firm grasp of his subject. The main points are clearly articulated, and all the topics chosen are treated in strict subordination to the general theme. Mr. Edwards's principal task is to distinguish between that earlier period in Welsh history when national life was dominated by the power of the princes, and that later period in which the peasants come to the fore in both power and social influence. "The princes were crushed by the Plantagenets, their descendants dispossessed by the Lancastrians or Anglicized by the Tudors. On their disappearance, a lower subject class became prominent, inheriting their changing traditions and feebly imitating their decaying literature." The earlier age is that of the Mabinogion and the odes of Davydd ap Gwilym; the latter is that of the evangelical movement and of growing liberalism. It will be seen that these eras differ greatly in length, and that the first is not only longer but much more intricate. The decline of local independence produced a degree of social uniformity which was wholly lacking in the Middle Ages. Ever since the Tudor period, prosperity has tended to increase at the expense of picturesqueness in the land of the Cymry. The burning question of Disestablishment finds no place in Mr. Edwards's pages—probably on account of its controversial character, since space is found for some notice of the political struggle between landlord and farmer in 1867, and of the industrial revolution which has been caused by the opening up of Welsh mines. Mr. Edwards concludes in these interesting words: "The first period of Welsh history ends with the poet's lament for its fallen princes; the second ends with the poet's vision of a future of more self-conscious life and of greater service. The motto of Wales is to be that of its Prince—'Ich dien.'"

—Mr. Kingsford's 'Henry V.,' in the "Heroes of the Nations" series, is founded upon an article which the author contributed to the 'Dictionary of National Biography'; but this study has since been greatly extended, and the present book also embodies the results of further research. "If I cannot claim," says Mr. Kingsford, "to have exhausted all sources of information, I have nevertheless sought throughout to base my narrative on chronicles and documents of contemporary, or nearly contemporary, date." It is inevitable that military operations should occupy a large share of the space, but they are not permitted to overshadow altogether the civil acts of the reign. Thus, Mr. Kingsford devotes one chapter, entitled "The Unity of the Church," to the Council of Constance, and another, entitled "The State of England," to the social condition of the realm. In all essential respects the book is an excellent one. Our only adverse criticism is that delineation of the "hero's" character is inclined to yield place for the political history of the time. We must state, however, that the balance is almost restored by the *Conclusion*, which consists purely of criticism. In it are discussed, among other things, the questions of Henry's cruelty and of his real attitude towards the French war. The persecution of the Lollards and the execution of prisoners are accounted for by sincere conviction in the first case and a sense of justice in the second. Henry was another Frederick Barbarossa, who had a reverence for principle, but who looked upon the maintenance of prerogative as a capital duty. With regard to the conquest of France, Mr. Kingsford remembers the King's death-bed declaration, "that he had entered upon the war from a desire to establish lasting peace," rather than from the mere love of territorial acquisition. The statement derives a good deal of color from the undoubted idealism of Henry's character. Had he lived, Agincourt might have been made the first step towards a general crusade against the Ottoman.

—Many American teachers of Greek have known for some time of the new plan of Greek instruction in the German gymnasia proposed by the noted philologian, Professor Ulrich von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff at a conference held in Berlin year before last and published in 'Verhandlungen über Fragen des höheren Unterrichtes, 1900.' This plan involved the preparation of a new Greek chrestomathy, of which Professor von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff, as the representative of a commission appointed by the Minister of Education, had the making. This book, which has been awaited with much interest, is at last published, under the title 'Griechisches Lesebuch' (Berlin: Weidmann). With characteristic German regard for the weight which the schoolboy is to carry in his satchel, the book is divided into four volumes, two of text and two of notes. The selections are mainly prose; for the editor takes it for granted that the student has already read the poetry of Homer and the tragedians. Familiarity with the New Testament and some of the works of Plato is also presupposed, while the writings of Herodotus are entirely omitted, for the reason that they should be read in large quantity and rapidly. The preface states that the book is designed for students who have learned enough Greek to be able to read a book for what there is in it. In the belief that one learns Greek only for the sake of reading it, and reads it only to understand a world period during which Greek was the dominant language of the spirit, the editor includes in his reader extracts from the works of every century from the sixth before Christ to the fourth of our era, without regard to the dialect or nationality of the author. An examination of the contents will show the wide range of the selections. They are grouped under ten headings: Fables and Stories, History, Politics, Geography and Astronomy, Mathematics and Mechanics, Medicine, Philosophy, Early Christian, Æsthetics and Grammar, and Documents and Letters—which last is a collection of eighteen pieces of various dates. The variety in dialect and origin is apparent from a list of the authors excerpted—too long to reproduce here, but a formidable one for the ordinary teacher of Greek. The introductions, however, with which each extract is furnished, and the full notes, which aim to make good the deficiencies of the grammars and dictionaries in common use, will help him out of many difficulties. He will find the book useful for a survey of Greek literature and culture, and well adapted to the correlation of Greek to other branches of study. Whatever be the final decision as to its practical use with classes, either as a whole or in parts, it is of interest to Americans as a contribution to the classical question, and a worthy addition to the library of the teacher, both for its selection of texts and for the preface and concluding remarks of its gifted editor.

—Dr. Baelz, a German physician in Tokio, who has been repeatedly decorated by the Mikado, upon whom he has attended, seems to have made a discovery of great interest in anthropology (twenty years ago, but recently reinforced and ably defended in a controversy carried on in the Japan *Times*). Others before him had noticed the blue spots which Japanese babies have on the lower part of their spine and elsewhere, and which usually disappear before the age of six, but no one before him, so far as is known, had interpreted and set forth this phenomenon as a peculiarity of the yellow race in contradistinction to the white race.

In Korean and Chinese children, in Malays and Eskimos, these blue spots have also been found. They are not visible on European children, but the pigment cells have been found microscopically. Dr. Baelz says: "The white, the yellow, and the black man have all the same kind of coloring matter in their skins; the difference is only a matter of degree. In the white the pigment does not show, or hardly shows at all, to the naked eye; in the yellow it is a little more abundant, hence the yellow tint; and the more abundant it is, the darker the skin will look until we reach the negro." In Euro-Japanese children, if the offspring resembles the fair-haired, blue-eyed parent, it has no spots at all; if the influence of the Japanese and the foreign parent is about equal, the spots are there though more or less indistinct. But if the Japanese characteristics prevail generally, the spots are almost as well marked as in a Japanese baby. While apes have the same blue spots, and certain monkeys blue callosities on the buttocks, Japanese children have sometimes one-half of their bodies covered with them. Dr. Bälz believes that the blue spots form a most important racial characteristic, and will not acknowledge that the configuration of eyelids or of the earlobes is of anything like equal value. Dr. Baelz wrote on "The Physical Qualities of the Japanese," in Tokio, in 1882-3, since which time little seems to have been done seriously in the field of Japanese anthropology.

ITALY'S "DECADENCE" AND ITALY'S MISSION.

La Missione dell' Italia. Per G. Novicow. Traduzione di A. Tassone. Milan: Fratelli Treves. 1901.

In an age of commercial monopolies and great combinations of capital and labor, when attempts are being made to "syndicate" even artistic and literary output, it is not strange that the idea should gain currency of a racial monopoly of the forces which stand for human progress. Such phrases as "Anglo-Saxon superiority" and "Latin decadence" have become the stock in trade not only of many popular speakers and writers, but of men whose scholarship warranted the expectation of careful consideration. Anthropological data in the hands of pseudo-scientists has resulted in flooding the scientific market with attractive but overbold generalizations; the criminal anthropologists, especially, have raised to the dignity of a science the stray bits of observations gathered by a few enthusiasts during less than a decade. All this is very ably combated in a recent book by a distinguished sociologist, which bears the unmistakable marks of wide scholarship and calm and dispassionate treatment. Fortunately for the cause he defends, the author is not a "Latin" but a Russian, G. Novikoff.

He justly selects the Italian nation for his counter-argument, for no nation except Greece has exercised a greater influence upon civilization than Italy; no European nation has an older history, and, hence, no other "Latin" nation ought to be nearer "racial death" than this nation of past glories. At the outset the question naturally suggests itself, "Is there, in fact, such a thing as a 'Latin' race?" Novikoff's answer to this query takes up a large part of his book and is worthy of careful consideration. "The theory of races," he says, "is a colossal aberration due to a singular confusion between morphological and psychological phenomena." What constitutes a "race"? The only possible answer, says the author, is "a combination of morphologic or physiologic marks." If morphologic, what is the concrete, external fact which we may use as a basis for the classification of races? In nature, all living beings present an uninterrupted chain composed of elements in every conceivable state of transition. It is only the human mind that divides them up into grades and sets; in other words, it is a purely subjective division. The best proof of this is that it changes from age to age. We used to classify races according to the color of the skin; then we divided mankind according to the growth of their hair; in our day the favorite division is that based on cranial formation. But this is probably the most arbitrary method, and one bound to be supplanted by a better one. It is arbitrary because it starts out with a conventional cephalic index, a fragile foundation upon which to base some of the "terrible sentences" pronounced by certain of the strenuous anthropologists of the day. They tell the French and Italians, for instance: "Ye are brachicephalous; hence, an inferior race, doomed to decay"; and they as glibly tell the "Anglo-Saxons" that, being "dolicocephalous," they are a superior race and hold the future in their grasp. What proof is there of the inferiority of brachicephalic people? Is this not, asks Novikoff, "one of the most colossal mystifications ever produced?" As a matter of fact, observation shows that there is no "racial" cranial difference; that from remote ages very varied cranial forms have coexisted in European countries. At all events, if race is the one factor in social progress, two phenomena would of necessity have resulted—the "superior" races of to-day would have been such in every age, and the representatives of such "superior" races should all have reached the same level of civilization. The history of mankind, however, is to the contrary.

Now, races (and their subdivision into species) are either changeable or not. If they are immutable, how could the dolicocephalous "Anglo-Saxon" ever reach an initial civilized condition? When the brachicephalous Egyptians were at the height of their glory, the blond Saxons were mere savages. Inasmuch as the Anglo-Saxon is now civilized, the Anglo-Saxon "race" must be changeable. Biologic laws must apply, if at all, not to a few, but to all human beings, and hence the "negro race," for example, is as much susceptible of development and perfection as the "white." If it is claimed that the "negro race" is not so susceptible, then races are immutable. But if they are unchangeable, how can they or any of them ever decay? The fact is, that all races and all species are variable; that all progress and all retrogression in nations depend on innumerable causes, geographic, biologic, psychologic, and social. Nations under fortunate contingencies have progressed rapidly; those not so favored have progressed slowly. There are no *chosen* races and no *doomed* ones. "The Italians in other days have led Europe. It is not the shape of their skulls nor their being labelled 'Latin' . . . that will prevent their again reaching that place of eminence occupied by them in the past."

The poverty of Italy is cited by the pessimist as a sign of the lack of energy and progressiveness in Italians, and consequently of decay. But there are young "non-Latin" nations (Russia, for instance) which are poorer than Italy. If it is contended that her decadence is shown by the fact that Italy was once the richest country in Europe, it is because the contention overlooks the circumstances of relativity. Italy to-day is poorer than France, but she is wealthier than she was in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, when she was the wealthiest of nations. The Lord of Verona in 1335 had an annual income of 8,400,000 francs, which was more than any sovereign had, except the King of France, but to-day the whole of Italy has an income of 1,726 million francs. So that the facts show not that Italy has become poorer, but that, though she has become richer, France has become even more so. And this brings us to the consideration of another fact: countries which have developed only in recent times, will necessarily show a rapidity of development which old countries cannot possibly show. To regard a condition of growth as a sign of decay is as absurd as to say that a man at thirty is on his decline because his growth is less rapid than it was at ten. When our country is as thickly populated as Italy, our population will not double in fifty years, nor will new cities rise out of nothing in a few days. They will then develop as slowly as Florence or Naples.

Italians seem much less active than Americans, and this is cited as a sign of decay. But Italians work less because they have less to do, having already done so much in the way of adjusting their country to their needs. Thus, the traveller in our Western cities is struck by the number of churches in process of construction. But Italy has already all the churches she needs. Orvieto, with 16,000 souls, has a larger and more beautiful cathedral than Chicago has, with a population 100 times as large. Florence and Venice build fewer houses than Philadelphia or San Francisco, for the simple reason that the latter cities were a wilderness when the former had built their magnificent palaces. And again, when ugly and inartistic churches in our country are torn down to make room for new and better ones, the pessimists claim it is a sign of our progressiveness as a people. But would we tear down a Church of St. Mark if we had one?

Is there aught to prevent "decadent" Italy from winning in the future the position of greatness she held in the past? There is no more geographically favored country in the world. No point in the entire peninsula is more than 200 miles from the sea; this is an immense advantage. Her agricultural resources are well known, and there is nothing to prevent her becoming a great industrial Power like England or the United States. She has no coal, but this will militate only against her metallurgical industries. For other industries, the electricity, or "white coal," which Italy can obtain in superabundance from her myriad mountain streams, is superior to coal in supplying motive power. As to machinery, it is technical perfection and excellence of products which count, and in this respect Italy is already forging ahead. Nor need

Italy fear for her financial resources; she may, indeed, be proud of the manner with which she has kept her obligations to her creditors. Despite the heavy taxes she has had to impose to meet the tremendous demands made by her youth, as a united nation, in the work of unification and national construction, Italy has never admitted the possibility of bankruptcy; and, unlike Russia, has never paid her national debt in paper.

Novikoff lays special stress upon the intellectual powers of the Italians in comparison with that of the "young Anglo-Saxon" peoples. He sets forth the remarkable paucity of ideas, the great ignorance, of the English bourgeoisie, and the "Gothic" characteristics of many of the modern Germans. Here he draws a striking comparison between Bismarck and Cavour—to the latter's advantage, who, "merely by the stress of intellectual charm, could lead the most opposing and undisciplined parliamentary parties." The great Italian names of the past are cited as proof of her present decadence. But are they not rather an earnest of her future greatness? The foreigner has so much of the past to see in Italy that he has no time to examine what is new, and he draws the conclusion that there is nothing new. During the century just closed, the mind of Italy was absorbed in the work of national reconstruction, which for her meant also the conquest of political liberty. In this work the Italians displayed the genius shown by their fathers in other fields. "Italian unification is one of the most marvellous pages of European history. A king like Victor Emmanuel, a statesman like Cavour, gave Italy the political primacy, as Dante gave her the literary and Michelangelo the artistic leadership."

In conclusion, our author, after showing that no "race" in general, and the Italian nation in particular, is bound by any law to stagnation or decay, that all peoples possess powers of growth and development, sketches rapidly the possibility of what a nation like Italy may in future do for humanity. "Nature and history," he says, "impose upon Italy the duty of intellectual leadership." "Her natural beauties will ever make her the rendezvous of all that is best in the world; with the spread of civilization, men will look to her more and more as the mother of harmonies." All the finest spirits, all the best mentalities will seek her as an intellectual refuge. "She will become the intellectual and moral sanatorium of the world." To Italy, Novikoff looks for the political mission of European federation. She was the first to introduce the plébiscite, the greatest weapon against war. Twice already has she accomplished the unity of the Western peoples—the first time, by the political domination of Rome; the second time, by the spiritual domination of the Popes. If Italy can work out this great destiny of European unity, she will become for the third time the centre of Western civilization. The days of Augustus and Innocent III. would be hers again. "But this third glory would be far more lasting than the others, because it would be based, not upon brute force, . . . but upon respect and justice—that is to say, upon the most solid and unassailable foundation upon which any human institution can be built."

HALF-A-DOZEN NOVELS.

Patricia of the Hills. By Charles Kennett Burrow. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The Winding Road. By Elizabeth Godfrey. Henry Holt & Company.

The Crimson Wing. By H. C. Chatfield-Taylor. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Michael Ross, Minister. By Annie E. Holdsworth. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Alabama Sketches. By Samuel Minturn Peck. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

The Battle-Ground. By Ellen Glasgow. Doubleday, Page & Co.

'Patricia of the Hills' is an engaging little story; Irish, but not wild Irish. We find in it patriotism without unreasonableness; love of the open air and the free hills without exaggeration; romance without overgush; humor and melancholy side by side without morbidness; Irish dialect stopping short of nausea. In short, while many notes of the Celtic temperament are sounded, not one is forced beyond the limits of sympathy; this, too, with the moderation of restraint, and not of hesitancy. The story —of love, mortgage, and election—is slight, but full of sincere feeling. There is absolutely no mention of a purpose, but the book makes closer appeal, even considered as race literature, than many larger works written more directly under the constellation of the Howling Dog.

'The Winding Road' is a winningly fantastic story of a gypsy wanderer, a gypsy fiddle, and a girl who was not a gypsy. We have sung, danced, wandered, and wept with this trio before in story and in opera, but Miss Godfrey has contrived to combine and expand her materials in a fresh and original way, and has made a new and pretty tale. So pretty is it that she could well have afforded to hold her hand in the matter of decoration. She need not have laid on the landscape so thick; she might have limited herself in the matter of headings to one verse at a time rather than processions of verses from Stevenson, Yeats, Bliss Carman, Josephine Daskam, Longfellow, Browning, and Le Gallienne. On the other hand, though borrowing has dulled the edge of her husbandry, it might have been profitable in the case of music, and we should have been spared reading about chords that "emerged in a simple clef" and then made "an excursion into another clef."

'The Crimson Wing' is a story of the Franco-Prussian war of 1870. It gives a good idea of the struggle, of its personages, its diplomacies, its treacheries, heroisms, and imbecilities, and so far is meritorious. The fiction-reading world of to-day is growing used to the dazzling light of distinguished society. But even though we of late have sat down with kings, and hobnobbed with patriarchs of the infant world, we experience a mental jolt at overhearing heart-to-heart talks with Gen. Sheridan and Frederick of Prussia. We tremble lest the next new novel shall deal with Edward the Seventh or Mayor Low. The natural unnaturalnesses of a story of war-times are to be accepted uncomplainingly. Indeed, in 'The Crimson Wing' they are interesting throughout, and are not particularly overstrained, unless it be in the case of what is accomplished by the two young women concerned. With them the improbabilities are impartially divided. The good angel achieves miracles of horsemanship and leadership; the bad angel not only turns Red Cross nurse, which was to be expected, but becomes good angel besides, and makes the hero over to the other lady, though she wants him very much for herself. We must think the whole *Ewig-Weibliche* of the novel a little overdone—a tax on belief, in short, which makes for weakness in the end, however painstakingly elaborated and however amiable its motive.

A celebrated oculist once said of novels printed in very small type, "if publishers had not invented them, oculists would." The type of 'Michael Ross, Minister' is excellent. But there is renewed hope for the oculist in this novel (and in fact, in most novels nowadays), in the treatment accorded in the text to the human eye. It is enough to give the reader sympathetic oculitis to read of eyes that leap and burn and compel and entreat and rebound and glaze; that are cruel and haggard; that have their light quenched with awful horror, and swoon, and are like hands around his heart, clinging desperately. These be but mannerisms, but it is time to look to them. Another sign of the bad times is the impertinent natural history. " 'You will let me stay?' A crow lighted beside the nest," etc., etc. This sort of interpolated bird, beast, and flower is like nothing so much as the columns of the domestic press, "as she is written"—"Home must be hallowed by sacrifice," "The best way to curry eggs is," etc. The affected landscape is painful, too. Of the whiteness after a snowfall we read: "No broken lights of faith and hope mosaiced the church-yard graves." "Furniture of golded brown" takes the fault indoors, but it is a mistaken coddling. The Rev. Michael's conscience and Ruth's affections do almost as much rolling and twisting as the thousand eyes aforesaid. Welcome as terra-firma to the seasick is the firmer handling of some of the other characters. And now, keeping the best for the last, we turn to the excellent side of this novel. Its interest as a story never flags, while its portraits of the queer, the despicable, the kindly in an independent parish on English sea-coast are full of freshness and entertainment. "The more we have, the more we had ought to cling to it," says wily Jacob Yates; "it's only them as has nothing as can afford to give." Worthy Mrs. Nettlefold, the Deacon's wife, should win immortality if only for saying, "Bear your wife's burdens, and so fulfil the law, is a text that comforts me when domestic things are hard for the Deacon." And there is a lovely cat.

Mr. Peck's stories of western Alabama are noticeably bright little sketches. "The Trouble at St. James's" is perhaps the best, being a capital account by the negro sexton of the vicissitudes attending the ministry of the Rev. Mr. Crofton. "Sister Taylor's Registered Letter" is a close second; and "Pap's Mules" an entirely charming story of a boy's rescue of the two most important members of the household from Yankee raiders and mule-thieves. A few of the sketches lean toward farce, and over a few hovers a soft, idyllic aroma suiting the land and the day when Annie sewed in the old summer-house under the myrtles, and Tom read 'Lalla Rookh' aloud to her.

Miss Glasgow's books improve with each deeper plunge into the past and into the South. Her story of Reconstruction was better than her novel of New York, and best of the three is 'The Battle-Ground,' which shuns even small towns, and tells of Virginia before and during the civil war. Two or three of the portraits are masterly. Of these are the heroine, Betty, and the two old men, the Governor and the Major. Secondary, but as lifelike, are the studies of the mountaineer known as "Pinetop"; the faithful old slave, "Big Abel," who follows his young master to the war; Aunt Molly, reading 'The Mysteries of Udolpho' in bed, a tall silver candlestick standing on her breast; Aunt Lydia tending her old garden, and liking apple-toddy, though she regarded the taste "as an indelicate one, and would as soon have admitted, before gentlemen, a liking for cabbage." As to the young hero, his attractiveness is more insisted on than patent. However, if not a very positive character himself, he is the cause of much excellent characterization in others, being the chief object of much and varied loving, petting, and cursing. The South—say rather the Virginia—of a generation ago has found a most sympathetic reproduction, with its neighborhood amenities and the manners of an age of chivalry. The women (always excepting the spicy Betty) are an irresistible compound of the seraphic and the silly; the men roystering, tender-hearted, elegant, readers of Horace and Addison, but none the wider for it; vehement declaimers upon the rights and duties of gentlemen. What is a gentleman, by the way? As many different things, seemingly, as there are communities and professions. Major Lightfoot's creed declared, "There's no man alive that shall question the divine right of slavery in my presence; but—but it is an institution for gentlemen, and you, sir [to a nobody white who had struck his slave] are a damned scoundrel." When he finds his grandson, as he thinks, fickle, he roars, "Would you trifle with a lady from your own State, sir?" And his reproach to the hotheaded youth for duelling in a chivalrous cause is that he has "tried to murder a Virginia gentleman for the sake of a barroom hussy." The old Major, indeed, is a very fine example of a local product. With the Governor, the strictly Virginian idea is enlarged to a wider patriotism. Incurring his friend the Major's unrestrained wrath, the Governor sadly hopes to save the Union, not as one who loves his State less, but his country more.

Coming to the second generation, we find Dan Montjoy, in the stress of camp life, forming a warm friendship with a despised mountaineer as they fight side by side, the young patrician for the right to hold slaves, the other to "keep Virginia." The war half of the book is vivid; moving, as always, is the story of the beardless boys who made up the army of the South, especially the followers of Gen. Lee, their justly adored "Marse Robert." The writer writes whereof she evidently knows. But intimacy has not dulled her perception. She takes heed of tragic and humorous as one who writes from without, though she has seen from within. We must except the natural scenery, which looms too large. At times, like that in "Parsifal," it sustains the entire action while the figures are stationary.

Miscellanies (Second Series). By Austin Dobson. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1901.

There is, in the circle of distinctive and admirable literary qualities, one grace too rarely seen—perhaps, nowadays, too rarely sought. This, which, for want of any generally accepted tag, may be defined as virile delicacy, is the peculiar and conspicuous charm of Mr. Austin Dobson's slight, often occasional, but always delightful, miscellanies in prose and verse. The present eight papers, chiefly upon themes drawn from the life and letters of eighteenth-century England, are marked by the intimacy which springs not from the violent exenteration of a subject, but from wide and exact knowledge, long cogitated and pleasantly remembered; all are composed in a graceful style of Addisonian clarity and ease, as devoid of colloquialism as of pedantry. As for the verse, one would like to round upon Mr. Dobson with an appreciative *tu quoque* when he writes of another,

> "Pope taught him rhythm. Prior ease,
> Praed buoyancy and banter." . . .

The essays are all so pleasant and so discursive that detailed criticism is out of the question, and selection among them a disagreeable renunciation. Even the footnotes are filled with "lures of laughter." Thus, it is hard to be too grateful for a note appended to the paper on Fielding's 'Convent Garden Journal,' which recalls the friend of Joseph Cradock's who returned to him his copy of 'Hermes'—that inchoate, tremendous philological work by James Harris of Salisbury—with a mild deprecation of "these imitations of Tristram Shandy."

Perhaps the essays which will be generally read with most pleasure are those "On Certain Quotations in Walton's Angler," and on "Vader Cats." At this time of year, when to many the subsidence of snow water is the most momentous of matters, Walton is an author often taken from the shelf. Mr. Dobson has been at the pains of running down some of Piscator's many quotations, and has been delighted to find that all are singularly inaccurate, amplified and amended quite at the sweet will of gentle Izaak. But Mr. Dobson does not promulgate his discovery in the temper of the "severe, sowre complexion'd" critic; rather he uses it to exalt the more the real Walton—"the Walton of the cheerful spirit and the clean morality, of the frank old words that smell of the soil and the fresh-turned furrows."

There may be some who do not know that "Vader Cats" is none other than Jacob Cats, who may be described as the typical Tupper of Holland, whose poetry, as Mr. Dobson says engagingly, is not "a trickling rill from Helicon," but "an inundation *à la mode du pays*." Upon the fat, copiously illustrated folio of his works, Mr. Dobson has written a remarkably felicitous paper. Many collectors will aspire to possess that stately volume, wherein are inserted such plates as that which depicts Jacob (the Scriptural Jacob) carving upon a tree trunk "La Belle Rachell," and "Vive l'Amour."

Mr. Dobson's verse is so well known that the occasional pieces here printed, or reprinted, need little comment. But we cannot forbear quoting his sound critical praise of Dr. Johnson:

> "Read him for style and dismiss from your thoughts
> The crowd of compilers who copied his faults.
> Say, where is there English so full and so clear,
> So weighty, so dignified, manly, sincere?
> So strong in expression, conviction, persuasion?
> So prompt to take color from place or occasion?
> So widely removed from the doubtful, the tentative;
> So truly—and in the best sense—argumentative?"

The only regret with which one concludes the reading of these 'Miscellanies' is that the "correctness" of Mr. Dobson's faultless pen should, in this edition, be sometimes obscured by the incontinent proof-reading.

Our National Parks. By John Muir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Charles Dudley Warner once wrote that ignorance of America was one of the branches taught in English schools. In view of the proverbial ignorance of their own country displayed by most Americans who spend their summers abroad, the English attitude is perhaps not surprising. That great Alpine specialist, Mr. Whymper, declared in a recent lecture that there are fifty Switzerlands in British Columbia alone. This region, to be sure, is at present for the most part inaccessible to ordinary tourists; but how many of us know that there are now in the United States five great national parks and thirty-eight reservations, most of them easily accessible? These regions have scenic beauties and wonders that Europe cannot match, yet the visitors to most of them are few.

A book calling attention to the manifold charms of these parks was a real desideratum, and it is most fortunate that it was written by such a genuine lover of nature as John Muir, who knows more about the forests and streams, the mountains and glaciers, the flowers and animals, of the Pacific Slope than any other living person. He has spent his life tracing rivers to their sources, climbing peaks, botanizing, studying the habits of animals, and camping wherever night happened to overtake him, often next door to mountain sheep or deer. The food question seems to have been his chief source of trouble. He envies the hardy grouse which are able to spend even the winter in the forests of the California mountains:

"Able to live on the buds of pines, spruce, and fir, they are for ever independent in the matter of food supply, which gives so many of us trouble, dragging us here and there away from our best work. How gladly I would live on pine buds, however pitchy, for the sake of this grand independence!"

Usually this indefatigable naturalist has wandered alone, and so well are his habits known all over the Pacific Slope that it has repeatedly happened to him, on coming across some logger or hermit in the densest forests, to be accosted with the words, "You must be John Muir." Once he allowed himself to be persuaded to take along a beast of burden to carry his food and a pair of blankets; and the account of his Travels with a Donkey is as interesting as Stevenson's, though much shorter. He never repeated the experiment, as he found the poor beast in the long run more of a burden than a help:

"Tough as he was, and accomplished as a climber, many a time in the course of our journey when he was jaded and hungry, wedged fast in rocks or struggling in cha-

parral like a fly in a spiderweb, his troubles were sad to see, and I wished he would leave me and find his way home alone."

Of the ten chapters in Mr. Muir's book, two are devoted to the American parks and forest reservations in general, one to the Yellowstone, the others to the fountains and streams, the forests and big trees, the wild gardens and animals of the Yosemite. He grows enthusiastic over the vast tundras of Alaska as being "the most extensive, least spoiled, and most unspoilable of the gardens of the continent." Nowhere else on his travels has he seen "so much warm-blooded rejoicing life as in this grand Arctic reservation, by so many regarded as desolate." He urges tourists to give a month at least to the Flathead Reserve in Montana, with Lake McDonald and "the best care-killing scenery on the continent." Most inviting, too, are his remarks on the Mount Ranier forest reserve in Washington, which includes not only a sublime snow mountain over 14,000 feet in height, with glaciers radiating in every direction, but forests reaching to a height of over 6,000 feet, and above them a zone of the loveliest flowers, fifty miles in circuit and two miles wide, of which Mr. Muir says: "Altogether this is the richest subalpine garden I ever found, a perfect floral elysium." The wonders of the Yellowstone also have never had a more eloquent and graphic portrayer, and altogether the author has succeeded admirably in his object of showing forth "the beauty, grandeur, and all-embracing usefulness of our wild mountain forest reservations and parks, with a view to inciting the people to come and enjoy, and get them into their hearts, that so at length their preservation and right use might be made sure."

That the Yosemite should be specially favored in a book by John Muir was to have been expected, for the Sierra Nevada has been his headquarters, to which he always returned after excursions elsewhere; and he admits that of all the mountain ranges he has climbed, he likes this the best. Here there are no wild beasts and fevers trying to kill the adventurous traveller, as in many other parts of the world. Here everything is hospitable and kind; even the storms are friendly; the weather is mostly sunshine, both winter and summer, and

"Even the heaviest portions of the main forest belt, where the trees are tallest and stand closest, are not in the least gloomy. . . . The gardens and beds of underbrush, once devastated by sheep, are blooming again in all their wild glory, and the park is a paradise that makes even the loss of Eden seem insignificant. . . . Even the blind must enjoy these woods, drinking their fragrance, listening to the music of the winds in their groves, and fingering their flowers and plumes and cones and richly furrowed boles."

Mr. Muir scouts the charge, so often made, that there are no animals in these Sierra forests. They simply shun the noisy tourists. He has never had any trouble in finding them, and gives many charming descriptions of their habits as observed at close range. A page (173) is devoted to an amusing catalogue of the diverse things a bear will eat, from ants and snakes to strawberries and acorns, besides sugar, bacon, the mountaineer's bed, and a hundred other things. Bears never troubled the author during all his solitary wanderings; nor has any Yosemite tourist ever been bitten by snakes, though among these there are rattlers, with which Mr. Muir had some interesting adventures. "No American wilderness that I know of is," he says, "so dangerous as a city home, 'with all the modern improvements.'" It will surprise many to read that, while settlers are usually destructive of animal life, one of the loveliest species of California birds, the quail, has vastly increased in numbers, because the ravages of the pot-hunters are more than offset by the killing off of the quail's natural enemies—coyotes, skunks, foxes, hawks, owls, etc.—which not only kill the birds, but plunder their nests.

How do birds know that winter is coming? We usually say an instinct tells them, but perhaps the secret is simply this, that, like John Muir, they have keener senses than most of us, and are guided by the silky streamers on the peaks, the warning tones of the wind, and the strange whisperings among the tree-tops he speaks of (p. 283) in one of the many poetic passages in this book, which affect one like the surging waves of sound in a Wagner opera. His descriptions of forest fires, of Yellowstone geysers, of the outbursts of tree-bloom covering a thousand mountains, of earthquakes and avalanches, of the grinding, sculpturing, scenery-making glaciers, of the giant sequoias, "the auld lang syne of trees," looking as strange in aspect among other trees as would the mastodon among the homely bears and deer—are admirable specimens of prose poetry.

Throughout this volume there is a mixture of æsthetic appreciation, scientific knowledge, and personal adventure that gives it a unique charm. There are also amusing pages, among them an account of the author's vain endeavor to cure Emerson of the house habit and the strange dread of pure night air. The philosopher would have none of it, though his guide praised the beauty and fragrance of the sequoia camp-fire, and told how the great trees would stand about them transfigured in the purple light, while the stars looked down between the great domes. So Muir, after his visitor had left, sauntered back into the heart of the grove, made a bed of sequoia plumes and ferns by the side of a stream, built a great fire after sundown, and, as usual, had it all to himself.

The Scotch-Irish; or, The Scot in North Britain, North Ireland, and North America. By Charles A. Hanna. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

In these large octavos there are twelve hundred pages of miscellaneous information, much of which is of a character to make the reader suspect that Mr. Hanna would have printed the names of all the Scots that ever lived could he have ascertained them. We have not only long lists of the settlers in Ulster, and of those who emigrated to this country, but also the "Ragman Roll," the names of most of the families of Scotland, of the peers and members of Parliament, the baronets, the bishops, the judges, and apparently of all other functionaries whose names are of record. Mingled among these catalogues are long extracts from the Norse Sagas, the Irish annalists, the 'Cloud of Witnesses,' the Montgomery, Hamilton, and Adair manuscripts, and numberless other chronicles and histories. All this, we are told, is not intended as a history of the Scotch-Irish people, but as an introduction to a series of historical collections which Mr. Hanna expects to publish hereafter. The prospective magnitude of this work would certainly daunt any one not of the indomitable race that it celebrates; but, knowing what Scotsmen have done and endured in the way of sermons, we may infer that they are "capables de tout."

While we think that Mr. Hanna has not made the best use of his materials, it would be ungracious not to recognize the value of his work. He is no doubt correct in supposing that many "native-born Americans" are ignorant of the details of Scottish history; and the epitome which he presents contains full citations from records not accessible here. The religious history of Scotland has a very direct connection with the remarkable extension of the Presbyterian system of church government in this country—a connection which has not been sufficiently noticed by our historians, and which Mr. Hanna illustrates with many striking facts. He suggests that the Revolution was due in no small degree to the hatred of England inherited from their persecuted forefathers by the Scottish immigrants, and he shows that this stock was prominent in both military and civil affairs. At the time of the Revolution there were more than 500 of their communities scattered from Maine to Georgia, but bound together by their representative system of church government. Long before the Revolution, there was a general synod holding annual meetings, attended by representatives of presbyteries in all parts of the land, an organization which might well contain the germ of a national union. Mr. Hanna brings out many facts supporting his general claim that the part played by this race in developing our country has not been duly appreciated, and complains that the achievements of the New England Puritans have been made too prominent. There is a chance for controversy here, but we shall not stir up strife.

We must observe, however, that Mr. Hanna's sweeping charges against the "Quaker Oligarchy" of Pennsylvania cannot bear the light turned on the subject by the recent books of Mr. Isaac Sharpless. Whatever else Mr. Hanna does, he proves that, from the earliest times, the Scots have been distinguished for their ferocity, and that slaughtering and being slaughtered by Indians in this country was nothing more than what they had been used to in the feuds and forays of Scotland. Such a people could no more adopt Quaker methods of dealing with the Indians than the Hebrew priests could extend mercy to the Canaanites. Mr. Hanna gives an account of the massacre of the Conestoga Indians who had taken refuge in the jail at Lancaster, and of the still more atrocious slaughter of the Moravian Indians at Gnadenhütten. He remarks that the Scotch-Irish may be blamed for thus introducing lynch law in America, and comments as follows:

"This atavistic tendency is further illustrated in our own day by the lynching of negroes in the South, the frequency of which is probably due to the fact that the Southern white population is chiefly of Scotch-Irish descent; these examples of perverted administration of justice finding many parallels in the annals of mediæval Scotland. The family feuds of Kentucky, which, for the most part, seem peculiar to families bearing Scottish names, may also be cited as examples

and counterparts in America of the clan and family feuds formerly so common in Scotland."

The "perverted administration of justice" displayed in the murder of Indians guilty of no crime is further explained by Mr. Hanna as really a vicarious sacrifice. The Indians were befriended by the Quakers, whom the Scots hated; and as they could not directly attack the Quakers, they killed their defenceless wards. It is worth notice that a minister who had tried to restrain the Paxtang Rangers—the band which broke open the Conestoga jail and killed the Indians who had taken refuge there, men, women, and children—spoke of the affair precisely as the lynchings of negroes are now spoken of. The men, he says, "were in private life virtuous and respectable—not cruel, but mild and merciful. . . . This deed, magnified into the blackest of crimes, shall be considered one of those youthful ebullitions of wrath caused by momentary excitement, to which human infirmity is subjected." But the perpetrators of the deed scorned to apologize for it, and the statement made by their leader of the attitude of his people towards the Indians well deserves to be preserved as defining the general policy of "civilized" governments in dealing with inferior races even to this day. But we can hardly believe this worthy when he complains that the failure of the Quaker Government to offer rewards for Indian scalps had "damped the spirits of many brave men." It is a clever touch, and no doubt a canny Scot would be glad to turn an honest penny by killing an enemy; but the pleasure of killing would be a sufficient inducement.

It should be said that these Scots were forced to the frontiers in all the colonies, and thus had to bear the brunt of the collision with the natives. They immigrated when the lands near the coast had been taken up by earlier settlers, and were thus obliged to become pioneers. Their onward march has many features of sublimity, and no one will deny their courage and vigor. But they were a stern, almost a savage race, and their religion was that of a "peculiar people." Apart from racial considerations, Mr. Hanna's compilation has much genealogical value, and it is in this direction that his researches may be most advantageously prosecuted. These volumes cannot be said to be readable, although they contain much readable matter; but they will be found very serviceable for reference, and should find a place in our public libraries.

The Land of Nome. By Lanier McKee. New York: The Grafton Press. 1902. Pp. xii, 260.

Mr. McKee and a companion went to seek their fortunes in the Nome region of Alaska after the discovery of gold. They reached the town on June 20, 1900, and, after looking about, proceeded to Council City, a mining camp in the interior reached by ascending a shallow stream which falls into Golovin Sound, on the south shore of the peninsula. Here Mr. McKee undertook to practise law while his associate took to surveying mining claims. The former returned to San Francisco for the winter, and reached Council City again the following spring. Mr. McKee is a resident of Washington, D. C., and a graduate of the Harvard Law School; also, it would appear from his narrative, a level-headed and businesslike person, who, with his partner, scored a fair measure of success.

The account of the journey to their destination is a very straightforward, unsensational narrative of experiences such as have been the lot of thousands since the gold excitement began. It is true to life, and all the more welcome since the average returned Alaskan gold-seeker is prone to exercise a traveller's privilege of picturesque embroidery in his tales of adventure. The real interest of the book, however, lies in its first-hand details of the most remarkable and shameful conspiracy to defraud by wholesale the members of a mining community by process of law which has ever been exposed. The discovery of the gold near Nome was made by some of the Lapps engaged by the Government in the attempt to train the resident natives of Port Clarence and vicinity in the handling and use of domesticated reindeer. These Lapps were not citizens of the United States, and it was questioned by some whether they had a right to take up mining claims in United States territory. When the first news of the strike reached St. Michael, a number of traders and others hurried to the ground, and staked out a multitude of claims for themselves, and also, by power of attorney, for an enormous number of persons who had never been in the new gold-field. There was some doubt as to the legality of the title to claims based on these powers of attorney, and of the titles gained by corporations who had purchased and were working claims derived from the Lapps and the "attorneys." The inception of the conspiracy is wrapped in mystery, and has not been investigated by any court. A version which we are informed is current in Alaska, but of the truth of which it is impossible to be certain, is to the effect that a "member of the Board of Aldermen of the District of Columbia," and a political "striker" to whom he was indebted, arranged that the former should obtain the appointment of a judge for the Third District of Alaska (which included the Nome region) who would enter into the plan of recognizing "jumpers" of the claims aforesaid, making the "striker" a receiver for the properties in dispute under nominal bonds, and working the claims, so sequestered, to the incidental profit of the conspirators, the ruin of the original claim-holders, and, should the legal questions be finally decided against the latter, to the fabulous enrichment of the "gang." Thus robbery was to be brazenly perpetrated under the forms of law, and the fountain of justice poisoned at its source.

The injunction issued by the Circuit Court of Appeals in San Francisco, its defiance by the judge and his associates in Alaska, the final arrest, conviction, and imprisonment of the Alaskan members of the "gang" for contempt of court, and their dismissal from office in disgrace, are matters of legal record and beyond dispute. Senator Stewart has placed the complete history of the receivership proceedings, together with the opinion and judgment of the Circuit Court of Appeals, in the *Congressional Record*, where it may be consulted by any one, and the more essential facts are recapitulated in the volume before us. It is much to be desired that the public should inform themselves of this culminating outrage on the rights of Alaskan settlers and miners, and that a little of the indignation, fruitlessly if righteously expended on affairs in the Philippines, should be brought to bear on matters nearer home, in the interest of a community which has suffered from neglect and ill-treatment incredible in a civilized country, for more than thirty years.

The Pavement Masters of Siena (1369-1562). By Robert H. Hobart Cust, M.A., Oxford. Being the first volume of Handbooks of the Great Craftsmen, edited by G. C. Williamson, Litt.D. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1901. pp. xxiii, 159.

The Ivory-Workers of the Middle Ages. By A. M. Cust. Same publishers. 1902. Pp. xix, 170.

The famous Cathedral of Siena is distinguished from all other churches in having an inlaid and encrusted pavement. This prodigious achievement is not a mere pattern of triangles and lozenges arranged in circles or otherwise — it is not mere *opus musivum*, or *opus Alexandrinum;* it is an elaborate series of pictures, in monochrome or nearly so, but still pictorial in the extreme, framed in and set off by borders of checker and zigzag. With this elaborate pictorial surface adornment the whole flooring of the church is composed. Unfortunately, it has to be covered again by a flooring of planks, and these, though made so as to be removable in large square divisions, are taken up by the servants of the church only piece by piece, and in return for fees, nor is it possible to have any idea of the general effect of the whole church, with its pavement affecting the general design. This, which is, of course, the only very important point of view—the only way in which the pavement is really worth considering—is rendered unobtainable, except on certain days of the year, when, and for an occasion, the plank coverings are stowed away; but then the crowd fills the church, and few are they who in modern times have seen this great work in its entirety. Obviously the great artistic undertaking has proved a mistake, and the pavement is a thing not to be imitated or followed by future cathedral builders.

For the student of ancient art there is, however, no choice. He must become as familiar with the significance of these separate designs and with the general conception which holds them together in one composition as if they were in evidence daily, displayed upon the walls as one wishes that they had been displayed; and Mr. Hobart Cust's book is the only attempt made with any persistence and on any intelligible system to explain it—in short, to serve as a guide to the pavement, which much needs a guide. The work is divided into five chapters. The first gives the history of the pavement; chapter ii. describes it; chapter iii. deals with the artists who have worked upon it (these two chapters are much the longest, and include in themselves three-fourths of the book); chapter iv. refers to other important pavements in Italy; chapter v. comes back to the Siena floor, and describes, though too briefly, the materials and the workmanship with special attention to the gradually increasing introduction, during the many years spent upon the pavement, of colored marbles into the designs. There are tables of the pave-

ment and its designers, with reference to a skeleton plan; there is a list of authorities consulted, and there are many half-tone prints, one of which is from a drawing in black and white of the whole pavement; unless, indeed, it is made from a series of separate photographs taken vertically from above. We should not dare make this guess were it not that a precisely similar case is before us, in which a most elaborate architectural composition was reproduced in 140-odd photographs, which were then brought together edge to edge, and held on an enormous stretcher, that single photographs of the whole might be taken, with a very useful result. Another picture should be named, however, the most important single thing in the book—a plate showing the whole interior of the church from near the entrance door, with the plank floor removed, and the pavement showing in perspective, as it was intended to be seen—as it cannot be seen in modern times.

Another volume of this series is that on Ivory Workers of the Middle Ages, by A. M. Cust. It contains a number of successful half-tone illustrations, from well-chosen subjects, sufficiently varied, and expressive of the styles which they represent, if not very novel to the student of such matters. Such a student will miss certain important pieces, but that is not a thing to visit with much reprobation. The Paris Exposition of 1900 is mentioned, and two pieces that were there are named, while a third, the wonderful Virgin of Villeneuve, passes without being named; but it is easy to understand that reproduction of objects in that retrospective exhibition was forbidden except to those who had the contract, or the privilege, of producing one of the great books already published or in hand concerning that remarkable collection of works of ancient art.

There is really no fault to be found with the illustrations. As for the text, it is unfortunately slight, disfigured by a disagreeably jocose tone, as if really the matter were too trivial to be considered gravely; it is also quite devoid of systematic treatment. A little stream of historical narrative runs through it, with comments on each ivory, which serve as an explanation of why this and that bit of history is introduced; but evidently the attempt to treat the subject in a popular way has been too much for the author. There are better books on the same subject already, and when it was determined to make an inexpensive manual, it was much to be desired that this should be done in the most thorough manner possible. It is not easy to write a small book on a great subject.

Dutch Life in Town and Country. By P. M. Hough. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Usually "it is dark at the base of the lantern," so far as Holland is concerned, with the Britisher, whether he be historian, statesman, or the man on the street. He is apt to mix up the Dutch and the German, as if they were one people dwelling in one country. Nor does the Englishman go to Holland for ideas, for he is thoroughly persuaded that the Dutch are "slow." Hence, as a matter of course, we expect English books to be full of glaring inaccuracies when Holland is the theme. In the one before us we have a happy exception.

Mr. Hough has evidently lived long in the land and is familiar with the intellectual and social atmosphere. From cover to cover he is thoroughly accurate in word and idea. There is no other book which gives one so clear a picture of actual life in the Netherlands of 1901. He is so far up to date that he explains the recent phases of political parties and fusions, and the resulting election of Dr. Abraham Kuyper, the stalwart Calvinist, as premier of the kingdom. Again, he shows grasp and insight touching Dutch colonial problems in his chapter on "Holland over Sea." He believes that the Atchin war is practically over, and that the next few years are likely to see greater advances in the commerce and industries of Netherlands India, and a rush of emigrants to the colonies. In just opposition to some of our inaccurate dictionaries that profess to be standards, he does not spell the name of a Reformed Dutch clergyman in Scotch style, "dominie," which is the word for a "stickit minister," but uses the correct Dutch form in unaltered Latin, "domine." The same accuracy in details marks the author's presentation of his thoroughly comprehensive surveys of court and society, the professional classes, art and letters, school and school life, the army and navy, rural customs, and the other topics pictured in his twenty-one chapters. His general view, as especially noticeable in treating matters ecclesiastic and scholastic, is that of the orthodox Englishman, so that from some of his verdicts the American would make considerable deduction for personal equation. From what we know of the Dutch universities, one could hardly accept his chapter on these as fully satisfactory. He is remarkably fair and judicial-minded concerning religious life and thought, though in regard to the "Frye Gemeenten" or Free Congregations (rather than "Communities") the author is hardly correct, for of the fifty or more of these in the Netherlands, about fifteen are genuine Congregational churches, in which, with independence and the greatest freedom of organization, there is a tenacious holding to strictly evangelical doctrine and forms of church life. To read the chapter on "The Peasant at Home" will give to any one familiar with the indoor architecture and habits of the people who settled the Hudson, Raritan, and Mohawk valleys, a revelation of ancestral traits still persistently maintained in America.

Among the illustrations, most of them commonplace though well reproduced, is one giving "the interior of the church at Delftshaven where the Pilgrim fathers worshipped before leaving for New England." For this pleasing supposition there is no written proof, and our own researches on the ground show not only an absence of all record—the church book covering the history of the time having been lost in a "twist," or quarrel, between the domine and the town authorities—but the assertion is intrinsically improbable, for the State Church of Holland in 1620 looked upon Congregationalists as little better than Anabaptists, by which name, indeed, the Puritans of Salem usually spoke of the Plymouth colonists. However, the author does not make in his text assertion of the legend attached to the picture. For its accurate presentation of the Dutch situation in art, letters, learning, and politics, as well as in the round of common life in town and city, this book deserves the heartiest praise.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 17, 1902.

The Week.

Major Waller has been acquitted by the court-martial at Manila, though not unanimously. This can mean only that his defence was accepted. What was that defence? Why, that his shooting of helpless natives, without trial, was done in pursuance of direct orders from Gen. Smith. No denial of the facts was attempted. The men were shot down in cold blood. This was to outdo the Australian murderers in South Africa, who at least went through the pretence of a drum-head court-martial before slaughtering their Boer victims. But Major Waller testified, and in this he had the corroboration of three other officers of the United States, that what he had done was simply to carry out the orders of Gen. Smith, who had directed him to "kill everything over ten." We ourselves do not think this a justification. Major Waller might have thrown up his commission, or deliberately disobeyed such unlawful orders. No officer of the United States army is compelled to become a murderer at the word of command. But however that may be, the duty of putting Gen. Smith on trial is now immediate and imperative. If he gave the orders sworn to, and if a massacre of the innocent resulted, he is as truly a murderer as any man who ever mounted the gallows. The Administration has been forced to order a searching inquiry into the trial and into the tales of army cruelty with which the air is full. In Professor Worcester's book on the Philippines, there is an account of a Spanish expedition to Samar in 1649, to capture a revolted chief named Sumoroy. "They failed to take Sumoroy, but found his mother in a hut, and, *true to Spanish traditions*," adds the complacent American historian, "literally tore the defenceless old woman to pieces." In his next edition, Professor Worcester should have an honest foot-note to say that the villany which the Spanish taught us we executed, and even bettered their instructions, in that same island of Samar.

The existence of the water-cure torture in the Philippines was established on Monday beyond cavil. Before the Senate Committee on the Philippines two eye-witnesses of excellent character and standing told of the application of this inhuman torture to the Presidente of Igbaras in Panay on two successive days. The proceedings, it seems, were supervised by Capt. E. F. Glenn, Twenty-fifth Infantry, and Lieut. A. L. Conger, Eighteenth Infantry, regular army officers, and Dr. Lyons, a contract surgeon. The poor wretch was twice placed upon his back and the water forced down his throat. To hasten matters, and to add to his agony, a handful of salt was thrown into the water. "This," Sergeant Riley testified, "*had the desired effect*," and, as a result of the confession thus procured, the town was burned and the inhabitants turned adrift with nothing but the clothing on their backs. Whether the confession thus secured was the truth or not, no one knows, least of all Capt. Glenn and Lieut. Conger, for what human being could be blamed for rescuing himself from such fiendish treatment by framing any confession that his inquisitors demanded? Private Smith testified that he had witnessed the similar torture of two policemen by Capt. Glenn's directions. A "water-cure" detachment, he declared, was a feature of the organization of the Eighteenth United States Infantry—of that army which Secretary Root declares was moved only by "scrupulous regard for the rules of civilized warfare."

President Schurman contributes an article to the April number of *Gunton's Magazine* on "Philippine Fundamentals." The Philippine question is itself a fundamental one to the American republic, he thinks, being next in gravity among our national issues, past and present, to the slavery question. To discuss such a question he holds to be not merely the right of American citizens, but their solemn and bounden duty. If such discussion stirs up discontent among the Filipinos, even that is "infinitely preferable to our renunciation of free speech, of the sovereignty of public opinion, of government of the people, for the people, by the people, which is the soul and glory of our republic." Then he adds:

> "To attack or belittle popular government, to decry free speech and discussion by which it lives and acts, is to plunge the sword into our mother's bosom because the outgoings of her heart of charity render some remote ward too hopeful and independent to suit our temporary convenience."

Mr. Schurman tells us, further, that the Filipinos want their liberty. "You could not find in all the islands," he says, "a single Filipino who favors colonial dependence on the United States." This is the statement of the President of the first Philippine Commission on a question of fact. It is the unqualified statement of one who must be supposed to know more about the feelings and wishes of the inhabitants of the archipelago than anybody who has not been in the islands. In the latter category must be placed, first of all, Secretary Root. The list of distinguished Filipinos whose names the Secretary made public the other day as those of persons now reconciled to American rule must, if President Schurman is well informed, consist entirely of men who are willing to accept pay as members of the local government, but are no more reconciled to it than the Boers are to British rule in South Africa. And why should they be?

The President, after listening to all the charges and counter-charges affecting Messrs. Powderly, Fitchie, and McSweeney, and without expressing any opinion upon them, is said to have decided that a complete change should be made in the Immigration Bureau, and new men appointed to the places filled by all of them. It is said, further, that Powderly has resigned in response to the President's request, that Mr. Fitchie's term has expired, and that the Secretary of the Treasury is to ask for Mr. McSweeney's resignation and to appoint Mr. Joseph Murray in his place. Since this matter has a bearing upon the merit system as regulated by law, the Civil-Service Reform Association took cognizance of the facts at its regular monthly meeting last week. The office of Assistant Commissioner of Immigration is in the classified service, but it appears that the following order from the President, dated January 18, was filed with the Civil-Service Commission at that time:

> "An appointment to the vacancy now existing in the position of Assistant Commissioner of Immigration, Port of New York, may be made without examination under the civil-service laws."

It was ascertained that there are no specific charges against the present incumbent of this office, and also that he refuses to resign as long as vague and undefined charges are alleged against him, but is willing to resign if all such charges are withdrawn. The Association adopted a resolution saying that it had learned with regret that the office of Assistant Commissioner of Immigration had been withdrawn from the classified list of the civil service, and that it earnestly protested against such action.

Lieut.-Gen. Schofield gave some very valuable testimony before the Senate Military Committee, last week, in favor of Secretary Root's staff bill. Gen. Schofield was commander of the army from the death of Sheridan until his retirement in 1895, and is therefore in a position to speak with knowledge as to the desirability of abolishing the office of Commanding General, and substituting therefor a chief of staff. As was to be expected, he flatly contradicted Gen. Miles by declaring that the change contemplated was in every way desirable.

He pointed out, what is known to every one familiar with the army, that the office of Commanding General has no warrant in law, and that it is absolutely without power. Gen. Miles cannot now order a company to move without the consent of the Secretary, or take any other action without permission except to issue verbose and ridiculous orders. In short, his office is purely ornamental and honorary, and as such would be distasteful to any man not eaten up with vanity and love of show. Gen. Schofield declared that the personal relations between the President, Secretary of War, and senior general were far more important than any law, and dwelt upon the great necessity for harmony between them. This is another sad blow at Gen. Miles, who lacked the confidence of Presidents Cleveland and McKinley, as he now lacks that of President Roosevelt. Gen. Merritt testified that he approved of everything that Gen. Schofield had said, and that he believed every change suggested in Secretary Root's various bills made for the improvement of the army—a "vast improvement," Gen. Schofield called it. Neither of these veterans saw any signs of that "Russianization or Germanification" which fills Gen. Miles with such awful forebodings, Gen. Schofield going so far as to say that he hoped the army would be "Germanized," for the German army is in his opinion the "very best in the world." It is therefore not surprising to hear that the outlook for Mr. Root's legislation is very much better than before. But where does all this leave Gen. Miles?

That the present price of beef is wholly abnormal is generally admitted, and the fact is commonly attributed to the activities of a meat Trust composed of the six greatest packing-houses. This suspicion is credible enough to set the Attorney-General's office investigating the present condition of the meat trade, with the intention of thwarting a possible conspiracy to keep up prices. It is certain that, under the Anti-Trust and Interstate Commerce Laws, an injunction would lie against the parties to such a combination, while, under certain circumstances, a criminal action might be brought. Representative McDermott's resolution to remove the duty on meat strikes, however, at the root of the matter. Here is a remedy which would spare us the tedious delays of investigation and of litigation—a remedy, too, which works automatically; for if the high price of meat is due, as is alleged, to a general scarcity of cattle, the admission of dressed meat, and cattle on the hoof, free will not appreciably lower the price, while if the present suspiciously high prices are due to the fact that certain great packing-houses maintain a virtual monopoly in their allotted territory, the free entry of meat products will soon bring prices to the normal level. It should be remembered, too, that the total importation of meat products can never be large enough to demoralize the market, and that, accordingly, the present duty of two cents a pound is largely nominal. Large importations are possible only under the stimulus of the most alluring prices. It is unlikely that Congress, which shudders at the mere thought of "opening the tariff," will so much as consider Mr. McDermott's resolution. The chances are that the investigation of the whole matter will pursue the usual roundabout way to a futile conclusion, while all the time the Beef Trust is presumably taking it out of the retail dealer and the consumer. The possible sources of an additional meat supply are Canada and Mexico. Any opening of the tariff door should include all substitutes for meat, such as poultry, fish, and game.

Gen. Wade Hampton's death points as sharp a contrast as was ever witnessed in the career of a public man in this country. It is not simply that he had dropped out of active connection with affairs; for this his age would sufficiently account. Gen. Hampton was a type of the public man who had always controlled the fortunes of his State, except during the reconstruction era; and what is remarkable is that his whole class has, during the past decade, disappeared from South Carolina, so far as influence is concerned, almost as though it had been swept from the face of the earth. The old régime of which he was so characteristic a part is now only a memory in his State, and new standards are represented by new men. The rise to power of Tillman was responsible for this latest attempt at a social equilibrium in the South. About the same time, North Carolina was shaken to its foundations by an uprising which dethroned the ruling class, and put in their places men who would never have been thought of for judges, Representatives in Congress, or United States Senators in the old days. However unlovely the results of these overturns, they represent the passing, among the whites, of the last vestiges of the old artificial slaveholding aristocracy.

Close on the heels of Gov. Odell's signing the new anti-anarchy law comes a decision of the Appellate Division sustaining the efficiency of the old statutes. John Most had called on adherents of anarchy "to execute judgment" by killing, "through blood and iron and poison and dynamite," the heads of nations. Under section 675 of the Penal Code, which punishes as a misdemeanor "any act which seriously disturbs or endangers the public peace or health," he was sentenced to imprisonment for a year. This sentence is now reaffirmed. Unless some flaw is discovered by the Court of Appeals, the practical effect of the decision will be to render the new law superfluous, except in the one point of making such an offence as Most's a felony, instead of a misdemeanor. But, as we have more than once pointed out, there is no evidence that a severer penalty will have the slightest effect in checking anarchistic utterances. If an anarchist will run the risk of a year in prison for the sake of freeing his mind, he will quite as cheerfully run the risk of three years or five. Indeed, the extreme of punishment may give him the chance of his life to pose as a martyr before his fellows, and inflame their excitable souls to fiercer zeal for crime.

It is very likely that the Salisbury Government will not seriously press the Educational Bill at this session of Parliament, but the proposed act is of considerable interest, as showing the English official attitude towards popular education. It should be recalled that primary schools in England are managed either by elected school boards or by the directors of voluntary schools. These latter are under ecclesiastical (usually Church of England) control, and have a per-capita subsidy. Board schools are practically under Nonconformist management, and are entirely supported by public rates, but no board school is established except in localities where the central Board of Education decides that the existing educational facilities are insufficient. The new Education Bill proposes to abolish all of the school boards, vesting complete control of the schools in the county and municipal councils—bodies which are partly elective and partly appointive. These councils may, when they so desire, assume control both of the board schools and of the voluntary schools. Both classes of institutions are to be supported by taxation, but the private or voluntary schools will be obliged to keep up their buildings from their own resources. Over the board schools the county and municipal councils will exercise complete control; over the voluntary schools, the right of supervision of studies and of scrutiny of the appointment of teachers. These same councils may organize a system of public secondary education—now quite lacking in England—for which, however, no programme is vouchsafed by the Ministry. The City of London, where the School Board system is firmly established, is excepted from the operation of the law.

Americans will find it difficult to look with any patience upon a project which makes private schools under ecclesiastical control a favored class, yet the charge that the bill is a "Bishop's bill" sounds less grave in England, where the Established Church still includes a majority of the population and has recognized politi-

cal functions. Where the scheme seems inherently weak is in conferring supreme educational authority upon bodies which are constituted for quite other purposes, in leaving it open for the county and municipal councils to refuse such authority if they see fit, and in failing to indicate the lines along which public secondary education is to be organized. The bill, too, disregards utterly the historic fact that the establishment of compulsory primary education in England was a product of the movement which, in the early seventies, found expression in the school boards. It is hard to believe that in a single generation these bodies, which alone represent public education as Americans understand it, can have wholly outlived their usefulness. The bill very largely commits the small control which Parliament now exercises over the schools to the local councils. The measure suggests that the Ministry is willing to shift an unwelcome burden upon the first broad back—not Nonconformist—which offers. This will be more clearly seen as the debate proceeds. It is always possible that Mr. Balfour is about as zealous for the Education Bill as Mr. Chamberlain is for old-age pensions—and no more. Hereupon, even the friendly *Times* put in the word of warning that, "if the Government do not mean to carry their bill, they had better not have introduced it."

The huge and steadily mounting cost of the Boer war can best be displayed by reference to the successive votes demanded of Parliament. The first one dates from October 20, 1899, when £10,000,000 was asked. The Secretary for War spoke of this as a "prudent" estimate of a "superior limit"; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, while cautiously admitting that it was "possible that these estimates may be exceeded," assured the Commons that they had been framed with the "utmost possible accuracy and care," and said he saw "no reason" why the war might not be brought to a "successful termination" for the sum which Parliament was asked to grant. But Magersfontein and Colenso soon put an end to those dreams. By February 12, 1900, it was necessary to ask for £13,000,000, and by the 5th of March following £37,797,000 additional became necessary. Later came the demands of July 27, 1900, for £8,500,000, of December 11 for £15,500,000, of February 28, 1901, for £3,000,000, and, finally, of March 8, 1901, for £56,070,000. Here is a snug little total of more than $700,000,000, besides what Sir Michael has to ask for this year. But even this sum does not represent the total outlay incurred in subduing the two Boer republics, since a skilled accountant has shown in the *Fortnightly* that the cost of floating loans, supplementary estimates, annuities, and minor expenses, directly chargeable to the war, would foot up something like $150,000,000 more.

That no picturesque element should be lacking to the burial of Cecil Rhodes, Mr. Kipling has written for the event a poem in very nearly his best vein. The audacity which chooses as a burial place the solid granite top of a hill called "the view of the world," which plans a railway for future pilgrims to the tomb, provides a fortune for the maintenance of a last resting-place, and admits no companionship except of those who have deserved well of the Empire—such audacity of self-confidence finds few parallels in the world's history, and is of a kind to stagger all observers who are removed from the immediate impression of the event itself. Whether Mr. Rhodes rightly estimated himself in the light of posterity is necessarily doubtful. That he fairly estimated his relation to his contemporaries in South Africa is shown by the absence of criticism of his grandiose plan for the perpetuation of his own memory. It seems to occur to no one that conspicuous burial is usually conferred by others. The Duke of Wellington and Grant needed to make no provision for tomb or monument. The most striking parallel to the burial of Mr. Rhodes is in the old English epic of Beowulf. After the hero lies stricken he bids his comrades bury him on a great headland, "so that the goers in ships, seeing it from afar, may call it Beowulf's beorh." This may suggest that, whether in his personal emotions or in his policies, Mr. Rhodes, the chief promoter of syndicated politics, was in many respects a very primitive type, partaking of the generous virtues and of the unabashed vices and puerilities of the heroic age.

The recent Socialist Congress at Brussels has left a formidable train of strikes and riots. The presence of a number of manufacturing centres closely packed together facilitates the spread of a riotous movement. One feels that a genuine industrial revolt could not be isolated in Belgium, as such movements have been even in a country as small as England. On the other hand, the very compactness of the country, and the corresponding perfection of the Socialist organization, make it easy to bring pressure to bear upon the Government, and render it always probable that serious grievances will receive prompt relief from Parliament. The ostensible cause of the present disorders, and of the insults to the King on his return to Brussels, is simply the demand for universal suffrage. The highly artificial electoral system of the country does in fact invite criticism. The plural ballot is an offence to the growing democratic feeling of the country. It will be recalled that, while every citizen over twenty-five years of age, and not legally disqualified, has a single vote, those who have real estate valued at 2,000 francs, or an annual income of not less than 100 francs from real estate or Government bonds, have two votes. To this class also belong married men or widowers thirty-five years of age, having legitimate issue, and paying a house tax of 5 francs a year. Such citizens as have received a certificate of higher instruction, have filled public offices, or engaged in the practice of the learned professions, have three votes. In 1897-8 there were, under this system, 1,418,480 voters, and a half more votes—2,175,957. It is the one-vote people who now are agitating for a "one-man, one-vote" plan.

The recent course of legislation and discussion in Australia is likely to clear up, once for all, certain economic problems—such as, Can the state effectually define a day's work and prescribe a living wage? The Democratic (Labor) party is, if not in a majority, in virtual control of Parliament. The eight-hour working day is to be the law of the land, while compulsory conciliation boards are to have plenary power to adjust all disputes as to wages and condition of employment between employers and employed. It remains to fix the living wage, and it is reasonably certain that it will be set at six shillings or seven shillings a day. When this law is passed, Australia will have done practically everything—short of the nationalization of the means of production—which a state can do to regulate the relations of capital and labor. What no Parliament can do is to force an employer to pay men the living wage when he would do so at a loss. As it will stand in Australia, an employer of labor who cannot afford to pay his men the six or seven-shilling wage cannot offer them four or five shillings. He will have the option only of paying them the legal rate or of discharging them incontinently. In time of industrial depression there will be thousands of laborers not badly paid, but not paid at all, by reason of the law passed for their protection. That this contingency has been foreseen is shown by the practice of New South Wales, which engages to find employment upon public work, at seven shillings a day, for all laborers out of work. Already the pressure upon the Government makes itself felt, and this expedient, too, can be of avail only in relatively prosperous times. To spend the people's money in giving the people an artificial wage is a kind of boot-strap levitation which cannot work even in Australia. Incidentally, the living-wage theory strikes directly at industries like pearl-fishing and sugar-growing, which are necessarily conducted by cheap native labor. All in all, it is difficult to see how the Australian labor laws can weather the shock of bad times.

THE SUPPRESSED PHILIPPINE REPORTS.

Secretary Root and Governor Taft come very badly out of this affair of keeping back vital information from Congress. The reports withheld are terribly damaging, but the fact of withholding them is almost more damaging. It is not simply that it argues a lack of candor—it is very nearly a breach of faith, a violation of the implied contract between the Administration, on the one hand, and Congress and the people on the other. In a word, Mr. Root goes to Congress, and appeals to it and to the country in behalf of a certain Philippine policy, and then he keeps under lock and key an official document which shows that that whole policy is tumbling like a house of cards. No wonder that Imperialists are stricken dumb by this revelation. Their boasted eagle of empire, flying in the eye of the sun, is suddenly discovered to be a very silly specimen of ostrich, hiding its foolish head in the sand, and thinking that its fairly conspicuous posteriors are therefore invisible.

Mr. Root is greatly mistaken if he thinks that the airs of a Russian bureaucrat are in place, or will be tolerated, in the conduct of his Department. It is not for him to decide what information it is advisable for the American people to be allowed to have, in making up their minds on this whole question. They say to him, in the language which Burke addressed to an arrogant Minister of his day, "Information is an advantage to us; and we have a right to demand it." Nor need he imagine that he can fall back on the excuse for concealment which Dundas gave to Parliament—that the matter is of "a delicate nature," and that "the state will suffer detriment by the exposure." Mr. Root will remember how Burke shattered that plea. In words which read as if prophetically fitted to the case of the Philippines, as well as to that of India, he exclaimed:

> "A government has been fabricated for that great province; the right honorable gentleman says that, therefore, you ought not to examine into his conduct. Heavens, what an argument is this! Then we are only to examine into the conduct of those who have no conduct to account for. . . . The better part of the proposed establishment was in the *publicity* of its proceedings, in its *perpetual responsibility to Parliament*. Without this check, what is our government at home? But if the scene on the *other side of the globe*, which *tempts, invites, almost compels to tyranny and rapine*, be not inspected with the eye of a severe and unremitting vigilance, *shame and destruction must ensue*."

We are not arguing for the indiscriminate blabbing of military secrets. If Secretary Root thought that those parts of Major Gardener's report which reflected directly on officers of the army ought to be investigated before being made public, he might have kept them back for a time with propriety. But the burden of the report is quite other. It is the contribution of an able and conscientious officer to the large question of Philippine government. Is the present policy the correct one? Is it working well? Ought it to be changed? To all these queries Major Gardener's report gives the most pertinent and significant answers. Nothing so telling and strategic has been brought out by any witness before the Philippine Committee. The document is one which should have been instantly turned over to that committee of inquiry, and given to every American to read and ponder. But what was done with it? Why, Governor Taft concealed it, Secretary Root pigeon-holed it, and nothing but the indiscretion of General Miles gave the public a hint that such a tell-tale report was in existence. This is, to our mind, almost an impeachable offence. It is to treat Congress and the people with contempt. It casts inevitable suspicion on every statement of the case that Secretary Root may make. What cards is he still keeping under the table? General Miles, we note, spoke of "other communications" withheld, as well as the Gardener report. What are they, Mr. Secretary? This fatherly little way of treating us all as children, and doling out only information which is "good" for us, cannot be pursued much longer. Mr. Root had better volunteer his documents, instead of waiting to be further humiliated by having them dragged out of him by Congress.

The one report which has been reluctantly given to the public is, as we have said, a simply crushing arraignment of the course which the Administration has been following in the Philippines. Governor Taft has denied that there was any appreciable friction between the military and civil authorities. What says Major Gardener? Why, that the attitude of the army is "decidedly hostile," even "intensely so among the higher officers," to all forms of "civil government in these islands." The work of Governor Taft's Commission, he adds, is "openly ridiculed" by the soldiers; and when "outrages" are "committed by officers and soldiers in an organized municipality and province," they are "often not punished." This is bad enough, without taking into account the Major's reference to "the torturing of natives by so-called water-cure and other methods," as if those things were a well-known part of army procedure.

What strikes us most in Major Gardener's report is the humane and statesmanlike note of it. He speaks with fine disdain of the notion that it is "weakness" to treat a Filipino justly or kindly, having proved the contrary in his own experience; and his testimony as to the people of his province of Tayabas —namely, that they are "in every way superior in education, intelligence, morals, and civilization" to the Mexicans and Cubans, whom he has known intimately—is in line with much other evidence by our own officers, and puts the fitting brand upon the barbaric and bloodthirsty ravings of men like Funston, who prate about the need of killing half the "niggers" in order to make the rest afraid of us. It is precisely this cruel and overbearing course which is, Major Gardener reports, "sowing the seeds for a perpetual revolution against us hereafter," and making of the Filipinos our "permanent enemies." As it is, he declares that the political situation in his province—one of the richest and most intelligent—is "slowly retrograding," and that "American sentiment is decreasing." It is not strange that Governor Taft, prophet of smooth things, thought this report one which it would be highly inconvenient to publish.

Major Gardener's report ought to make every American indignant, but perhaps the chief part of the indignation should be directed against the authorities for trying to conceal it. This honest officer reported what he felt in duty bound to lay before his "civil superiors," in order that they might be "able intelligently to order what the situation demands." Who are these civil superiors? Governor Taft, Secretary Root, President Roosevelt. But are they supreme? Do they recognize no superiors? Are they so drunk with this new wine of Imperialism that they complacently think they can settle all these things in their own private conclaves, and keep Congress and the American people in tne dark?

THE PHILIPPINE MONEY QUESTION.

The currency situation in the Philippines presents some features of peculiar interest, for it brings the United States face to face with problems similar to those which have for many years tasked the wits of English statesmen dealing with imperial problems in the East. The problem presented to us is that of reconciling two currency systems which are necessarily in conflict. Philippine currency, like Philippine diet and clothing, has been unlike our own; and differences of this kind offer substantial obstacles to any process of "benevolent assimilation." Because of previous and existing relations to other Oriental countries, the Philippines are now dependent in mercantile transactions mainly upon the Mexican silver dollar—in other words, are upon a silver basis. For internal trade or for business with China this dollar has, under ordinary conditions, been fairly satisfactory; but recent events have demonstrated the unwisdom of relying upon a coinage which cannot be regulated—even by the laws of supply and demand—to meet the changing needs of Oriental trade. Furthermore, with the urgent need of establishing sound fiscal relations between the Philippine Government and our own, it has become evident that there must be some

coördination between the Philippine currency system and that of the United States. There is, then, obviously great danger that any projected currency system will either fail to meet the local needs, or will lack the gold basis which is essential to link it to our own monetary system.

Two plans are under discussion in Congress. The House Committee on Insular Affairs has adopted that of Mr. Charles A. Conant, who, in his report to the Secretary of War upon the coinage in the Philippines, has proposed to issue, on Government account, a distinctive Philippine coin, the peso, to contain about 43½ cents' worth of silver and to be legal tender for fifty cents in the gold money of the United States. Such a token coin must obviously be limited in quantity, if its value is to be maintained; but, in order to give it a wide circulation, which must depend on securing for it the confidence of the people, Mr. Conant proposes that this, with the gold money of the United States, shall be the only legal tender, and shall be redeemed in gold, at the discretion of the Government, from a reserve held for that purpose. In this way, according to Mr. Conant, foreign coins will be largely driven from the islands, leaving a comparatively clear field for this silver token coinage, referable to the gold standard. Thus the Filipinos will have a coinage adapted to their peculiar conditions, while the financial relations of the Government and the mercantile community to the gold-standard countries of the world will be made perfectly simple and sound.

The feasibility of this scheme depends upon the effectiveness in meeting two, and only two, general conditions: (1) the new coins must be acceptable to the people; (2) the Government must be able to control the supply.

The coins apparently would be readily received—judging by the ease with which the Bombay dollar has passed into circulation in the East—for local use; but they would obstruct to some extent the trade between the Philippines and those countries which continued to use silver, *i. e.*, China and the Straits Settlements. Adherence to either standard implies, of course, difficulty in trading with those countries which choose the other standard. As it appears that even now the trade of the Philippines is most largely with gold-standard countries, the change would be for the benefit of the more important part of the Philippine commerce.

(2.) Whether the Government would continuously have and properly exercise the power to control the supply, and thus to regulate the value, of the silver coins is a much more difficult question. Under Mr. Conant's scheme, the coinage pays a seigniorage of about 15 per cent., which is to be retained as a gold fund available for the redemption of the silver coins. This amount of seigniorage is regarded as the lowest percentage which would guard against any possible rise in the value of silver that could send the coins to the melting-pot; and, at the same time, it is thought to be the highest percentage which may be taken without leading to counterfeiting. Accordingly, this fund of 15 per cent. is provided at the outset, on the assumption that it would be adequate for meeting ordinary demands; and, in addition, power is to be granted to procure additional supplies of gold when needed for maintaining the parity of the silver coins. The Government, however, is to be vested with discretionary power to refuse to redeem silver with gold.

This is the critical point in Mr. Conant's plan. It presupposes the application to the Philippine money question of a higher intelligence than we have usually bestowed upon the same class of questions at home. It requires, also, the highest character on the part of the officials placed in charge of the mint and the redemption bureau. The men intrusted with these duties will be far from the scrutinizing gaze of the only public opinion they fear or care for. They will be appointed under the régime of party politics, and there is no certainty that they will be superior in morale to Neely, Reeves, and Rathbone. Yet, with all these drawbacks, this plan is to be preferred to that of the silver standard favored by the Senate Philippines Committee. By following the example of British India, the Philippine currency can be safely anchored on the gold standard within a few years, whereas, if the present opportunity is neglected, the country will be tied to China, in a monetary sense, for an indefinite time to come.

THE CHINESE EXCLUSION BILL.

We characterized as "a deliberate sacrifice of self-respect and plighted faith at the behest of low demagogism," the Chinese Exclusion Law of May, 1892. We see no reason now to apply any other language to the Exclusion Bill which has passed the House and to that which is now before the Senate. Both measures practically reënact all the existing exclusion laws, and extend them to the Philippines and our other "colonies." They not only incorporate the existing Treasury regulations, but go a step further than any previous law in the harassing restrictions and obligations which they place upon all Chinese resident within the territory of the United States. It is true that there is perhaps nothing so deliberately insulting in this bill as the clause at one time approved by the House in 1892, to the effect that Chinese desiring to attend the World's Fair at Chicago might do so *under guard*—with shackles and leg-chains, we presume. But the present bills are none the less outrageous in their general tenor and in their utter disregard of solemn treaty obligations, and of a treaty, moreover, which will not expire until 1904. Fortunately for the good name of the House, its bill did not go through without some protests. As in 1892, Representative Hitt of Illinois spoke out against such legislation, and Mr. Cannon was among those who opposed some of the amendments.

In the Senate Mr. Cullom, Mr. Hoar, and others have vigorously protested against the passage of the pending bill, which is practically the same as the House measure. Mr. Cullom is himself in favor of Chinese exclusion, but the drastic provisions of the proposed law are more than he can stomach. "There is," says the Chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, "nothing in the present situation that makes it either expedient or necessary to pass a law in disregard of our treaty with China." He wishes to continue the present laws until the treaty of 1894 shall expire, and to negotiate a new agreement with China in the meantime. He also points out that, as the present treaty forbids the entrance of Chinese laborers, it would make no difference whatever if Congress should fail to pass any new law until 1904. That the United States Senate should entertain a bill which would make every honest student and teacher from a friendly nation liable to sentence to jail, to deportation, or to branding as a criminal, seems incredible. Yet such treatment is one of the reasons which Senator Cullom gives for his opposition to the bill as it is now drawn.

There are plenty of other iniquitous provisions to arouse the antagonism of Senator Cullom, or of any man not blinded by politics or by racial prejudice. For instance, this bill repeats the old insulting provision that witnesses for a Chinaman must be "other than Chinese," or, as it used to read, "two white men." It also prohibits the entrance into the United States of Chinamen from our insular possessions. What is more, the bill applies not only to full-blooded Chinese, but to men and women of mixed blood as well. That is, the son of an American or a Frenchman or a Russian and of a woman of China may not enter this country with the desire to earn an honest living, either as a skilled or an unskilled laborer. In this respect, as in several others, the bill brings to mind the conditions in this country at the time of the Fugitive Slave Law. Photography was not in use in slavery days for such purposes, but its modern development has led our lawmakers to require that every Chinaman shall attach a picture of himself to the certificate of residence which he must take out within six months after the passage of the bill by Congress. As if he were a leper or an outlaw, our patient Chinaman must have inscribed upon this certificate his

"age, height, and *all physical peculiarities.*"

Not content with thus making every Chinaman legally a marked man in every community, without regard to individual character or standing, the bill requires that the Commissioner-General of Immigration shall make a complete record of the date, place, and circumstances of birth of every Chinaman, that his movements may be traced more easily. This is in line with the rogues' galleries in our large cities, and suggests at once the methods by which the European secret police follow up men whose political beliefs are at variance with those of the reigning governments. A similar procedure has been advocated, in and out of Congress, in the case of anarchists, as a result of the assassination of President McKinley. The anarchist has, however, one advantage over the Chinaman, in that nature has not stamped him as one apart from our own people. But though the Chinaman is not known to contemplate the murder of kings and presidents, or the overthrow of all governments, and is generally thought to be peculiarly law-abiding, the bill which Congress is about to pass marks him as one to be despised, shunned, hounded, and persecuted in excess of the anarchist. As for penalties for those who aid Chinamen to enter the country illegally, the bill abounds in them. Train conductors, masters of vessels, their officers and crews, employees of railroads, and drivers of carts will all render themselves liable to conviction for felony and fines of not less than one thousand nor more than five thousand dollars and imprisonment for not less than one year if they aid, abet, or *"through neglect permit"* the escape of any Chinaman "held in detention."

These are but a few of the features of this extraordinary measure against which Senator Hoar spoke so eloquently on Thursday, but they suffice to show its general character and the absurdity of many of its provisions, of which none is more impractical than that which requires the photographing of every one of the 50,000 Chinese in the Philippines. From water to vinegar, from vinegar to cayenne pepper, and now to vitriol—this was Senator Hoar's description of our Chinese legislation, passed at the behest of labor agitators and professional politicians.

BRITISH FREE TRADE.

We need not wonder that the proposal of the British Chancellor of the Exchequer to put taxes on imported grain and flour has been received with a burst of indignation at home, accompanied with jeers and taunts from abroad. It brings before us one of the most exciting contests of the past—one of the most notable pages of English history—the battle fought by the Anti-Corn Law League for cheap bread for the British workman. The names of Cobden and Bright, Peel and Disraeli, Derby and Bentinck, Fonblanque and Thompson, and a host of lesser lights rise among the memories of 1846, when the free-traders finally gained an overwhelming victory. Is it possible that England has gone back to the protective theory which she abandoned more than half a century ago?

Of course the advocates of protection, both at home and abroad, will say yes. Already they are rolling Sir Michael's budget as a sweet morsel under their tongues, and they will make every possible use of it in future contests for the adjustment of taxation. The fact must be recognized, however, that England is under the dire necessity of taxing everything that she can lay her hands on. It is not a question of protection or free trade that confronts the party in power, but a question of life or death to the Salisbury Government. They brought on the Boer war, and they must foot the bills. The cost has now mounted up to nearly a billion dollars, and the total expenses of the Government for the present year are $800,000,000. What is to be done? asks the bewildered Chancellor. Tax everything in sight. But everything except bread had already been taxed to the utmost limit before; tobacco, wine, spirits, tea, even coal, had had the last farthing squeezed out of them. Sir Michael had stoutly resisted the Tory demand for a bread tax. He had approved himself a worthy disciple and follower of Robert Peel; but, alas, necessity knows no law. The deficit yawning before him must be filled.

It is not quite fair, therefore, to say that Sir Michael has abandoned the principles of free trade. It might be said in like manner that Chairman Payne and Gen. Grosvenor have abandoned the doctrine of protection in having agreed to admit Cuban sugar at a reduced duty, because they have yielded to a necessity, or what they consider such. But in both cases the consequences of what is being done are of more importance than the motives of the doers. The bread tax in England is called temporary by its promoters, but who knows what its duration may be? Who can say what it may lead to? If this is a protective duty in its effect, then no matter what its aims may be—no matter what the motives of Ministers may be—it will lead to demands for other protective duties. First of all, we may expect demands for differential duties in favor of the colonies—that is, that the tax on Canadian wheat, for example, shall be something less than on United States or Argentine wheat. It will be very hard to resist this demand, since Canada already has a differential in favor of English goods—a discrimination, however, which England never asked for and rather deprecated. It will be harder for Sir Michael to resist this demand since Mr. Chamberlain has long been in favor of it. It is a part of his scheme for Imperial federation. But if Sir Michael consents to differential duties in favor of the colonies, he abandons free trade outright. He throws down the bars to every claimant for protection. He goes back to the days of the Anti-Corn Law League. Considering the powerful and growing competition that weighs upon British manufacturing industry, it is a question whether the proposed bread tax may not be the last straw on the camel's back; and when the Chancellor looks at the possibilities of taxes on raw materials yet to come, he may well recoil from the prospect.

Of course, the Liberal party will not miss this opportunity to find an issue with which to pull itself together and to oust the Conservatives. Sir William Harcourt has already given notice of his opposition to the bread tax, and the *Daily News* has sounded a trumpet blast against it. The progress of this Parliamentary battle will be watched in other parts of the world with interest as intense as any part of the Boer war from its beginning to the present time.

THE FORTUNES OF HOME RULE.

DUBLIN, March 22, 1902.

After ten years of disunion consequent on the Parnell split, the country has again pulled itself together; but there are no signs that the masses of the population will ever again, in our time at least, be so profoundly stirred by common hopes towards common ends as they were in the days of Repeal and of the Land League. For one thing, emigration has drained off that half of the population in which the seeds of discontent found most congenial soil; for another, the gospel of trades-unionism rather than political belief has taken firm hold on the artisan class, grievances in many directions have been removed, and disestablishment of the Church, instead of inclining Protestants towards Irish ideas, appears to have attached them more firmly than ever to the English interest.

Some £25,000 has within the past eighteen months been subscribed, largely in small sums, towards the support of a renewed national movement. Such fund, in addition to what it is now hoped may be received from the United States and elsewhere, is likely to be kept replenished. The spectacle of four-fifths of the Parliamentary representation in favor of Home Rule steadily maintained, in the face of all differences, through the past twenty-five years still exists. The impressiveness of this protest is considerably weakened by the degree to which, in Ireland, political opinion, as expressed on the platform and in the columns of the national press, appears to stand apart from that expressed in the daily lives of the people. In ordinary intercourse it is shown only in so far as is consistent with material interests. A stranger visiting Ireland sees little of it. Distinctive Irish opinion in shop windows and otherwise is no more to be remarked than in England. The portraits of Mr. Redmond or Mr. Dillon are not to be seen at the photographers'. Even in back

streets and poor shops the glories of the British arms are displayed; and the children of artisans of the better classes go about with "H. M. S. *Revenge*" or "H. M. S. *Bulldog*" upon their hat-bands. It would not be easy to meet a hotel proprietor, driver, or guide who, without having first discerned Home Rule proclivities in a tourist, would acknowledge Nationalist sympathies in himself, or the existence of general interest on the subject in the country. The Irish members are honorably distinguished by absence of self-seeking on their own account. I can think of but one who, in the course of the past twenty-five years, has sold himself to Government. But on general behalf of constituents in desires concerning quartering of troops, Government contracts, chaplaincies, and treatment of Irish soldiers and officers, there is shown little widespread determination to maintain, where personal or money interests are engaged, stern protest against British rule and British misdoings.

On the general surface of affairs in Ireland, there is apparent little of that attitude we are accustomed to associate with a people profoundly dissatisfied with the institutions under which they live. Perhaps similar inconsistency was to be remarked at crises in the history of other countries. The Irish struggle is, however, perhaps one of the longest of its kind recorded in history, and it is to be feared that the unheroic and spasmodic lines upon which it is maintained may have a permanently deleterious effect upon the character of the people. Their naturally amiable and facile disposition works against their success. In the long run, few in Ireland suffer in mind, body, or estate from their most virulent opposition to national desires; while little is forgiven on the other side. In large towns and business centres a man has everything to lose and little to gain through being a Nationalist. This state of things is partly to be accounted for by the extent to which the well-paid Government official element permeates and influences all sections of society, from the highest to the lowest. As the general population of the country has declined, the bureaucracy has increased in proportion and numbers, and has, through open competition, been recruited from all grades. From the lawyers down to the policemen and the boys and girls on probation in the postal service, they and their near connections are under Government control and surveillance, and cannot call their political souls their own. I know an instance of a man losing a lucrative Government post through having subscribed ten shillings to a Boer ambulance fund. In few countries in the world is the governmental control of the purse more astutely and consistently exercised in stifling or directing public opinion.

In comparing the force of the Irish movement with what it was formerly, we must realize that the Protestant element therein is less and less apparent. It remains to be proved whether Mr. Russell will be able to marshal the agricultural section of it into effective union for land reform, and whether, if successful in that direction, it will have learned to cast away its fear of the mass of its Catholic countrymen, and to sympathize with their political aspirations. The Catholic clergy have withdrawn their countenance to a considerable extent from the agrarian and to a lesser extent from the Home Rule agitation. The university question settled, it is doubtful whether they would desire further radical change. The liquor influence in politics has become more and more powerful and more selfish. It has been strong enough to oust from political life in Ireland some of the men, Catholics and Protestants, whose services on purely national grounds it would have been most desirable to retain. Some of the least worthy representatives owe their seats to publican influence.

A backwash to the political movement has developed from an unexpected quarter —the preservation and study of the Irish language. Strange as it may appear, the Gaelic League is, from certain points of view, being run in opposition to the United Irish League. From small beginnings six years ago, it has attained to widespread influence. Ireland, perhaps influenced by the extent to which ceremony holds place in the church of the majority, delights in political ceremony and procession. Last Sunday the Gaelic League made a display in the streets of Dublin which, for orderliness, character, and numbers, has rarely been equalled. Some years must elapse before we can really judge as to the extent to which this League will forward the general use of Irish. Appearances are at present in its favor. Where formerly nothing was heard of the language, weekly and monthly journals circulate, and columns in the *Freeman* and other daily and weekly papers are devoted to it. Scarcely a week passes that some new work in Irish or some new aid to study is not to be found on booksellers' counters. The language is in evidence as it never was before. It is being studied to their advantage by thousands who would never have applied themselves to the acquisition of any other tongue.

The motto of the movement is "Sinn fein, sinn fein amain"—Our own, our own alone. Doubtless it owes much of its strength and popularity to its being a safe and respectable outlet for Irish feeling, free, to the young official and other classes, from the suspicion of disloyalty. It dare not openly oppose the national movement, it owes part of its power and influence to dependence upon it; but upon the whole it is, as I have said, being run upon lines in opposition to older national ones. It preaches the doctrine that language more than separate political institutions forms the basis of distinctive nationality, and that Irish national movements from the days of Swift have been mistaken in that they sought to follow English rather than Irish ideals. (We are not informed as to the peculiarly Irish ideals in government that we should strive after.) Grattan, O'Connell, and Parnell are no longer to be regarded as prime heroes. "We actually have in our possession a great treasure, more valuable than any of the things which the power of England has taken from us, which ought to be guarded more jealously than fortress or river, viz., national language." If this movement should result in breaking the continuity of national thought, and in intercepting for a generation youthful sympathy from old ideals, more damage would be done to the cause of political nationality than could be accomplished by many Chamberlains; and failures and disappointment have made apparent in the country an unwonted spirit of cynicism in public affairs. This is especially voiced in the *Leader*, a weekly journal that has attained wide circulation among all classes. Talk about Home Rule is declared to be all *Rameis* (shadows), sympathy with the Boers unreal; the politicians are "surfaces"; the only objects worthy real pursuit by Irishmen are the use of the Irish language and Irish manufactures, the revival of Irish manners and customs and Irish ways of thought. In addition to these themes is to be noted much admirable denunciation of drinking usages and of the influence of the liquor interest.

E pur si muove. Home Rule still holds the field here, and even on the other side of the Channel, as a solution of the Irish difficulty. That it does so is largely due to the blindness of the Government itself. Were it content to spend, in buying out the Irish landlords, one-fourth the sum it has already lavished upon the South African war; did it not find it necessary to support the doings of Dublin Castle through thick and thin, to keep men like Judge O'Connor Morris on the bench, and to justify every police outrage, the path of the Home Ruler would be more clouded than it is at present. D. B.

MADAME RÉCAMIER.—II.

PARIS, March 26, 1902.

At the end of the Directory and during the Consulate, Madame Récamier had not yet distinctly attached herself to any political party. France was passing through a period of rapid transformation. The familiar society of Madame Récamier was a sort of mirror of this transformation; new names were mixed up with old names; the Montmorencys met Gen. Murat, Madame Murat and Madame Bacciocchi, the sisters of the First Consul, Eugène de Beauharnais, his step-son. Madame Récamier was anxious to count Gen. Bonaparte in her court, and made advances to Lucien Bonaparte. Lucien, from humble beginnings, had become a member of the Cinq-Cents, and, after the 18th Brumaire, had been appointed Minister of the Interior. He was only twenty-five years old. Without being as handsome as his brother, the First Consul, he had good features; he was extremely vain, and while he conceded to his brother superiority in military matters, he intimated that in political matters he was himself inferior to nobody. He affected to be a sort of Don Juan, and he wished for a moment to put Madame Récamier on his list of the "due mille." She deceived him by her amiable manners, but if she was a coquette, she was nothing more. Madame de Boigne, who knew her well, says even that "the term coquette does not exactly suit Madame Récamier; she exercised coquetry too much *en grand* to be called an ordinary coquette." She went to Lucien's soirées; they became intimate enough to exchange letters. In a recent sale of autographs (May 27, 1895) there were thirty-three letters from Lucien to Madame Récamier, full, says M. Charavay, who made the catalogue, of burning declarations and of incessant complaints of the coldness of Madame Récamier. M. Turquan gives the text of some of these letters.

It is clear, from all we know, that Madame Récamier offered to Lucien only her friendship in return for his love; that she was

afraid to offend too bitterly the brother of the First Consul; and that the affairs of M. Récamier, whom she consulted, exacted some prudence on her part. Lucien was ardent, impatient; he broke with his "banquière," as he called her, and asked for his letters, which she refused to return. It became more difficult for her to enter into relations with the First Consul after she had interrupted her relations with Lucien. Bonaparte was, besides, informed that she opened her salon more and more to Moreau and Bernadotte, whom he considered as his enemies—her house was open to all foreigners, to the members of the diplomatic body—and she received an official hint which obliged her to give up her weekly receptions. It was at that time that the famous painter David made her portrait, which is now in the museum of the Louvre. She is represented half lying on a couch, with a gown which is a mere tunic, and with her feet bare. The head is of an exquisite purity of feature, but rather expressionless. M. Turquan, whose antipathy to Madame Récamier is almost amusing, will have it that she had ugly feet. David's portrait is very interesting, and will always be admired, as well as the portrait made afterwards by Gérard, when Madame Récamier was no longer in the bloom of youth.

After the peace of Amiens, Madame Récamier made a visit to London, and for several weeks the London papers were full of praise of the handsome Frenchwoman. Wherever she went she wore a veil *à l'Iphigénie*, which fell to the ground and enveloped her with a sort of ideal vapor. The arrest of Moreau caused a real terror among the familiar friends of Madame Récamier. She was a friend of Madame Moreau, and she had the courage to go to see her every day, to attend her husband's trial, and to salute him. Bonaparte was advised of it, and Cambacérès, by his order, sent her a letter inviting her not to return to the court. She obeyed, but persisted in going every day to console Madame Moreau. She was thus thrown more and more under the influence of her friends, the two Montmorencys. The execution of the Duke d'Enghien was a great shock to their feelings, as well as to hers.

After the proclamation of the Empire, which took place in May, 1804, the Emperor made up his household and his wife's. Fouché, who was an assiduous frequenter of Madame Récamier's salon, and whose policy at the time was to conciliate the *émigrés*, told her that she did very wrong in maintaining a hostile attitude, and finally offered her the place of lady to the Empress. The same offer was made to her by the Princess Caroline, a sister of the Emperor. These offers were repeated several times, and refused. Récamier's affairs were in a very bad state, and his wife's refusal did not help to lift him out of his difficulties. There was a great financial crisis at the end of 1805, and many people were ruined; Récamier's bank was able to weather the storm for a time, but in October, 1806, its failure was announced. An advance of a million or two to Récamier by the Bank of France would have prevented the failure, but it was not authorized, and when Junot mentioned it to Napoleon, he said, "I am not in love with Madame Récamier." Madame Récamier had to change her whole life. As if her ruin did not satisfy the vengeance of Fouché, he denounced her in his police reports as the incorrigible enemy of the Empire. She was not exiled, but when Madame de Staël, who had really been exiled in 1803, and was living at Coppet, on Lake Geneva, asked her to make her a visit, she gladly accepted the offer.

Coppet was always full of distinguished visitors, and among those whom Madame Récamier found there was Prince Augustus of Prussia, the son of Prince Ferdinand, a nephew of the great Frederick. Prince Augustus had been made a prisoner at Saalfeld, at the beginning of the campaign of 1806; he had been sent to Dijon, to Paris, to Nancy, to Soissons, where he remained till the autumn of 1807. He was then allowed to return to his country. Stopping at Geneva, he saw Madame de Staël at Coppet and accepted her hospitality. There he fell in love with Madame Récamier at first sight. He was tall, handsome, very shy, yet not so shy that he could not confess his passion. Forgetting that she was married, he offered her his hand. She thanked him for the great honor which he paid her, and told him that she was not free. He spoke of a divorce; she knew better than anybody that she had never had a religious marriage, and that M. Récamier's relations to her had never been anything but paternal. But could she forget the great kindness which he had always shown her? She could do nothing without his permission. She wrote to him; he answered her that he consented to the annulment of their marriage if such was decidedly her desire, but asked that the rupture should not take place in Paris, but out of France. He added that perhaps she had not sufficiently considered what her position would be in Prussia if she became the morganatic wife of Prince Augustus.

Madame Récamier was much perturbed on receiving this answer. M. Turquan, on the strength of an unpublished letter which was communicated to him, but which bears no date, and the authenticity of which does not seem to us demonstrated, will have it that for a moment she thought of committing suicide. It is rather curious that Madame de Staël was meditating an essay on suicide, which she published in 1812. Whatever may have been Madame Récamier's doubts, whatever her conversations with Madame de Staël, the situation ended by her refusing the offer of Prince Augustus. He wept copiously and left Coppet, while Madame Récamier returned to France. She sent the Prince a portrait of herself made by Gérard. They maintained a correspondence which no events could interrupt. They saw each other again only in Paris, when Prince Augustus came back to France with a victorious army, and afterwards, in 1818, at Aix-la-Chapelle, during the sitting of the Congress which took place there. At his death Gérard's portrait was returned to Madame Récamier. The Prince wished to be buried with the ring which she, in a moment of imprudence, had given him at Coppet. The long idyll of Madame Récamier and the Prince of Prussia is a romantic chapter in history. M. Turquan's account of it has no romantic touch; he is determined always to put the worst possible construction on what relates to his heroine. But the facts speak for themselves.

Madame Récamier returned to Paris at the end of October, 1807; it was at her home that Benjamin Constant gave the first reading of his novel 'Adolphe,' which is still read by many, as it is a real autobiography, an account of the relations which Benjamin Constant had for several years maintained with Madame de Staël. 'Adolphe' did not please Madame Récamier, and in his *journal intime* Benjamin Constant wrote, on the evening of the day when he had read his novel, "The character of the hero revolts them. Decidedly, they don't know how to understand me." The hero was himself. The seizure by the imperial police of all the printed copies of a new book by Madame de Staël, 'L'Allemagne,' was a great event in Madame Récamier's circle. M. de Montmorency was exiled. Madame Récamier received again an order to leave Paris. She went for a time to Châlons, and later established herself at Lyons, where she made the acquaintance of the philosopher Ballanche, who became one of her admirers and (it may almost be said) slaves. She left Lyons for Italy, stayed some time in Rome, where Ballanche joined her, and in Naples, where she was very well received by Murat and by Queen Caroline. Murat had just signed (January 11, 1814) a treaty with the court of Vienna, in which he engaged himself to detach his cause from that of Napoleon, and to furnish the allies an army of 30,000 men. Madame Récamier became rather unwillingly the confidante of the treason of Napoleon's sister and of the anxieties of his brother-in-law. She told him that she did not herself like Napoleon, but that he ought not to abandon him. It was too late; Murat showed her from the window the English fleet entering the Gulf of Naples.

Correspondence.

LORD MILNER AND THE DUTCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Manhattan," in the *Evening Post*, criticising my last letter in the *Nation*, sees, in his British fervor, a great deal more in that letter than was really there. He makes me propose "that Great Britain should lead the way to peace by recalling Lord Milner, Lord Kitchener, and all others who are in any way objectionable to the Boers, and, if necessary, humbly suing for peace." I only said that, if peace was desired, it would be wise to withdraw with honor Lord Milner, who has pledged himself in effect to oppose any settlement but that which would enable him to set his foot on the necks of his enemies, the Dutch—an arrangement to which it appears that the Dutch inexorably demur. In Canada, after the rising of 1837, if the British Government had persisted in keeping Sir Francis Bond Head in power, it would have been long before the trouble would have subsided. Lord Durham, a stranger to the quarrel, was sent out to make peace, which he did with the happiest results, not only to the welfare of the colony, but to the interest and honor of the imperial country.

Equity.

April 8, 1902.

A BRITISH ACADEMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of April 10, pages

287-8, there is an article by Prof. Ewald Flügel of Leland Stanford University, entitled "A British Academy," which, in my judgment, requires revision or modification in at least one essential feature. Professor Flügel is in error when he assumes that no one has anticipated his excellent and scholarly researches in regard to academies that have been proposed or contemplated in England, notably during the Queen Anne or Augustan era of our language. The subject is indirectly discussed in Prof. Henry Morley's 'First Sketch of English Literature' as well as in his 'English Writers,' and is incidentally referred to in the second part of Skeat's 'Principles of English Etymology,' chapter viii. What seems stranger than all is the fact that, in Dr. J. A. H. Murray's Romanes lecture, delivered at Oxford, June, 1900, and most admirably reviewed in the columns of the *Nation* of July 12 by your Oxford correspondent, there is a concise, lucid, and comprehensive presentation of the subject from the hand of the foremost living student of the evolution of English speech.

The present writer also devoted two chapters of his 'History of the English Language' (xxvi. and xxvii.) to the elucidation of this distinctive characteristic of our Augustan age. Dr. Flügel is "not the first That ever burst Into this silent sea," though not even the most malevolent critic can fail to concede the fidelity and the thoroughness of his investigation. I am sure that I need not recall to his consciousness Matthew Arnold's essay upon the "Literary Influence of Academies."

I am, yours sincerely,

H. E. SHEPHERD.

BALTIMORE, April 12, 1902.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' most important recent announcement is of an 'Anthology of Russian Literature,' to be edited in two volumes by Prof. Leo Wiener of Harvard University. It will give extracts, but more often complete productions, from writers exemplifying the whole range of Russian letters to the present time. Other works in preparation are 'A Political History of Slavery,' in two volumes, by William Henry Smith, a journalist of large experience; 'Life at West Point,' by H. Irving Hancock; and 'Spanish Life in Town and Country,' by L. Higgin. Add also 'Labor and Capital: A Discussion of the Relations of Employers and Employed,' by labor leaders and master employers, edited by the Rev. John P. Peters. The English translation of Chateaubriand's Memoirs which this firm has just commenced bringing out, will be in six volumes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s April output will include 'Prisoners of Russia,' by Dr. Benjamin Howard; 'Practical Forestry,' by Prof. John Gifford; and 'Those Delightful Americans,' by Mrs. Everard Cotes.

'Mosaics from India,' by Margaret B. Denning; 'Village Work in India,' by Norman Russell; and 'Primitive Semitic Religion of To-day,' by Prof. Dr. Samuel Ives Curtiss of the Chicago Theological Seminary, are in the press of Fleming H. Revell Co.

'Samoa 'Uma: Where Life is Different,' by Llewella Pierce Churchill, with illustrations, is to be published "by advance subscription" by Forest and Stream Publishing Company.

Miss Ellen M. Stone's hard experience is to be narrated by herself in a volume entitled 'Six Months among Macedonian Brigands,' to bear the imprint of McClure, Phillips & Co. It can hardly appear before the autumn.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will shortly publish 'The Building of Character,' by Booker T. Washington.

Tennant & Ward, No. 287 Fourth Avenue, New York, will publish in connection with John Murray a translation of the 'Sacrum Commercium Beati Francisci cum Domina Paupertate,' a thirteenth-century allegory. The rendering, biographical introduction, and appendices of 'The Lady Poverty' are from the hand of Montgomery Carmichael.

Following Yale's Centennial example, the University of Chicago will issue from its own Press a series of Decennial Publications in commemoration of that institution's first ten years of corporate existence. Eight of the ten volumes contemplated will represent original research by representative members of the faculty, beginning with 'The Velocity of Light,' by Prof. Albert A. Michelson.

A fresh crop of Baedeker's guide-books for the current year reaches us from Charles Scribner's Sons—'Southern Germany' in a ninth revised edition; and 'Great Britain' and 'Egypt' each in a fifth, the latter after only four years. They are, with all the increase and change of routes and time-tables and inns, which need periodic overhauling for the tourist, permanent books of reference in their framework. The face of a country remains unaltered save by some Manchester ship-canal or Nile dam, and the maps can never become wholly antiquated and worthless.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s "Little Masterpieces," edited by Bliss Perry, increase by a half-dozen pocket volumes, prose selections from Bacon, from Swift, from Goldsmith, from Johnson, from Emerson; each with a good portrait frontispiece. The choice is excellent for its range; and where opportunity offers, autobiographical matter is included.

The George Newnes "thin-paper edition" of English classics, of which Messrs. Scribner have the American handling, adds Shakspere in three volumes and Burns in one. This series is for the side-pocket, and very convenient in its oblong shape, with attractive covers of flexible lambskin. The paper is not up to the perfection of the Oxford University Press's thinnest, but it is not too transparent for clear reading. The engraved title-pages and frontispieces are in the best of taste. In short, these are outputs to be commended.

The same Anglo-American publishers send us 'The International Students' Atlas of Modern Geography,' prepared under the direction of J. G. Bartholomew. After the contents, is exhibited a considerable list of foreign words entering into the composition of geographical names as affixes or prefixes; and this is succeeded by a chronological list of the significant world's explorers. An index closes the volume, in whose maps the British Empire is naturally best looked after. There are three and even four maps of the continents—orographical, geological, political, and for vegetation, and this treatment is sometimes extended to smaller divisions. The maps are clear and well executed.

From the Scribners we have also the seventeenth issue of 'Hazell's Annual,' for 1902 (revised to December 6, 1901). The character of this work is established beyond the need of praise or even description, but we observe that purchasers of the present edition are eligible to compete for ten prizes of from one to ten pounds by submitting lists of criticisms, corrections, and suggestions for future betterment. These must reach the Annual at No. 52 Long Acre, London, W. C., by June 30. We select for mention the chronicle of the Boer war for 1900, filling nearly ten pages, including the negotiations for peace with texts in full, and a list of British casualties to date. Under China, likewise, we have the peace protocol. What to call our outlying possessions has been sometimes disputed. Hazell treats of them as "Dependent Territories," beginning with Alaska. They demand a page and a half. The statement, under Wireless Telegraphy, that the electro-magnetic waves "can pass through rock masses and certain other intervening substances," is not one now subscribed to by Marconi, we believe. Important rubrics are Obituary and Literature; and noticeable is the Medical Summary, occupied chiefly with "the pandemic of plague" under which the world is still laboring. Quite new is the survey of the world's navies.

In honor of the Rev. Edward Everett Hale's eightieth birthday, just elapsed, the Outlook Company has published handsomely, in type so bold that it might be thought designed for children, his 'The Man Without a Country.' Though it has received a fresh certificate of beneficence from President Roosevelt, there are some who look upon it as the primer of Jingoism.

By a curious coincidence, the new (fourth) volume of the Transactions of the Mississippi Historical Society (Oxford, Miss.), contains a brief communication from Dr. Hale on "The Real Philip Nolan," a Southerner shown here in business relations with Gen. Wilkinson, Burr's accomplice and agent of Spain. Accompanying it is the translation of the record of the trial of several of Nolan's accomplices by the Spanish authorities in Texas, in 1801, the year in which Nolan met his death—and merited a statue in the Statuary Hall at Washington, according to Dr. Hale. There are several valuable papers relating to the legal status of slaves in Mississippi before the civil war, the war itself, the struggle over secession, and to reconstruction and the legal status of freedmen, in this volume of the Transactions.

The 'Diary and Correspondence of Count Axel Fersen,' translated and edited by Miss Wormeley, with ample explanatory intercalations, for the Versailles Historical Series (Hardy, Pratt & Co.), serves in many passages for the elucidation of the *vie de coulisse* of diplomacy during the wildest years of the French Revolution. The extreme simplicity of the Count's style intensifies, by its abruptness, such passages as the attempted escape of Louis XVI., the arrest at Varennes, and the financial wreck of the Government (p. 81). The introduction of explanatory matter gives continuity to the originally disjointed narrative.

The fifth volume of the 'Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne (Dec. 1, 1714

—Dec. 31, 1716),' edited by D. W. Rannie, M.A. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), forms volume 42 of the Oxford Historical Society's publications, and continues the diary, notes, and correspondence of the famous Jacobite antiquary. It includes the memorable year of the first Jacobite rising, of which, however, Hearne takes less notice than we should have expected. Just at that time he was fully occupied with his political troubles with the Oxford authorities and his pertinacious struggle to hold on to his offices, or at least that of sub-librarian to the Bodleian. But he would not take the oaths, and the "vile Whiggs" at last ousted one of the most learned, if not one of the wisest, men in the University. In addition to a minute chronicle of the rather ludicrous phases of this squabble, the book has many references to Hearne's editorial labors on Alfred of Beverley and Titus Livius—not the glory of Patavium, but Livius Foro-Juliensis (a name which the reviewer is not ashamed to admit sent him to the Encyclopædia)—and is crammed with notices of forgotten old books and MSS., inscriptions, monuments, and other miscellaneous antiquarian lore. Epitaphs of course there are in plenty, including that famous one in Horsham, Sussex, beginning "Quod fuit esse quod est," etc., which we believe disputes the palm of unintelligibility with Aelia Laelia.

A second edition of Fletcher's 'History of Architecture on the Comparative Method' (Scribner) has recently appeared. Much new matter has been added, so that the pages now exceed five hundred. The chief addition to the letterpress is devoted to what are called, with singular inaptitude, "the non-historical styles," *i. e.*, Indian, Chinese, Japanese, and Saracenic architecture. The most important change in the make-up of the book is to be found in its 1,300 illustrations. These now consist of 128 half-tone plates of the chief edifices of the world, and 128 plates specially prepared for the book, each composed of sundry line drawings intended to show the principles of construction and the characteristic ornament of the several styles. The comparative method, as applied to the history of architecture, which in Fletcher's work reaches a high degree of specialization, consists in subjecting each of the important styles in turn to a searching analysis in regard, first, to surrounding influences, whether these be geographical, geological, climatic, religious, social, or political; second, to the peculiar architectural character which it developed; third, to its chief examples; and, fourth, to its structural system, examined under such headings as plan, walls, roofs, openings, columns, mouldings, or ornament. Such a system demands, from each style, answers to an identical series of questions, and these answers, being put in a readable form, constitute the book. Were one disposed to do so, he could easily point out inaccuracies of statement, lack of proportion in the component parts, and amusing insularity in the treatment. Since the book is an excellent one in many ways, it would be at best but an ungracious task to tear down a structure raised with such great pains. As a conspectus of the whole field of architecture, nothing else exists which compresses into such small space so many facts concerning the historic styles, presenting them by both text and illustration. Not the least useful part of the book is the bibliography with which the treatment of each of the several styles is ended.

C. Litton Falkiner gives us in collected form (Longmans, Green & Co.) eight 'Studies in Irish History and Biography,' contributed through late years to the *Edinburgh*, *Quarterly*, and other reviews and magazines. In their plan and scope they remind us of Mr. Lecky's 'Leaders of Public Opinion,' which, published anonymously forty years ago, attracted so much attention. They are written from a Unionist standpoint, ably, fairly, and thoughtfully; and in the presentation of new facts and fresh considerations contain much that is worthy the attention of students of Irish politics and Irish history. Home-Rulers as well as Unionists will be able to draw from them inferences favorable to their views. Turning over the pages of this freshly written and attractively printed book, we are once again impressed with the feeling how far off still is the time when to those vitally interested in Irish affairs it "will be pleasant to remember."

Professor MacMechan of Dalhousie University has added to his admirable edition of 'Sartor' an equally admirable one of 'Heroes and Hero-Worship' (Ginn & Co.). The extensive introduction is marvellously tightly packed with detail, picturesquely stated, and touched with the fervor which is of the good Carlylean faith. The picture of Carlyle's audience is especially vivid. The commentary is restrained but adequate. If any one desires to take 'Heroes' in historical seriousness, and is not content with it as a wonderful piece of English prose, this little book will stand by him faithfully.

It is pitiable to observe the stress laid upon air-space, moderate temperature, and uncontaminated and appropriate nourishment in discussing modes of relief for the serious and prevailing diarrhœa of children, because it is the unavoidable crowding, excessive and prolonged urban heat, and unsuitable if not decomposing food or none at all that lead to an annual slaughter of the innocents more causeless and cruel than Herod's. This is forcibly brought to mind in reading the third and enlarged edition of Dr. Louis Starr's 'Diseases of the Digestive Organs in Children' (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.), which we may not analyze, but only note, with general commendation for those interested in clinical medicine.

In 'Hygiene for Students' (Macmillan), Dr. E. F. Willoughby does not offer, as the name at first suggests, hygienic instruction for the student-class, but presents a handbook for students in hygiene, especially adapted to English conditions and English sanitary laws. Each chapter is followed by its summary, and groups of questions are material aids in fixing attention on the salient points of every subject. The text, fairly up to the latest knowledge, is non-technical, and should be perfectly intelligible to laymen. It is true that, as Englishmen are prone, the author at least once confounds Sir Douglas Galton and his cousin Francis (p. 219), and he wanders a little when, speaking of maize, he writes (p. 29): "In former days the slaves of the Southern States of North America flourished on a diet almost limited to it, with batatas and pineapples occasionally added."

The second edition of Rideal's 'Water and its Purification' (London: Lockwood; Philadelphia: Lippincott), has been revised and enlarged, and gives clear information and sound doctrine regarding the characteristics of natural waters and their analysis by chemical and bacteriological methods. On the purification of water by filtration the book needs further extension, as only 62 pages out of the total 346 are devoted to this subject, and these give no details of filter-bed construction. The divining-rod as an instrument for locating springs is described and illustrated, and the author justifies its use by a comparison with magnetism, saying that it is perfectly possible that such a rod may move under the "induction" of running water. On the whole, the book, compared with the best American works on the subject, appears at a disadvantage.

Newell's 'Irrigation in the United States' (New York: Crowell) is a well-written and well-illustrated volume, dealing with a subject which is yearly becoming more and more important throughout that extensive region once known as the Great American Desert. The methods of storing the water of streams and distributing it upon the farms, and the marvellous results that follow, are set forth in a manner intelligible to the public at large, technical details being generally avoided. The author, who is the hydraulic engineer of the United States Geological Survey, contends that the irrigation of the arid regions is the most important public work which the Government can undertake. Since private enterprise has already utilized nearly the whole available stream flow during the irrigation seasons, the work of the Government must be mainly in the direction of constructing reservoirs for the storage of the flood waters. The fact that these reservoirs will cost large sums of money is well known to engineers, but the author dwells only upon the glorious development which will result. It is fair to say, however, that these arguments are not obtrusively set forth throughout the book, which is an excellent one for the general reader, as it gives in condensed form information scattered through many Government reports.

The third volume of 'The Engineering Index,' covering the years 1896-1900 (New York: *Engineering Magazine*), contains 1,030 large octavo pages, closely printed in double-column. It gives the titles of papers appearing in about 350 technical periodicals, with descriptive notes regarding the scope of the papers and the number of words in each. The general headings are subdivided into minor ones, and cross-references are frequently given. The classification and typography are excellent, and the entire volume is a good example of indexing carefully done on a comprehensive plan.

A timely publication in D. C. Heath & Co.'s "Modern Language Series" is Fulda's play, "Der Talisman," of which our readers have heard much lately. Professor Prettyman of Dickinson College supplies the introduction and notes, and reproduces Andersen's tale, "The Emperor's New Clothes," in German, as the basis of the drama.

Two unique impressions of Franklin's "Advice to a Young Tradesman" are the theme of Mr. Worthington Ford's paper in the March *Bibliographer* (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The one is owned by the British Museum,

and was printed in Philadelphia by Daniel Humphreys, about 1750, as the Museum authorities conjecture (the date of composition being 1748); but Mr. Ford demonstrates the improbability of this printer's name having been attached to any production before 1784. He ceased printing in Philadelphia in 1811. The other impression is now in the possession of the Boston Public Library, and it appears to have issued from the press of Benjamin Mecom, a nephew of Franklin, between 1758 and 1762. One conclusive consideration against the date 1750 for the Museum broadside is the modernization of the typography, in the matter both of capitalization and of punctuation, as compared with Mecom's. Mr. Ford does not make use of this argument, but any printer would employ it, and would, we think, infer a nineteenth-century date rather than an eighteenth. This agrees with Mr. Ford's noticing that the word "necessary" prefixed to "Hints to those that would be Rich" (from *Poor Richard*), which Humphreys added to the "Advice," by way of filling out his sheet, is first found in a London edition of *Poor Richard* dated 1805—six years before Humphreys quitted printing.

The International Congress of Historical Sciences that was to have been held at Rome under the auspices of the King of Italy, has been postponed for some reason, but not abandoned, as may shortly appear.

—It is well to call attention occasionally to the growing abuses of public printing at Washington. We have before us a copy of Senate Document No. 137, of the present Congress, entitled "Some Reasons for Chinese Exclusion." It has no indication of having been presented to the Senate, as no member of that body stands sponsor for it. The title-page expressly says, "Published by the American Federation of Labor," and the reader is requested to address the Federation for "further information." A poor caricature, and thirty pages of poor reading matter, with an introduction containing a touch of apology—this is in no sense a public document, but has been foisted upon the Government Printing-Office to secure a low cost of printing and the privilege of sending it free (franked) through the mails.

—Those who have occasion to use the public documents issued by Congress will welcome any assistance in the form of a reasonably complete, systematic, and intelligent list. It is not possible to arrive at completeness, for no single collection of United States documents is complete; and a coöperative list can take no account of what escapes its compilers. The sorry results of Poore's scheme were discouraging; and the efforts of individual cataloguers to make good his omissions have been partial and unsatisfactory. The Superintendent of Public Documents now grapples with the problem, and the first of a three-volume list is ready for distribution. It bears the title, "Tables of and Annotated Index to the Congressional Series of United States Public Documents," and covers the issues of the Fifteenth to the Fifty-second Congress. The documents of the first fourteen Congresses will be treated in a separate volume, as will the publications of departments, bureaus, and other offices of the Government, printed without Congressional numbers. Beginning with the Fifty-third Congress, the existing lists of the Superintendent of Public Documents cover the field. When the three volumes are completed, they and the annual list will afford a serviceable index to this great collection of public documents, and far better than any that has yet been prepared. It is understood that Mr. William L. Post prepared this index under the Superintendent's direction, though his name nowhere appears in the volume.

—So far as trial has been made of it, we find the Index convenient, not too elaborate, and yet full for the great items. By adopting the serial numbers first suggested by Dr. Ames and carried into effect by Mr. Crandall, reference to any volume is a simple matter, doing away with the clumsy jargon of Poore, with its complicated references to Congress, session, description of document, and number. By the side of the earlier systems the serial number is simplicity itself. Mr. Post's indexes will show the location of each of the annual reports of a department or bureau from the first issue—a great gain in itself. When it comes to a more complicated subject, the treatment is not so clear or satisfactory. The title "Tariff," for example, must be supplemented by "Duties," "Revenue," "Customs," and others, and cross-references are not always given. Under "Army" and "Navy" the arrangement is more simple, and clearly develops the advantages of the present Index. After a long experience in handling these documents, the present writer can but feel that no index will be entirely competent, since the inquirer so often approaches his subject with a hazy idea of what he wants, and an unwillingness to undertake the drudgery of spelling his way through the mass of material offered. Mr. Post's work is, however, a distinct improvement on former lists.

—In Scudder's Life of Lowell, at p. 103 of volume ii., there is quoted, without comment, from a private letter of the poet's (about 1867-8), an astonishingly mistaken affirmation that "Shakspere does not tack his 'lesses' to nouns, but to verbs. . . . I admit that *less* ought to be joined to a noun (as in German *los* always is), but I think one may sin with Shakspere or Milton." We say nothing of the German portion of this statement, though the form *leblos*, lifeless, occurs to us as at least requiring explanation; but five minutes with Mary Cowden Clarke would have shown that, aside from all equivocal examples, Shakspere uses beardless, eyeless, faultless, headless, heartless, lifeless, peerless, sightless, worthless, etc. Milton has "causeless suffering," "eyeless in Gaza," "fearless, unfeared," "loveless harlots," "numberless offences," "remediless doom," etc. In the April instalment (Leisureness—Lief) of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) Mr. Henry Bradley has a note on the suffix -less, showing that it was originally attached to substantives to form adjectives in a privative sense. In many instances the substantive "was a noun of action, coincident in form with the stem of a related verb, and some of the adjectives so formed had the sense 'not to be ——ed,' 'un- ——able,' as in *countless, numberless*. On the supposed analogy of these words, the suffix has been appended to many verbs, as in *abashless*," etc. Another suffix, -let, which is confined to substantives, was slow to prove its serviceability, but is now very active. "From the first half of the eighteenth century we have *streamlet* (Thomson), from near the end of it, *cloudlet, leaflet*." "It is now perhaps the most frequent of diminutive endings." The verb *let* demands many pages. We will instance only its restriction, in the once general sense of 'cause to,' to the verb *know*. A dwindling development is also curiously manifested in the case of the adjective *lewd*, from meaning 'lay, non-clerical,' in the translation of Bede's 'Historia Ecclesiastica' (890), to 'lascivious,' in Chaucer (1386), and now this alone. The intermediate stages were 'unlearned,' socially 'common, low, vulgar, base,' 'ill-bred,' 'bad, evil, unprincipled' (persons and things), 'unchaste.' In the large proportion of obsolete words here gathered together, we cannot, if we would, expect to recall *librar, librarian*, or *librarier* for 'bookseller'; but the versifier may regret this. It would not, on the contrary, require great boldness even in prose to reëmploy *level* in the sense of 'aim, calculate, design,' as in "levelled to destroy the Constitution."

—A difference in English and American usage appears in the accentuation of *levee* (a reception). "All our [Dictionary's] verse quotations place the stress on the first syllable. In England this is the court pronunciation, and prevails in educated use." Walker's stressing on the final syllable "is occasionally heard in Great Britain, and appears to be generally preferred in the United States." Our American derivatives *licensable* and *licensure* afford, says Mr. Bradley, some argument for differentiating the verb *license* from the noun *licence*, in addition to analogy (as, *practice practise, prophecy prophesy*, etc.), "although the spelling *licence* is etymologically unobjectionable." "Recent dictionaries, however, almost universally have *license*, both for substantive and verb, either without alternative or in the first place." Some Philadelphian, from his "Northern Liberties," might have furnished an American quotation for *liberties*—"of a city: the district, extending beyond the bounds of the city, which is subject to the control of the municipal authority." Per contra, the invasion of England by Americanisms is manifested in several instances, and it is apparent that British safety lies solely in shutting eyes to them. Before the last century, *lengthy* was employed only by Americans, notably by the fathers of the Revolution, including our first three Presidents and Thomas Paine. In a fatal moment, the *British Critic* (1793) objected to the word as coming from across seas; of course Southey takes it up (1812), and Bentham (1816). *Lengthily*, likewise, used by Jefferson in 1787, was banned by *Blackwood* forty years later, when it must have been insidiously making its way. Naturally, George Eliot adopts it in 1866, and now it is "hands all around." We could say more of this interesting if thin number of the Dictionary, but we will conclude by noticing the remark that *lex* (*talionis*) is no longer declined according to the context. We shall see, some years hence, what will be said of *statu* (*quo*) in this particular.

—On February 22 the eminent physician Adolf Kussmaul, who for forty years was professor of clinical medicine in different German universities, celebrated his eightieth birthday at Heidelberg, where he has lived in retirement since 1895. Additional interest is given to this anniversary by the

recent publication of the octogenarian's youthful reminiscences in a volume entitled 'Jugenderinnerungen einer alten Arztes' (Stuttgart: Bonz & Co.). This autobiography is not only an exceedingly entertaining record of a remarkable career, but also a valuable contribution to the history of the evolution of academic instruction and scientific research, especially in the department of medicine, during the first half of the nineteenth century. Kussmaul's father began life as a poor Suabian peasant boy, and rose to the position of a very capable country doctor with a high average of general culture, gentlemanly manners and fine social qualities rare in a person of such an origin. The son inherited these traits of character, as well as a predilection for the healing art, which he was able to foster under more favorable conditions. His name Kussmaul (Kissmouth, or, more literally, Kissmuzzle) did not tend to promote his advancement, and never failed to excite the astonishment and hilarity of his North German colleagues and acquaintances. As a student he bid in at an auction a volume of Béranger's 'Chansons,' and, on mentioning his name, was rebuked by the auctioneer for indulging in ill-timed jests. In Baden and Alsatia, family names implying osculation are by no means uncommon. It is said that at a ball in Carlsruhe the three most prominent persons present were two gentlemen, Kuss and Kussmaul, and a young lady named Küsswieder (Kissagain). When urged by a friend to change his name, he refused to do so, on the ground that few persons could show such an ancient and illustrious pedigree as his, averring that it could be traced back fifteen centuries to the famous Oribasius, physician in ordinary to Julian the Apostate, who, after the Emperor's death, suffered banishment and took refuge among the Goths on the Danube, where he was called Kussmaul. This fictitious etymology was accepted as a good joke even by philologists. Kussmaul's humor found expression in genial verses written before his exclusive devotion to science; these were afterwards printed for his friends as 'The Puerile Poetic Pecadillos of Dr. Oribasius,' and several are published in his autobiography.

—The Dutch have been celebrating the hundredth anniversary (March 24) of the birthday of Jacob van Lennep, who has often been called the Walter Scott of Holland. Sprung from a family already renowned in learning and the law, Jacob became also a lawyer, achieved fame and had an extensive practice, but, like our Oliver Wendell Holmes, he had an avocation in literature. In 1829, at twenty-seven, he published his first novel, 'The Adopted Son,' and a work on the national legends, following these in 1830 by two comedies, "The Frontier Village" and "The Village over the Frontier." His knowledge of the English language was extraordinary, and his translations of Shakspere, Byron, and Tennyson are strong and felicitous. Foreigners suppose that Sir Walter Scott was both his inspirer and model, but he himself ascribed the impulse to romance to his Swiss governess, Madame Wägeli. Of his romantic works, the translations in English have been, besides the books named above, 'The Rose of Decama,' 'The Abduction,' and others. In his excursions in the field of romance, he went so far afield as Venice, Turkey, Java, and the South Seas, writing tragedies, comedies, and operas which enjoyed great favor upon the stage. He spent some years upon a critical edition of Vondel's writings. The works by which he will in all probability be best remembered, are the historical novels illustrating the mediæval history of the northern Netherlands. Most valuable to the library of the student are his antiquarian writings, especially his superbly illustrated essay, in six volumes, upon the Castles of the Netherlands, upon which he wrought in conjunction with his friend Hofdijk and with the coöperation of able artists. This not only shows a great deal of exact painstaking investigation, but is penetrated throughout with brilliant imagination, and forms a wonderful window into the past. A Liberal in politics, Van Lennep died at Oosterbeek in 1868, a generation before the "monster verbond" (as he named the political compact between the Calvinists and Roman Catholics) had triumphed at the polls.

—Prof. Finnur Jónsson of Copenhagen has just finished the third and last volume of his 'History of the Old Norwegian and Old Icelandic Literature,' of which the first part of volume one appeared in 1893. This work is, beyond comparison, the most complete and exhaustive treatment of the subject thus far published. The literature from its earliest inception in Eddic and Scaldic poetry (about the year 850), through sagas, laws, translations, and reproductions down to about the year 1450, is embraced in three volumes—the first, in three parts amounting to 650 pages; the second, in five parts of 1,009 pages; and the third, in one part of 126 pages. The disparity in size is due to the fact that the first two volumes deal with the productive periods of the literature, while the last volume treats of a period which was to a large extent characterized by a merely mechanical reproduction. It may cause surprise that a subject so abstruse as Icelandic literature would seem to us to be, should have a sufficient number of devotees, even among Scandinavian book-buyers, to warrant any publisher bringing out a work of such dimensions. The fact is, however, that Denmark is the happy possessor of a fund, called the Carlsberg Fund, endowed by the well-known patron of literature and art, the brewer Jacobsen, in its scope somewhat similar to the recently endowed Carnegie Fund in Washington. By this means the work has been enabled to see the light.

—It has already occasioned several monographs in opposition. Thus, Prof. Bugge of Christiania has earnestly disputed the author's acceptance of the Icelandic tradition as a reliable guide in judging the age of the oldest Norwegian scalds, none of whom Bugge believes to be older than the tenth century, whereas tradition carries them up to the middle of the ninth. Bugge's chief argument is taken from the linguistic characteristics of these poets, their use of foreign words of Celtic and Romance origin, etc.—characteristics which presuppose an extensive intercourse between the Norsemen and their western and southern neighbors. The dispute cannot as yet be said to have been authoritatively settled. Another moot point is Jónsson's localization of the Eddic poems. Whereas Vigfusson and, more recently, Bugge have held the opinion that these poems were, with perhaps one or two exceptions, produced in the Norwegian settlements in the Western Isles, Jónsson has come to the conclusion that their home is for the greater part to be sought for in Norway proper, and, for a couple of the poems, in the Icelandic colony in Greenland. Previous works dealing with old Norse and old Icelandic literature had become more or less antiquated, besides laboring under other defects, such as excessive partiality due to patriotism, etc. Professor Jónsson has aimed at completeness, thoroughness, and an objective treatment.

BRINKLEY'S JAPAN.

Oriental Series: Japan and China. In twelve volumes. Vols. I.-IV.: Japan, its History, Arts and Literature. By Captain F. Brinkley. Boston and Tokyo: J. B. Millet Co.

A work like this in four volumes, the product of ripe scholarship and the unremitting industry of thirty years or more of life in Japan by one long since recognized as an authority, deserves more space than our limits will allow. The present handsomely printed edition is copiously illustrated with wood engravings, photographic reproductions, and brightly colored pictures, which, nevertheless, do not in the main correspond nor altogether harmonize with the seriousness of the text. The writing is that of a master of a great subject. He treats his theme with dignity, profundity, ease, and attractiveness. The pictures, on the other hand, are almost wholly of modern things with which the tourist is familiar. Many of them are commonplace because of their great familiarity. The exceptions are the state interiors and excellent costumes historically correct. From the artistic side one might suppose this publication to be for the parlor table, whereas it is worthy of the library of the severest critic, except that the literary apparatus is of the most meagre sort. It is to be hoped that the same work, properly considered for the student and general reader who cannot purchase the more expensive edition, will be prepared.

While so many persons are writing upon Japan, most of them with only ordinary knowledge, and some with conceit of shallowest information, it is well to have the personality of this author set forth, in order that the value of his work may be known. In the late sixties, when the disturbed condition of Japan made the British Government think it necessary to land armed forces in a camp at Yokohama and to keep them there for several years, Capt. Brinkley, an artillery officer, instead of devoting himself to the fascinations of Japanese nature and humanity, gave himself to the study of the language, art, and native learning with a thoroughness known to few besides "the three great lights of Japanese scholarship"—Satow, Aston, and Chamberlain—to whom he dedicates his work. It is not too much to say that the "lights" are four, and Brinkley is one. Others might excel in linguistics, art, belles-lettres, or in the special phases of a subject whose richness is a constant surprise, but it is safe to say that probably no one living has covered so thoroughly the whole ground of Japanese achievement, from prehistoric days to the assassination

of Hoshi Toru. Our guide handles with ready familiarity and firm touch every subject which he brings before us. His style is pleasing, and such mistakes in the text as we have been able to find are manifest slips of penman or printer. The transliteration of Japanese words is that of an accurate scholar. Wherein the author seems blind or purposely omissive, is in not giving to modern external influences their deserved credit. Knowing how thoroughly the American teachers in Japan not only trained up many of the men now most active and influential in Japanese politics in the spirit and practice of the deliberative assembly, which was unknown in Japan until they came, it seems absurd to make no reference to these potencies. The American reader will also find that almost all the references to his own country are sinister, and, if ever complimentary, of microscopic dimensions. The "Tammany Hall boss" we know, but the "scheister" ascribed to America seems to have been made in Germany. Pretty much all the "modern instances" are English, rather even than British, revealing the author's limitations.

The author quite rarely quotes from any other writer, having perhaps little need to do so; but his bald statement that "Griffin" —a misprint for the author of 'The Mikado's Empire'—"was content to think that they [the Japanese] are modern Ainu," is not just to that writer, especially as another critic of equal eminence finds fault with the same American for deriving the Japanese from Malaysia. Capt. Brinkley, like most modest investigators, concedes the fact "that the Japanese are not a pure race. They present several easily distinguishable types, notably the patrician and the plebeian." Indeed, the Japanese are a very mixed race, and "the theory which seems to fit the facts best is that the Japanese are compounded of elements from central and southern Asia." The conquering immigrants arrived by way of Korea, though they were neither Koreans nor Chinese, while the south Asian immigrants drifted to Japan from the Philippine region and below, along the strange current called The Black Tide.

At the end of each volume the author gives in an appendix several pages of notes and references, all of them very interesting, and showing fulness and nicety in scholarship. Concerning the mythology which the educated intelligent Japanese resolves not to scrutinize too closely, it is hardly a correct intimation that "neither a Colenso nor a Huxley has yet arisen to attack [it] publicly," for it is a fact which, in the light of scholarship and of Japanese professions of intellectual liberality, is not at all creditable, that a native professor in the Imperial University was, not so long ago, first officially silenced and then retired for venturing to criticise the mythology on which theories of government still current were based. Capt. Brinkley himself (p. 81) suggests that written "history" in Japan began only when books and writings reached the continent. Those Japanese who became scholars, found in Chinese history, when its pages were first opened for their inspection, an explanation of the Japanese nation's origin. In all probability, the first historiographers in Nippon derived the idea of an "age of the gods" and of a divinely descended emperor from the stories found in the Chinese fabulists. In other words, just as the first European settlers of America brought to this continent the old-world myths of the Amazons, the Seven Cities, and the Antilles, and roamed westward chasing the shadows of their own fancy, so the first Japanese users of writing took continental fiction, and gave it a local habitation and new names. They invented that great system of mythology out of which has emerged the serviceable political doctrine that the Japanese emperors, being of divine origin, rule by heavenly right—a doctrine incorporated in the preamble and first article of the Constitution of the Empire. On the official text of a "line of emperors unbroken for ages eternal," the Marquis Ito, in his famous Commentaries, sets forth this notion gravely and with intensest dogmatism, in apparently childlike faith. And this, though the 'Nihongi' (Chronicles of Japan), composed 720 A. D., shows repeatedly transparent imitations, and even extended copying, of ancient Chinese writings.

It is Capt. Brinkley's method to omit purposely the details of battles and sieges, and give a social, intellectual, and literary history. In volume i. he treats of the primeval Japanese, Japan on the verge of history, the early eras, and, most felicitously and luminously, of that wonderful epoch of Nara (709-784), when Buddhism was the new teacher and nurse of civilization. The Hei-an epoch lasted from the eighth to the middle of the twelfth century, when Kioto was the capital, the centre of all refining influences and civil power, when the Fujiwara nobles ruled the court, while the Minamoto and Taira generals were asserting Imperialism, and carrying the bounds of the empire to the farthest islands. No author has yet treated this period with such consummate ability and grace.

Volume ii. is devoted to military life and the military epoch, in which civil life, so splendid in the capital, formed its own code, and in which elegance in art, costume, literature reached among the nobles (*kugé*) the highest pitch, while the military families (*buké*) were in the field and on the frontiers devoting themselves to arms, armor, and physical training without letters. The nation was, in fact, divided into three factions, the court nobles, the military families, and the priests. The æsthetic tendencies and delight in nature and art were as manifest, though in smaller compass, as now, among the Japanese. Of the manners and customs, the weapons and operations of war, the refinements and pastimes of the military epoch, Capt. Brinkley writes with the exactness of an expert. He expounds in one chapter the Bushi-do, the warrior's way, or code of chivalry, unwritten, indeed, but mightily influencing Japan in the twentieth century, and making her people unique among Asian nations. Indeed, the aim of government since 1868 has been to lift up the whole nation into knightly ideals and privileges, and this is the secret of the morale of its sailors and soldiers.

The subject of the military classes is continued in the third volume, which, however, is mainly devoted to the splendid era of the Tokugawas, from rise to fall. In the fourth and concluding volume, the author handles with masterly power every subject likely to interest an inquirer into the springs of life and action, and the secrets of Japanese potency. He treats of the court, manners and customs, and of criminal procedure and criminal classes, and every page of his text shows familiarity with both recondite sources, standard fiction, and popular notions. The chapter on personal liberty, justice, slavery, and checks of vice, corrects many shallow Western notions about the Japanese, and proves the earnestness of the statesmen of the Tokugawa times, who, within the limits of their knowledge and possibilities, strove manfully to solve social problems.

The movements of the native religions, Buddhism and Shinto, and the influence of philosophy are finely set forth, ponderated and measured. The work closes with a chapter on Méiji, or the era of enlightened government, in which the story, from 1868 to the fall of the last Ito cabinet, is told by one who seems to hold all the threads, weaving them into a bright texture, rich in color, which corresponds to the pattern of reality. Probably no other foreigner living has a keener insight and closer understanding of Japanese parties and politics, of which the former as yet are built on persons rather than on ideas or principles. The author is eminently judicial, sparing neither severity of language nor hearty appreciation. He awards high meed of praise to the great constructive statesmen, and understands well the motives of their noisy detractors. He does not hesitate to lay open the abysses of sensualism and the barbarism that prevailed in days gone by, and that still exist under the name of civilization, while showing the great ability of this nation that "adopts nothing but adapts everything."

It is clear from this long view of Japan's evolution that, from the very first, the Japanese have been ready to try experiments. They have always been willing to learn, and have ever proved themselves apt pupils. Even Buddhism, essentially a creed of compromises, in grafting other faiths upon its own system rather than seeking to uproot them, has helped the Japanese to adapt themselves docilely to radical changes, and to become expert in adjustment and compromise. It has thus been solidly serviceable to the Japanese in their modern career. On the other hand, the moral limpness of such a creed, inducing weakness of moral fibre, may explain why Japanese enterprise often seems to flag on the threshold of attainment. It is perhaps Buddhism, also, that has taught in the people a patience almost unlimited, inducing the profoundest faith in time. As we all know, in the story of the Forty-seven Ronins, the marked victim, just when he ought to have been sleeplessly vigilant, supposed his enemy had abandoned the field altogether. On the contrary, the victim found him waiting at his post, the result being that his own head soon decorated the tomb of the avenged, where a perpetual decoration day is kept amid perfume and homage. What the Japanese cannot gain through collision he will often attain by sheer insistence.

MAHAN'S TYPES OF NAVAL OFFICERS.

Types of Naval Officers. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, United States Navy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1901.

The American reader will naturally ask why Capt. Mahan should have thought that the lives of the six British admirals, selected as types of the naval officer, needed

to be rewritten and subjected to comparative analysis. The answer to this query will doubtless be found in the author's desire to complete his treatment of the great subject of sea power (especially in the eighteenth century), begun in his initial work and illuminated in broad outlines by his Life of Nelson, but still requiring that detailed elucidation which Hawke and Rodney, Howe and Jervis, Saumarez and Pellew, through their characters and deeds, seemed best adapted to furnish.

In the present volume are described the changes in naval warfare which, introduced by Hawke, galvanized into vigorous activity the British navy, then moss-grown and suffering from the dry-rot of formal Fighting Instructions that cost poor Mathews whatever of reputation he possessed, and Byng his life itself. Fifty years later, these changes reached a magnificent culmination under the genius of Nelson. Nowhere else, by the way, has Byng's action off Minorca in 1756 been made so clear to the layman; nowhere else has Mathews's action in 1744 been so ably analyzed. If any demonstration were needed of the folly of laying down minute regulations as to how to engage an enemy, and of attempting, by Governmental order, to eliminate personal initiative, these pages should suffice. The apparently incidental discussion of the difference between "errors of conduct" and "errors of judgment" was evidently written with one eye turned towards the wretched Schley matter—a circumstance which somewhat lessens its weight. We are still too near that dreadful subject to gain a just perspective.

Few naval heroes are so inspiring as Hawke (Mahan's first type), whose career is almost unrivalled in its lack of incidents to regret. He came first into prominence in Mathews's action, when, breaking with the old traditions and the Fighting Instructions, he boldly captured the Spanish *Poder*, after having severely crippled the *Neptuno*. The story of his victory over Conflans in Quiberon Bay in 1759 is one of the most dramatic in naval history. From Horace Walpole it extorted this unwilling tribute:

> "It was the 20th of November; the shortness of the day prevented the total demolition of the enemy; but neither darkness nor a dreadful tempest that ensued could call off Sir Edward Hawke from pursuing his blow. The roaring of the elements was redoubled by the thunder from our ships; and both concurred in that scene of horror to put a period to the navy and the hopes of France."

Hawke's greatest feat was, unquestionably, the establishing and maintaining of an efficient blockade of the French naval port of Brest, "prolonged through six months of closest watching, into the period of the winter gales, in face of which it had been hitherto thought impossible to keep the sea with heavy ships massed in fleets." This policy afterwards, under St. Vincent, had no small share in wrecking Napoleon's scheme of universal dominion.

Capt. Mahan's treatment of Rodney's character and career is especially commendable, for Rodney's was not a simple nature like Hawke's, but complex in the extreme. To Americans Rodney is of surpassing interest. It was his distinction to see with the eye of the strategist, and to assume great responsibilities in obedience to his sense of duty. By his coming from the West Indies in 1780 (without orders) to North America, and assuming general command, the well-laid plans of Washington were brought to naught and our War of Independence prolonged. The approval of this action by his Government is a splendid tribute: "It is impossible for us to have a superior fleet in every part, and unless our commanders-in-chief will take the great line, as you do, and consider the King's whole dominions as under their care, our enemies must find us unprepared somewhere, and carry their point against us." Rodney's professional reputation is based on his defeat of Langara, an action whose circumstances lose little even in comparison with Hawke's fierce onslaught at Quiberon, on his affair with De Guichen off Martinique in 1780, wherein the fruits of victory were lost through the incompetence of some of his subordinates, and on his battle with De Grasse on April 12, 1782. The less pleasing side of his disposition is shown in his reluctance to leave the spoils of St. Eustatia, which he gathered to the extent of £3,000,000, and in his failure to press home his advantage after De Grasse and the French flagship had been captured. "What he had won, he had won; what more he might and should do, he would not see, nor would he risk." He had grave personal faults, which were not generous like Nelson's, and which were increased by the financial straits in which the greater part of his life was passed. We think Capt. Mahan has not sufficiently appreciated the exceptional capacity in strategy displayed by the only Englishman of his day who, like Washington alone on our side, grasped the situation, and realized that upon naval supremacy hung the issue of our struggle for independence.

Like all other writers in their turn, Mahan has fallen a victim to the engaging personality of Lord Howe, that warm-hearted, bluff, and capable sailor. Howe was a close student of his profession in a faithful and dogged way, but he certainly was not brilliant. To read about him is to be inevitably drawn towards him in affection. He could not bear the thought of fighting the colonists in 1778—a circumstance which Americans are not likely to forget; and the very kindliness of his nature caused the one conspicuous failure in his career. Said Admiral Codrington: "It was want of discipline which led to the discontent and mutiny in the Channel fleet. Lord Howe got rid of the mutiny by granting the men all they asked; but discipline was not restored until the ships most remarkable for misconduct had been, one after the other, placed under the command of Lord St. Vincent."

Lord Howe has always been accepted as a tactician, but his operations against D'Estaing, off our own coast, which brought despair into American hearts in 1778, were more characterized by an unexpected energy in the refitting of Byron's storm-tossed reinforcement than by evolutions; while his great fight of the "First of June," 1794, was waged, in spite of himself, on the traditional lines of ship to ship. Although the prior manœuvres in this campaign compare favorably with Rodney's striving to wrest the weather gauge from De Guichen, nevertheless Howe's reputation is based chiefly upon his well-known and constant study. Conditions beyond his control forbade his ever demonstrating in a skilful sea fight how great was his real mastery over this branch of naval science.

No navy ever produced an abler "all-around" officer than John Jervis, Lord St. Vincent. His influence upon the British fleet cannot be measured. He licked it into shape, and he made of it the instrument which eventually wrought the downfall of Napoleon. His victory off Cape St. Vincent in 1797, fifteen ships against twenty-seven, gained him fame and an earldom. "A victory is very essential to England at this moment," he said, as the Spaniards came out of the fog. When the mutinies in the Channel Fleet, which Howe had sought to allay rather than to crush, extended to the vessels off Cadiz, St. Vincent stood like a rock. He rejected the suggestion that suspicious letters should not be delivered, with this grim comment: "Should any disturbance arise, the Commander-in-chief will know how to repress it." He made the mutinous crew of the *Marlborough* man the yard-arm whips to hang two of their shipmates, condemned to death, although their captain feared they would refuse to obey his orders. "Do you mean to tell me, Captain Ellison, that you cannot *command* his Majesty's ship the *Marlborough?* for if that is the case, sir, I will immediately send on board an officer who can." The men were hanged and in the manner St. Vincent had prescribed. "The law was satisfied, and, said Lord St. Vincent at the moment, perhaps one of the greatest of his life, 'Discipline is preserved, sir!'" He was conspicuous for the care of the health of his men, "by instructed sanitary measures, by provision of suitable diet, and by well-ordered hospital service"; it "was his proudest boast among the services to which he laid claim." "To St. Vincent, more than to any one man, is due the enforcement and maintenance" of Hawke's system of blockade; "and in this sense . . . he is fairly and fully entitled to be considered the organizer of ultimate victory." Stern in his conception of duty, rigid in exacting all the forms of professional etiquette, inflexible in determination, and merciless towards the incompetent, he was generous in his praise for faithful and honorable service, and he bound men to him by a devotion in which professional respect went hand in hand with personal esteem. Among British admirals he ranks second only to Nelson.

Admiral Lord de Saumarez appears to have been a man of singularly balanced character, and to have exhibited a rare combination of physical, mental, and moral attractions. Handsome in person, of exceptional ability, he was as brave as Hawke, a better seaman than Nelson, and as close a student of his profession as Howe. His ship was always noted for efficiency, for contentment at a time when the fleet was infected with mutiny—a contentment shown by the fact that his crew followed him from vessel to vessel as long as they were permitted to do so. His best work was as a squadron commander. He was next in rank to Nelson at the Nile, and he did notable duty at Brest, anchoring at will close in shore and just clear of the range of the French batteries. "With you there," wrote St. Vincent, "I sleep as sound as if I had the key of Brest in my pocket." Fate denied him the full measure of opportunity when in chief command, although his last fight was a brilliant victory against heavy odds, and after a reverse which would have disheartened a less determined and self-reliant officer. A sort of mystery of pathos seems to cloud his relations with Nelson, between whom and him-

self there was loyalty and respect, but never warm friendship.

Lord Exmouth's largest operation was the bombardment of Algiers in 1816. He had refused additional vessels, pressed upon him by the Admiralty, accepting complete responsibility for the outcome of his plans; and he distributed his small force with so much skill that he broke for ever the spirit and the power of the piratical Dey. This was the professional culmination of a life full of hairbreadth escapes, foolhardy adventures, instances of cool pluck and marvellous presence of mind, of stubborn fighting and daring seamanship, which cast fiction quite into the shade. His scarcely challenged superiority as a sailor brought him safely through dangers which would have wrecked almost any other captain. From his sailing in 1775, as Midshipman Pellew, on board the *Blonde*, which carried Burgoyne to our shores, he passed from one thrilling episode to another. In Canada; on Lake Champlain, where he distinguished himself against Benedict Arnold (no light task), to share Burgoyne's fate at Saratoga; in command of a frigate on the coast of France; commander-in-chief in the East Indies and the Mediterranean, he is almost as picturesque a character as our own even more brilliant Paul Jones.

We cannot refrain from expressing the hope that Capt. Mahan will take up a few native types that seem to need his friendly ministrations, and do that justice which only his talents can compel to some of his compatriots and predecessors, such as Barney, Biddle, Decatur, Morris, Perry, Foote, Cushing. His own Life of Farragut might well be rewritten in the light of his wider knowledge and larger experience. May we add that it would be well if our author shunned the blandishments of a rhetorical temptress, who makes him at times involved and obscure? "There was prefigured the ultimate predominance of the traditions of the English-speaking races throughout this continent, which in our own momentous period stands mediator between the two ancient and contrasted civilizations of Europe, that so long moved apart, but are now brought into close, if not threatening contact"—is a sentence typical of Capt. Mahan's occasional strayings from a generally lucid style. What it means, he doubtless knows, but the reader can only surmise.

The Great Persian War and its Preliminaries: A Study of the Evidence, Literary and Topographical. By G. B. Grundy. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

This volume treats of the relations between Greece and the Eastern nations—especially Persia—from the rise of the Lydian kingdom to the end of the year 479 B.C. The first twelve chapters discuss the events in their order; the thirteenth sums up the war as a whole; and the final chapter is devoted to Herodotus as the historian of the conflict. The analysis of the sources and method of Herodotus is sound and sufficiently detailed for the purpose. The author concludes that Herodotus is remarkably accurate in his statements of fact, but lacks information as to personal motives. Although Mr. Grundy claims this as the result of his own investigation, the judgment, with more or less modification, applies to nearly all extant classical historians, and is, in fact, the first thing to be noticed in the criticism of these authors. It may not be well known in England or America, but to the German scholar it is as familiar as the alphabet.

In citing his sources, Mr. Grundy should have mentioned book and chapter. If the reader is to be won to a new point of view by the authority, for instance, of Aristophanes, he has a right to know what particular passage is to effect this mental change. Perhaps Mr. Grundy could not conveniently supply the information; but vague impressions from studies pursued long ago are not enough for scholarly purposes. As to modern authorities, the author admits that he does not know from whom he has borrowed or to what extent. "I cannot acknowledge the written sources of assistance to which I have had recourse in compiling this volume, because I cannot recall the whole of a course of reading which has extended over a period of ten years." Oxford ought to teach a more systematic method of reading and research. In a work of this kind, it is unfortunate that the reader should be denied the advantage of knowing how far the author is indebted to his predecessors. Mr. Grundy should have made it clear that he is working in a field already well mapped out by others. H. Delbrück ('Die Perserkriege und Burgunderkriege,' 1887), began the careful, scientific study of the military affairs of this period. It is an epoch-making work, to which those who now write on the subject are consciously or unconsciously under great obligations. Mr. Grundy cites the work two or three times, only to differ from the author. He says, too, that he has read Busolt, but makes no reference to special passages. In cases in which he differs from historians of the first rank like Busolt, it would have been better to compare views, and to show why his own should be preferred.

The subject-matter is both political and military. The political narrative, however, is superficial and one-sided; the author's peculiar views of men and of parties are not well sustained by facts. For instance, he assumes that, in the period ending with the battle of Marathon, the democrats at Athens were intriguing with Persia, and that this victory was a defeat for the party. His assumption explains nothing, and is self-contradictory. The political history of the period is presented far better by Holm, Busolt, and Meyer.

The chief feature of the book, however, is the military narrative. To prepare himself for this part of his task the author first learned the art of surveying, and then, going to Greece, examined carefully the topography of battlefields, roads, and passes. In some cases he has drawn plans based upon personal surveys. His diligence and zeal in this difficult work are admirable. The maps and topographical discussions are an important contribution to the history of the war between Greece and Persia, and are highly appreciated by scholars: "Ueber die Topographie," says E. Meyer, "ist grundlegend die sehr gründliche Untersuchung von Grundy, The Topography of the Battle of Platææ, 1894, mit vortrefflicher Karte." This material will doubtless be of great service in rewriting the history of the war. The task is not for the mere classical student, however, but for one who has at once a thorough knowledge of military affairs and a constructive genius. It would certainly be unwise to assume that Mr. Grundy's reconstruction of the period is final, or is distinctly better than that, for instance, of E. Meyer, 'Geschichte des Altertums,' iii (1901).

In point of fact, recent writers have left our knowledge of the battles of the war and of the size of the armies in a deplorable condition. We do not know, for instance, whether at Marathon the Athenians were posted on Mount Agrieliki (Meyer), or high up in the valley of the Avlona (Grundy); whether the battle was fought in that valley (Delbrück) or in the plain (Grundy); or whether the Greeks (Busolt) or the Persians (Grundy) stood on the defensive. The estimates of the Persian force range from ten thousand to sixty thousand. There are as great differences as to the size of Xerxes's army. Delbrück estimates it at 65-75,000, Meyer at 100,000, Busolt (following Niebuhr) at 300,000, and Grundy at half a million. The reasoning of any one of these writers might convince us, were it not for the equally cogent arguments of the others. Mr. Grundy's reasoning is the least satisfactory. He assumes that any number less than half a million would be too small in view of the vast resources and thorough organization of the Persian empire. But thereupon he marvels at the great ability of the Persian Government which could bring so vast a host into Greece and maintain it there so long in excellent condition. Interesting in this connection is Meyer's remark that Antiochus the Great, who ruled an empire nearly as large as the Persian, could muster at Magnesia hardly more than seventy thousand men. A writer who wishes his own view to prevail must undertake the disagreeable task of refuting opposing views. So far from attempting this line of procedure, Mr. Grundy leaves it uncertain whether he is acquainted with recent literature in the field. But if he has settled nothing, at least he has raised a number of interesting questions, and has suggested many new views of the relations between events; and, most important of all, his geographical knowledge will illuminate the whole history of the period which he treats.

London Afternoons: Chapters on the Social Life, Architecture, and Records of the Great City and its Neighbourhood. By W. J. Loftie. Brentano's.

There is no need for Mr. Loftie to apologize for adding to the list of books on London this delightful volume. It is not wholly about London, seeing that, for some reason which has escaped us, Mr. Loftie includes chapters on Berkhampstead, Tring, Guildford, and King's Langley. Mr. Loftie has for more than a quarter of a century studied old London, both in its monuments and in its records, and in this book he gives us the cream of his studies. We have chapters on London five centuries ago, and at the beginning of the century just ended; on Newgate, St. Paul's, Old and New; the older city churches, and on other subjects scarcely less interesting. Perhaps that on the older city churches will be found most interesting by the majority of readers. American visitors should know that the best time to

view these edifices is on Saturday afternoons, when they are being prepared for the services of the morrow. The bustle of the city has then in great part subsided, and the functionary who looks after the church is to be found—not, as at other times, when a long search has perhaps to be made to get the keys of the church. A visit should also be made to one of the less important churches on a Sunday morning. We know no more striking contrast than that between the roar and turmoil of the city on a week-day and the unspeakable calm of a morning service in one of these deserted churches in a deserted city. Then there are at some of them quaint occasional services, like the "flower sermons," when the old sleepy church blossoms out into a gay show of flowers. Most curious is the service at St. Katherine Cree, in Leadenhall Street, on October 16, when the "Lion Sermon" is preached, in remembrance of the delivery of a worthy Alderman from a lion as he was traversing the desert with a caravan. The lessons, the psalms, the text are chosen for their references to lions. This church is additionally interesting on two accounts—it is believed to be the work of Inigo Jones, and it is also believed that here the great painter Holbein found his last resting-place. Neither point is well established; Mr. Loftie examines both, and in each case, we are glad to find, pronounces in favor of the tradition. St. Olave's, Hart Street, is another church of great interest. It is one of the few which escaped the Great Fire, and here lies buried Samuel Pepys, the author of the famous Diary.

Another interesting chapter is that on the ancient rivers of London, now imprisoned as underground sewers. Times are changed since the old chronicler Fitzstephen could write of the excellent springs round London, especially on the northern side, that they were "visited as well by the scholars from the schools as by the youth of the city, when they go out to take the air in the summer evenings." The only remembrance of these pleasant streams now to be discovered above ground is the name of a street, half of it shorn away by the Metropolitan Railway. One may still read the name, Turnmill Street, from the Turnmill Brook—so called "for that divers mills were erected upon it, as appeareth by a fair register-book, containing the foundation of the Priory at Clerkenwell." Mr. Loftie follows for us the course of the Hole-Bourne—dismissing Stow's derivation of the name Holborn from Old-Bourne—the Lang-Bourne, the Ty-Bourne, the West-Bourne, and other ancient streams.

Although Mr. Loftie has to condemn many of Stow's derivations, he has, as might be expected from so earnest and learned a student of Old London, a great veneration for London's greatest historian. In writing of St. Andrew Undershaft, which contains Stow's monument, he writes: "John Stow, the historian of London, occupies a unique position among the authors of the great Elizabethan age. Little, indeed, should we know of the appearance of London before the Fire were it not for his descriptions. . . . In reading his book one has to remember that his guesses are as erroneous as those of any of his contemporaries; but when he quotes an ancient document, or narrates a fact of his own knowledge, he may be depended upon as absolutely accurate." Stow's 'Survay of London' is indeed a book the product of marvellous industry; but it is more than this. It is one of those books that create feelings of personal affection for the writer. No better tribute to Stow could be paid than to reprint the text of his great work, copiously indexed and annotated, so as to give the best results of the research into ancient documents—a research which, as Mr. Loftie reminds us, was neglected from Stow's days till our own time.

We cannot have everything in a volume of 300 pages, but we wish that Mr. Loftie could have given us a chapter on the Charterhouse. With its history, as a monastery, the palace of a great nobleman, and finally as a hospital and school, it is almost the most interesting relic of Old London, and no one could have told us its story better than Mr. Loftie. The book has many illustrations, some of them reproductions, others original. Of the latter, we like best that of the angel in the vestry of St. Olave's Church, Hart Street, the church at which Pepys was wont to worship.

Premières Années. Par Jules Simon. Paris: Ernest Flammarion.

These memoirs of Jules Simon, edited by his two sons, cover the period of childhood and early manhood, to the year 1848, which was the thirty-fourth of his life. Readers familiar with the writer's earlier volumes of memoirs ('Mémoires des Autres,' etc.) will need no word of encouragement to take up this new posthumous volume. They will find here the same charming style, and also, in spite of the greater prominence of the writer's own personality, that abundance of anecdote which, dealing largely with men well known in public life, gives the book a semi-historical character. This feature, we presume, will be even more marked in another volume, 'Le Soir de ma Journée,' which, we are glad to know, is to follow the present one.

Meanwhile, strange though it may seem, the description of life in an out-of-the-way village in Brittany during the Restoration, the *milieu* in which several years of Jules Simon's childhood were spent, is fascinating. There was neither a notary, nor a school-teacher, nor a physician at Saint-Jean-Brévelay. The people hardly knew that there were physicians in the world. The peasants spoke only Breton, and were illiterate almost without exception. They were Royalists because the priests bade them be. (The insurrection of the Chouans had also been the work of the priests.) The great event of each year was the representation of a passion play or some other religious tragedy of the most realistic type, in which the boy Jules played the part of an angel. His family, however, was not of the same low level as the rest of the population. They had moved to the village from Lorient, and Jules's mother, though she had but a "fort mince bagage," taught him reading and writing, as well as the use of figures. She was his only teacher in his childhood, for the father scarcely ever spoke to the members of his family, and spent most of his time fishing in the brook. But the precocious boy found books, a motley collection, and reading became his dominant passion. He read 'Robinson Crusoe' many times with delight, but did not stop short at 'L'Esprit des Lois.' He also found many volumes of novels, and, having read them against his mother's will, relieved his heart of the burden of this transgression at his first confession, at the age of ten.

Speaking of these early years, Jules Simon complains less of the poor instruction he received than of his isolation. He had no schoolmates till he entered the college at Lorient, which he soon after exchanged for that of Vannes, where he became a boarding pupil. He speaks of this school as "a poor and ignorant family," and of the teachers, whom he loved and who loved him, as "those excellent people [who] are the cause of my never having known anything. For one cannot repair one's education; it is a mistake to believe that one can. I suffer daily from the ignorance which I owe to them, and I shall be grateful to them for it all my life." His family had in some way been totally ruined, and, aside from the poor instruction, he had to contend with material hardships which would have discouraged a boy of less energetic temperament. Nevertheless, he succeeded in being admitted to the École Normale in Paris, of which Cousin was then the leading spirit. This unexpected success made him the "happiest man in creation," though it took him a long time to overcome the defects of his previous training, which, he says, he received a hundred and fifty years before his comrades at the École Normale.

Looking back upon this period of student life, after an interval of fifty years, he calls it his "real life." He had, since then, published thirty volumes and written articles enough to fill a hundred volumes more; he had been professor in the École Normale and at the Sorbonne; had represented successively four departments in the Assembly; had been Councillor of State and Minister; at the time of writing, he was Senator for life. He had been a member of academies and of numberless societies, and had addressed countless meetings in the departments and in the capital. All these varied activities fatigue, exhaust him. "Qu'est-ce que cela," he exclaims, "auprès de la vie véritable, auprès de ma vie d'il y a cinquante ans!"

After spending three years in study at the École Normale and two in teaching in the colleges of Caen and Versailles, Jules Simon suddenly lost his position through a whim of Cousin's, and, having spent most of his income in assisting his family, found himself *sur le pavé*. An article on the "School of Alexandria," contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, saved him from starvation. He continued to write for the *Revue*, and, not long after, Cousin had him appointed his substitute, and, in 1839, at the age of twenty-five, he became professor of philosophy at the Sorbonne—a position which proved a great disadvantage to him five or six years later, during his first political campaign in Brittany, as a candidate for election to the Chambers. What hurt his prospects more, however, was a false report, spread by his opponents, that he was not a native of Brittany. As most of his electors could not read French, they were easily duped by a priest, who held under their noses a written statement establishing beyond question Simon's birth at Lorient, but understood by them to declare the very opposite—possibly because they were not aware that Lorient was in Brittany. He was defeated by three votes. The story

of this election in Brittany, involving personal visits to the 263 electors, in midwinter, and in a country district whose abominable roads were often impassable even for horses, is told with delightful humor, and reads much more like a novel than like real history.

Jules Simon became a Deputy three years later, in 1848. He was now thirty-three, and had already become acquainted with or won the friendship of many men of note. In the final chapter of the volume, "La Révolution de 1848," he refers to several of these, always without bitterness, using sarcasm never, irony occasionally, humor frequently—the humor of a man of generous disposition, of great wisdom, and of noble principles. It is thus that he speaks of the popularity of Lamartine and of Louis Blanc: "Each of the great leaders had his court. Lamartine's was the most numerous, Louis Blanc's the most noisy." When Lamartine showed himself, "the women vied with each other in their eagerness to kiss his hand. He was neither surprised nor moved, thinking that matters had resumed their ordinary course, and that an antique chorus naturally belonged to Tyrtæus." With Louis Blanc it was different. "There was no kissing of hands; his friends insisted upon carrying him on their shoulders. It was not comfortable for him, but he submitted, out of patriotism."

The Apostles' Creed. By Prof. S. C. McGiffert. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The old Roman Symbol from which, by accretions, grew the so-called Apostles' Creed in its present form, is discussed in this volume with independence and thoroughness. The more popular presentation of the author's views is given in a lecture first delivered at the Harvard University Summer School of Theology in July, 1899. But the positions therein stated are reinforced by critical notes, which form the body of the work.

The textual discussion is full, and rendered more valuable by accurate citations from the authorities. The date assigned to the original form is the third quarter of the second century, and the Roman origin is regarded as proved. But the main contribution of the author respects its purpose. Here he opposes both Harnack and Kattenbusch—a hopeful sign for American scholarship. The contention is that the symbol was framed as a baptismal formula, but specifically in opposition to the teachings of Marcion, then causing so much trouble at Rome. Every phrase is discussed in its bearing on this purpose, and a very strong case is made in favor of this view. The argument in regard to the relation of the Symbol to the Baptismal Formula (Matt. 28:19) is not so convincing. Dr. McGiffert thinks that the original formula was: "Into the name of the Father, and of Jesus Christ, and of the Holy Spirit"; the second reference being to the Incarnate Redeemer. Such a form did exist in early times, but it is hazardous to suggest that the form in Matthew "is perhaps due to the influence of the Johannine type of thought"; for the Johannine writings, so far as a polemic purpose appears, are directed against the denial of the Incarnation. Moreover, there are no textual variations to indicate any modification of the formula in Matthew, and modern criticism, as a rule, finds no Johannine influence in Matthew's Gospel, but emphasizes the dissimilarity of the two types.

A brief but sufficient statement of the present text of the Apostles' Creed closes the volume. Here are indicated the sources of the various additions. The author properly dismisses summarily the legend that the apostles respectively contributed the several articles of the creed.

The Speckled Brook Trout (Salvelinus Fontinalis). By Various Experts with Rod and Reel. Edited and illustrated by Louis Rhead, with an introduction by Charles Hallock. New York: R. H. Russell.

This is a collection of unrelated articles, largely on the subject of brook trout. Some of them have been published before, notably two out of the three from the pen of Charles Hallock, who has also contributed some verses, called the "Baptism of the Brook Trout," which will not add to the well-established reputation of the author for his accurate knowledge as to fish and his ability to express it. The late Nelson Cheney is represented by an excellent article on "Trout Propagation," from the State report, and Mr. W. C. Harris and *Town Topics* by interesting chapters on "The Habits of the Trout" and "The Old and the New Adirondacks." Illustrating this part of the book are reproductions of two old photographs, showing "Bartlett's Sportsman's Home, Saranac Lake," and "Paul Smith's"—on the St. Regis, both taken in 1873. These will awaken early recollections in many a frequenter of the Adirondacks. The chapter by E. D. T. Chambers on "The Big Trout of the Nepigon, Lake Edward, Lake Batiscan, etc.," is well written, and gives information, which will be new to most readers, about the best trout-fishing district in the world, in the Province of Quebec, among the mountains of the Laurentian chain—Lake Edward, for instance, where, during the last of August and the whole of September, trout of from two and one-half to seven pounds rise freely to the fly in the outlet, and Lake Batiscan, half way between Quebec and Lake St. John. In describing these, Mr. Chambers fills two pages with the scores of anglers who apparently had no trouble in catching quantities of trout from four to ten pounds in weight.

Mr. Rhead devotes eight pages to "Notes on Cooking Brook Trout," which doubtless convey much useful information to such as are going to the remote regions where good trout-fishing is to be had, and also can take with them the various culinary accessories mentioned by the editor. Mr. Rhead, however, is entitled to unstinted praise for the artistic arrangement of the book; from the paper wrapper in which it is sold, and which reveals, when taken off, a cover in exquisite imitation of birch bark, with half-a-dozen flies scattered over its surface, so well done that they seem fit for immediate use in angling; for the numerous illustrations, head-pieces, tail-pieces, full-page drawings, etc., all so good and lifelike that one may excuse the fact of many of them bearing no relation whatever to the adjacent text. There is a large-paper edition of the book which should be even more worthy of preservation than the ordinary one under notice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Baptist Year-Book, 1902. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 25 cents.
Arkwith, E. H. An Introduction to the Thessalonian Epistles. Macmillan. $1.25.
Baldwin, J. M. Fragments in Philosophy and Science. Scribners. $2.50.
Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Bourget, Paul. Monica, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Brady, C. T. Hohenzollern. Century Co. $1.50.
Brooks, Hildegard. The Master of Caxton. Scribners. $1.50.
Carnegie, Andrew. The Empire of Business. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Chaytor, H. J. The Troubadours of Dante. Henry Frowde. $1.90.
Coleridge, E. H. The Works of Lord Byron, Vol. V.: Poetry. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Conway, W. M. The Domain of Art. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Denison, Louisa E. Fifty Years at East Brent; The Letters of George Anthony Denison, 1845-1896. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Einstein, Lewis. The Italian Renaissance in England. The Columbia University Press. Macmillan. $1.50.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index, 1901. Publishers' Weekly.
Fosdick, J. W. The Honor of the Braxtons. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Fredericksen, N. C. Finland: Its Public and Private Economy. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Frost, T. G. A Treatise on Guaranty Insurance. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Fry, H. B. Little Italy. R. H. Russell.
Gordon, G. B. The Hieroglyphic Stairway: Ruins of Copan. Cambridge (Mass.): Peabody Museum.
Grenell, Z. The Sandals; A Tale of Palestine. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 40 cents.
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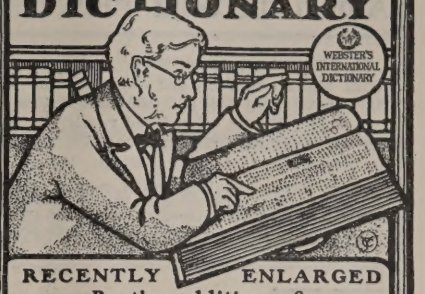

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1902.

The Week.

Common sense and common decency won a victory in the Senate on April 16, when the Platt amendment to the Chinese Exclusion Bill was passed, in place of the vicious measure which had been under discussion. Instead of agreeing to a bill which would violate our treaty with China, the Senate has simply voted to continue the existing law until 1904, when the treaty with China expires, and to extend its operation to the Philippine archipelago and our other islands. Bad as is the existing statute in many of its provisions, it is far better than the one proposed, which would have degraded every Chinaman within the United States. If the Senate action prevails, we shall be spared seeing our great Government photographing, cataloguing, and describing Chinamen with more care than dogs that are licensed in great cities. American vessels can still ship Chinese sailors. Teachers and students can come to us from Pekin or any other portion of China, and be treated with some semblance of courtesy and friendliness, and merchants of the Celestial Empire can still enter our portals to buy our goods and increase our trade without finding themselves wholly regarded as criminals.

The Senate having declined to adopt the House Chinese Exclusion Bill, Representative Kahn and other rabid anti-Chinese Congressmen have suddenly discovered that the Senate bill is exactly what they were seeking all the time. Indeed, Mr. Kahn would have us believe that the public does not understand how drastic the Senate measure is. This jaunty way of carrying off the severe rebuke administered by the Senate will not, however, suffice to deceive the country. There is nothing in the present law, bad as it is, that approaches in barbarity the measure of which Mr. Kahn was the sponsor, and the country is to be congratulated on having escaped the disgrace it entailed. The prospect that the Senate bill will be adopted by the House is now of the best, and the friends of fair play must rejoice thereat. But the fact remains that even this compromise is an unworthy one. To Senator Hoar, who had the courage to vote no, and thereby constitute himself a minority of one, the thanks of every lover of independence and justice are due.

The extraordinary vote on the Cuban bill in the House on Friday primarily signified the open humiliation of its Republican leaders. They were trampled upon by a large proportion—more than a third—of their followers in a way quite unexampled in party history. The vote was emphatically a vote of want of confidence in them. In other words, Messrs. Henderson, Payne, Dalzell, and Grosvenor, in assuring the President all these weeks that all would be well if he would only keep his hands off and let them manage everything, were reckoning without their host; and Mr. Roosevelt, in deferring to them, was putting himself in the hands of repudiated leaders. It is absolutely clear now that, if he had thrown himself boldly upon Congress from the first, he could have got a better bill long ago. Through the mistaken notion of making the measure one which could be passed by "a strict party vote," the long delay ends with the spectacle of the party torn and angry, and the bill finally taking form by the aid of Democratic votes. These might have been had at any time for a more generous and timely measure, and thus the practical defeat of the President's Cuban policy averted. So much for clever management and working within your party!

Scarcely less significant is the demonstration made by the upheaval in the House that the tariff question is thrust upon the country and will not down. The Democrats were astute in compelling the Republicans to go on record for or against the Sugar Trust, but the vote striking off the Trust's protection would not have been so triumphant had not the Western Republicans felt the rising storm of indignation among their constituents over any protection for any Trust. Politicians will do well to trim their sails accordingly. Tariff duties which are demonstrably needless, or which benefit only a Trust, have got to go; and if the Republican party does not at once set its hand to the work of abolishing them, the people will put a party in power that can be depended upon to do it. To-day it is the Sugar Trust that is struck at. To-morrow it will be the Steel Trust. Neither one needs an iota of protection, and neither one can have it long. As for the sugar differential, it may at present be used in the Senate to delay still further, and possibly to defeat altogether the Cuban bill, but it has set a precedent from which there will be no turning back. Once more has sugar become a Republican stumbling-block. "Strange that a manufacture," wrote Disraeli of the sugar duties in England of 1847, "which charms infancy and soothes old age, should so frequently occasion political disaster!" The threat of party disaster is written so plainly in last week's vote in the House that the wayfaring Republican cannot fail to perceive it.

Some Washington correspondents still intimate that the President will "do something" to bring order out of the party chaos; but what can he do? The time for him to do something was three months ago. What he chose to do was to put himself in the hands of the House managers, and it is hard to see how their defeat is not his also. Indeed, the bitter talk among Republicans at Washington seems to be directed as much at Mr. Roosevelt as at the inept leaders of the House. Nor will the alarmed Republicans be comforted by reading the President's remarks at the Columbia banquet, in which he brought out again his recipe for real efficiency in public life. An ounce of practice would be worth a pound of preaching just now, they will think. At the outset of this Cuban struggle, the President let it be understood that there were two things he was determined to avoid. One was the moral humiliation of Mr. McKinley in connection with the Porto Rican tariff; the other was such a party rupture as followed the passage of Cleveland's bill for repealing silver purchase. Unfortunately, however, as the case stands, President Roosevelt has ingeniously managed to incur both those forms of odium.

What we are really seeing in this outbreak of Republican dissension is the inherent antagonism of protection to foreign trade. Everybody knows that Cuba offers a great field for American exports, and that the stimulus of free trade or lowered tariffs is all that is necessary to double our Cuban commerce. We have only to look at the immense quickening of our Porto Rican trade, caused by the abolition of customs duties, to see what might be done in Cuba. We now take from Porto Rico three times as many goods as came to us before the Spanish war, and send there five times as great a volume of exports. The latter promise to foot up, in the current fiscal year, no less than $10,000,000 in value. This is but a trifle compared with what might be done in Cuba. But no, says protection, the thing cannot be done if it means touching one of our sacred tariff duties. And the reason that protection has its way, for the time, is the same that Cobden gave, namely, "The protected interests combine and the public does not." We do not say that such a stupid and obstructive protectionism accounts for the whole of the Republican "insurrection" at Washington. Personal elements, no doubt, enter in. Many Republican votes were cast against the organization to express hostility to its policy of letting the tariff, with all its monstrosities, go unrevised except for this minor cut in Cuba's behalf. But behind all, and giving body and cohesion to all,

was the old protective idea, which dreads foreign trade, and which still has such a hold on the Republican party as to disable it from either intelligently seeking new markets, or governing our dependencies in an enlightened way.

There can be no question that the War Department has been seriously discredited by the recent revelations of the manner in which it so long deceived the country regarding the question of torture by our troops in the Philippines. The story of Sergeant Riley of Northampton, Mass., has produced a most unfavorable impression. It will be remembered that Riley wrote a letter which was published in a Northampton (Mass.) newspaper, over a year ago, telling how he had witnessed the administration of the "water cure" by officers of the regular army, and that the War Department, after long delay, gave out a statement which purported to show that no such torture had been inflicted, and which virtually held Riley up to contempt as a liar. The Boston *Herald* thus characterizes the action of the Department:

"It was inconceivable then that the War Department would resort to such a pettifogging imposture as now seems to be revealed. The questions put to Riley and to the officers of the regiment were ingeniously framed to relate solely to the regiment. Riley's letter did not say that the tortures he had witnessed were committed by the officers and men of the Twenty-sixth Regiment, but by officers and soldiers of the regular army. Therefore, when asked whether he had seen any torture inflicted by the officers of the regiment, he said that he had not. The statement published by Major George Andrews, A. A. G., while strictly true in its statements of the testimony given, was artfully misleading and deceptive in the impression it sought to convey, and did convey, to the country. The War Department 'looked into the matter,' as it now appears, not in order to discover the actual truth, but in order to suppress it and hoodwink the nation."

The fact that the War Department has been thus discredited is in itself a reason for favoring the plan which President Roosevelt has been considering, of ordering a special investigation into this question of torture by men outside the range of military rule. There is the same Secretary of War now that there was when the above outrage was perpetrated; there is no reason to suppose that there is any greater readiness in the Department to bring out the whole truth than there was when the facts in this case were so shamefully tampered with. What reason has the public for confidence that a military investigation now will be straightforward and thorough? The Administration cannot afford to have the slightest suspicion rest upon the inquiry that is to be made, and it is hard to see how such suspicion can be avoided if the inquiry is to be conducted by the same Department which has so grossly deceived the country in the past.

President Roosevelt on Thursday nominated James S. Clarkson for Surveyor of Customs at this port. The selection had the approval of Senator Platt, but the impression seems to be that Mr. Roosevelt was personally responsible for the choice. At any rate, the President is thoroughly familiar with Mr. Clarkson's career, and is properly held to account for the appointment. It is one not fit to be made by a President who believes in civil-service reform, and who professes to have high standards in politics. Mr. Clarkson is known to the country as one of the most unblushing champions of the spoils system to be found in the Republican party. He was appointed First Assistant Postmaster-General by President Harrison in 1889, and soon became known as "the headsman" for the rapidity and recklessness with which he decapitated Democratic postmasters and appointed Republican successors. Not long after his accession it was announced that the number of changes in fourth-class offices reached the great total of 1,012 in a single week. This was at the average of nineteen changes an hour, or one every three minutes from the time Mr. Clarkson reached his office on Monday morning until he left it on Saturday night. In public speech and in written articles Mr. Clarkson championed the spoils system, which he had thus applied. In 1890 he defended "rotation in office" as the strongest assurance of honest and effective administration, and the "clean sweep" every four years as the best guarantee of general interest in public affairs. In the *North American Review* he not only attacked the Civil-Service Commission and its examinations, but denounced the whole merit system.

Mr. Roosevelt was a member of the Civil-Service Commission at the time that Mr. Clarkson was denouncing that body, and considered it his duty to take notice of the attack. In a speech at St. Louis, Mr. Roosevelt said, among other things:

"The Civil-Service Commission is most undoubtedly hostile to Mr. Clarkson and the idea which Mr. Clarkson represents. We should fail in our duty if we were not. We can no more retain the good will of the spoilsman than a policeman who does his duty can retain the good will of the lawbreaker. . . . Mr. Clarkson knows perfectly well, and he cannot keep a straight face and deny it, that during his term of service as First Assistant Postmaster-General he administered that office, and had it administered, as it was administered before him, and as it must be under the spoils system, by turning out all the fourth-class postmasters, competent and incompetent alike, if the people who sought their places had sufficient political backing."

Mr. Clarkson was of Iowa when he was appointed First Assistant Postmaster-General, but he lost his hold in his own State not long after, and some years ago came to New York. He has cut no figure in the political or the business activities of the city. The sole occasion on which he has challenged public attention was when he appeared, a year ago, as the spokesman for a corporation which pushed through the Legislature what came to be known as "the West-Street Grab Bill," which was vetoed by Gov. Odell. He has absolutely no "claim" known to the public for the place now given him—even on the low plane of political activity, for he is without influence in the local Republican machine. What does his appointment mean?

Secretary Long signalizes his approaching retirement by an order destroying the last relic of the spoils system in the Navy Department. Even the "ship-keepers" are now to be under the civil-service rules. A ship-keeper is a sort of watchman on board a ship that has been put out of commission. His duties are not at all martial, and the man seeking the job never imagines that he is going where glory awaits him. Nor is his pay exactly glittering, being two dollars a day. Yet, as Mr. Long remarks, the rush and pressure to secure these positions, usually good only for a month or so, have been terrific. Congressmen by the dozen have each had a dozen candidates for each ship-keeper's berth. But the rules will attend to it all hereafter. What Secretary Long calls "the last fortress of the old system" has now been demolished, as far as the Navy Department is concerned, and office waits on proved merit there from watchmen up. It is with a peculiar grace and, we presume, with special pleasure that the retiring Secretary puts this toothless old survivor of the spoils system out of his misery.

Gov. Odell is quite justified in regarding the annual tax-rate bill passed by the last Legislature, and just signed, as a measure which will deeply impress the people of the State. The direct tax is now reduced to only .13 mill, and would have been done away with entirely but for certain Constitutional requirements which demand this petty sum. It is true that this result is in part due to the fact that a portion of the surplus of past years is to be used this year, in accordance with the recommendations made by the Governor in his annual message. He then pointed out that there was a free balance in the treasury of $8,200,000 which could be used, and he recommended that $4,200,000 of this sum should be applied to the reduction of taxes of the present year. He also added that "the only direct taxation necessary would be the 13-100 of a mill provided for by the Constitution for the sinking fund and the interest on the canal debt." Accordingly we have the lowest direct-tax rate the State has ever seen, and there will still be a surplus

of $4,000,000 "to come and go on." The Governor draws a comparison between the fiscal operations of the present State Administration and those of the last Democratic Administration—that of Gov. Flower, to which, in passing, he pays a high and deserved compliment. The result of the comparison is a difference of $1,046,714 in economy in favor of the present Administration, after making allowance for the increased charges caused by transferring the care of the insane to the State, and by the increase in the number of the insane. The whole showing is very favorable to the present Administration.

No doubt the Corporation Counsel is right in thinking that there is under the city charter no power to prevent the erection of sky signs. In view of recent legislation on this subject, however, the tone of Mr. Rives's *obiter* is, to say the least, surprising. To say, "This is a free country, and if a man wishes to disfigure his property, he has a right to," is to forget ordinances in Chicago, Buffalo, and Rochester which restrict the size and nature of street signs. We must assume that the Aldermen have no legal right at present to legislate against sky signs, but to say that "it would be an unwarrantable interference with the liberty of the citizens if the Board of Aldermen had the power to prohibit the erection of such signs," is to forget that several English cities, where the sense of personal rights is stronger than it ever was in New York, do precisely prohibit sky signs. One might be tempted to say, too, that the business of the Corporation Counsel is to express what, in his opinion, is law, not what in his feeling is "warrantable" under broad principles of human rights. If the Aldermen of New York city do indeed lack such powers as the authorities of Boston, Chicago, Rochester, Buffalo, Edinburgh, and London freely exercise, it is time that we awake to the situation and seek from the Legislature the ordinary powers of a civilized municipality.

The presence of so distinguished a gathering of American scholars and administrators of institutions of learning in this city on Saturday last was much more than a tribute to the past of Columbia University, or a personal compliment to the new President; it was an expression of confidence and hopefulness in the future of the university. President Butler is not quite in the position of a man who faces a *tabula rasa*—that was very nearly President Barnard's position, and President Low's—but rather in the attitude of one who finds before him a rough draft which must here be rectified, there beautified, and generally perfected. Columbia University to-day is in some respects a grandiose sketch, finished only in parts, for a great university. Its administrators have avoided in the main the crudenesses that have affected the newer institutions, but it is still in the position of a vast mechanism insufficiently manned. Its personnel has not fully entered into the new organization. To achieve this rhythm of men and academic machinery is the delicate task that confronts the new President. He has in the past shown the intelligence, insight, and tact which this task requires. His friends are confident of his success in the difficult endeavor.

As an expression of English disgust with the activities of the United Irish League, the proclamation of the Crimes Act is natural enough. Whether so drastic a measure was either called for by the existing situation, or justified on general principles of policy, is more than doubtful. Unquestionably there has been a revival of boycotting in Ireland, but if crimes of the more serious sort have been committed in any numbers, they certainly have not been reported. The proclamation bears the look of a counter move of the Irish landlords against Mr. T. W. Russell's land-purchase programme, and it has all the more the aspect of a retaliatory movement that it comes at the first moment when the pressure from South Africa seems to diminish. A curious feature of the situation is the fact that the Irish Secretary, Mr. Wyndham, upon whom falls the duty of enforcing the proclamation, only the other day denied the existence of dangerous disorder in Ireland, while a few weeks ago, in a public address, he deprecated seeming to "use the law to strike down political oppression in Ireland," and to "combat proceedings which are comparable to the proceedings of trade-unions in this country." The Irish Nationalists will hardly fail to enlarge upon the text which Mr. Wyndham has furnished them. The Ministry has apparently committed the old blunder of playing into the hands of the agitators.

Confidence in the speedy coming of peace in distracted South Africa seems to be justified by what is now made known respecting the state of the negotiations. That all the Boer chiefs should have gathered for consultation with Gen. Kitchener and Lord Milner; that the terms offered them were at least such that they were not compelled to reject them on sight, but could with dignity refer them back to their followers for a plébiscite; that a practical suspension of hostilities—though not a formal armistice—is to prevail for the next three weeks, while the voting of the burghers is going on; and that Chamberlain should have been silent while Sir Michael Hicks-Beach came forward as the spokesman of the Ministry to praise Boer valor and to express the hope that Dutch and English might soon be living side by side in peace—these are the main facts which encourage us to believe that this bloody and costly and most ignoble war is nearing its end. An accident or a mistake may yet renew it, but to-day the signs of peace are unmistakably bright.

Canada accepts the Chancellor's bread duties with suspicious alacrity. She sees, of course, how easy it would be to pass from the proposed tariff to a preferential in favor of the colonies. The argument, or rather the insinuation, of the Canadian press is this, in effect: "For the moment the new corn laws are a necessity. But the time will come when the revenues may safely be reduced. What more natural than to effect this reduction by removing entirely the tax on the food products of the loyal colonies, while maintaining this war schedule against the rest of the world?" It is easy to see how such an argument might be employed by Imperial Federationists of Mr. Chamberlain's school, and, of course, the establishment of a preferential for colonial products would be a significant step towards an Imperial Zollverein. Australia, which has developed a sturdy national feeling, and is no friend of the preferential, may do something to balance Canadian influence. It would not be too much to say, however, that the exigencies of the exchequer have imperilled the sound tradition of English finance. Is it not always easier to impose and collect a series of extraordinary taxes than it is to return from the abnormal to a normal basis? These are considerations which those who are forecasting the remoter effects of the deplorable war in South Africa might do well to ponder.

The Pope's encyclical, read in all the Catholic churches on Sunday, may be taken as a kind of farewell address of the aged Pontiff, and is marked by that elevated tone which we have been accustomed to expect in his public utterances. Especially pertinent are his denunciations of the spirit of war and conquest so markedly revived during the past few years, even among professedly Christian nations. Pope Leo is not taken in by the specious plea that vast armaments are the surest guarantee of peace. He perceives that they are, in the first place, almost as burdensome to the common people as war itself would be, and he knows too well how the possession of a giant's strength is a standing temptation to use it. The head of the Catholic hierarchy is not to be imposed upon by the heathen maxim, "Si vis pacem para bellum." He would rather agree with the modified version of it made by Enfantin, one of the followers of St. Simon, "If you would preserve peace, then prepare for peace."

THE SENATE PHILIPPINE BILL.

The Lodge bill for the government of the Philippines has been made the unfinished business of the Senate, and will accordingly be considered from day to day until disposed of. It is of colossal proportions, embracing one hundred printed pages. A large part of it relates to the locating of mining claims and other technical matters very difficult to unravel, and which will probably not be understood by five men in the entire Congress of the United States, even after the bill is passed. It contains provisions for issuing bonds of the Philippine Government to buy out the land claims of the religious orders, and a multitude of other things which will be looked upon by the great majority of Senators as a burden and a bore, to be disposed of as hastily as possible in order to reach the more interesting private pension bills, river and harbor jobs, and other measures affecting the American people for better or for worse. It is but a single illustration of the waste of energy in attempting to govern countries on the other side of the globe when we have not time enough to attend properly to our own affairs.

The bill embraces almost as many subjects as the President's annual message. It is too voluminous to be treated as a whole in one article. We shall, therefore, confine our present examination of it to the provisions relating to the coinage question. This part of the bill has engaged the attention of the American press more closely than any other—for the reason, probably, that it has a more direct bearing than any other on our politics and on our trade relations with the islands. It must have been made already clear to Senators that the Republican press of the country frowns upon the proposal to establish the silver standard in the Philippines, and that the Democratic newspapers have not extended to it a very cordial welcome. This cold reception of the project may not deter the Senate from passing the bill, but it will strengthen the House in its purpose to strike out that part of the Senate bill and substitute the one already agreed to by its Committee on Insular Affairs.

The Senate bill authorizes the establishment of a mint at Manila to be operated under laws enacted by the Philippine Government, which Government is authorized to coin a silver dollar of 416 grains of that metal, nine-tenths fine. All bullion brought to the mint by private persons is to be coined into such dollars, which are to be unlimited legal tender. One cent per dollar is to be charged, however, for the cost of coinage. Section 83 of the bill embraces an original conception in the matter of coinage, for which a patent ought to be issued to the Committee on the ground of novelty. It provides:

"That the dollar hereinbefore authorized may be coined at the mint of the United States at San Francisco, in California, upon the request of the Government of the Philippine Islands, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States; and the owners of silver bullion may deposit the same for coinage at such mint under regulations to be made by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States as respects deposits, coinage, and transfer to the Philippine Islands, and a charge shall be made therefor at the rate of one cent for each dollar coined and the cost of transfer to the Philippine Islands in addition thereto: Provided, that such deposits at the San Francisco mint shall be confined to silver produced in the United States."

The concluding paragraph of this section, which restricts the coinage of dollars at San Francisco to silver produced in the United States, is manifestly a sop to the silver-mine owners and to the Senators representing their States. It is not impossible that the silverites made this provision a condition of their support of the measure. However that may be, it is a barefaced exhibition of greed, and it ought to be rejected for very shame. The silver-mine owners will get nothing out of it except the world's contempt, and the United States Government will be elevated to the dunce block in consequence of it if the bill becomes a law.

The other parts of the coinage provisions are mere details for the establishment of the single silver standard in the Philippines. The education that the American people have received during the past quarter of a century has enabled them to understand what this means. It is true that the silver standard already prevails in the Philippines, and that some difficulties must be encountered in changing it. Yet it is the part of statesmanship to face such difficulties, and to put the Philippines in harmony with India and Japan and other civilized nations as regards their medium of exchange. To link our Asiatic possessions to the dead corpse of Chinese currency, after excluding the Chinese themselves from the islands, would be a mark of incompetency almost ludicrous to contemplate.

CONGRESS AGAIN DEBATING.

An unusual interest has been manifest in the proceedings of either house of Congress for the past few days. One sure sign of this is the increased space which the newspapers have given to Washington dispatches. Congressmen sometimes complain that the press does not report their debates as it formerly did. The fault is in themselves. Let them make their debates interesting, and the newspapers, which always search for interesting reading as they do for hidden treasure, will jump at the chance of printing them. Consider the columns gladly give up to the Cuban debate in the House, and to the arguments on the Chinese Exclusion Bill in the Senate. They show how press reports increase directly as the square of public interest in the doings of Congress.

What has been the secret of this revived attention to Congressional oratory? It is not far to seek. In the first place, these animated discussions of public policy have been free from the deadening influence of a foregone decision on strict party lines. There has been an open give-and-take of argument, and votes have been changed by it. We have not seen a party leader, beaten in his logical contentions, rise and taunt the master of the better reasons with the fact that the heavier battalions were against him, and say, "Well, talk as you will, you are bound to lose when the roll-call comes." Now it is the very breath of life for public debate to have this possibility of persuasion in it. Merely to apply "a fine brute majority" is the way not simply to crush your opponents, but to destroy the interest and real significance of debating at all. When men can feel compelled to say, as the honest English Squire did to the able Parliamentary orator of the other party, "You have changed my opinion by your speech, but no man can change my vote," then we need no longer inquire why Congressional debates have decayed, or why public interest in them has declined.

It is obvious that the discussion of the Chinese Exclusion Bill actually brought about a vote in the Senate very different from what would have been cast but for the searching analysis of the measure. Undebated, it would have gone through triumphantly. But it could not stand exposure. Its improprieties and indecencies, its illegalities and absurdities, its lack of business sense and of humanity alike, were so driven in upon the general conviction that it was beaten off the field. The New England conscience rose in revolt, every Senator from that section voting against it except Mr. Lodge. He preferred to side with Tillman and the other advocates of barbarous methods in dealing with the Chinese; but that only confirms what we said, that the reason and conscience of New England—indeed, we may say of the Republican party—were against the bill as it passed the House. One could wish for no more complete demonstration of the value of free debate by legislators whose minds are open, and whose votes are at liberty to follow their judgment.

In the House the case has been different, but there, too, we have been given a vivid illustration of the cause of public interest in Congressional proceedings. It is not simply that the subject under discussion is large and important. So was the Philippine Tariff Bill, but it went through amid universal indifference. The reason was that then we had the certainty of a party majority at the end, while debate was limited, and a rigid rule shut out the possibility of so much as offering an amendment. That is the sure way to kill a debate. Of course, men in the Opposition

will present their views for the sake of a "record," and in order to put the party in power "in a hole"; but argument for such purposes only is obviously a dead-and-alive affair, and can never have the directness, the fire, the power and point of a speech which may change votes and really affect the course of legislation. Note the great contrast offered by the progress of the Cuban Bill through the House. It was attended by the stir and interest of an uncertain result. Party lines were broken up. Amendments could be and were offered. Tactical positions were eagerly manœuvred for. Far-reaching indirect results might follow in national politics. Hence the kindling and continuous interest with which the debate was followed by press and public; hence the new appeal to the debating power of the members themselves, with the discovery, in some cases, of an unexpected talent; and hence the restoration to the House of a measure of that national attention which used to be fixed upon it as the theatre of great debate.

The example ought not to be lost on those leaders of the House who have the shaping of its methods in their hands. Let them abolish some of their hard-and-fast rules for stifling debate, or else making it perfunctory. Let them take the sense of the House freely on all great subjects, instead of so hedging it about that the conquered cause is too often the one really pleasing to the majority, if it could find free expression, as well as to Cato. Let them open the true parliamentary career for talent by showing the aspiring orator that it is within his power to produce conviction and lead to action. In a word, let them make Congressional debate what debate ought to be everywhere—a means of bringing out the better reason and the wiser policy—and we shall hear much less of the decadence of Congress, or the growing indifference of the people to what goes on in the Capitol at Washington.

THE STEAMSHIP COMBINE.

From time to time during the past four months hints have been dropped, or facts have leaked out and found their way to the press, implying that a great steamship combination was on foot, and that it would embrace a large share of the Atlantic fleets, both English and American, plying between the United States and Great Britain. It was commonly supposed that the facts were held back by the parties in interest in order to see what chance there might be of passing a ship-subsidy bill in Congress, and how far the revenues from it might be available for the joint concern. An authorized statement was made public on Saturday. It confirms the rumors that had been afloat as to the fact of the combination, and as to the number and names of the fleets combined. These are the White Star, Dominion, Leyland, Atlantic Transport, American, and Red Star lines, whose aggregate tonnage is said to be nearly 850,000 tons. The relations of the combine to the Ship-Subsidy Bill are frankly stated by Mr. B. N. Baker, the President of the Atlantic Transport Company, in an interview published in the morning papers. He said:

"that the completion of the deal had been postponed from time to time because of the desire to see what kind of a ship-subsidy bill would be passed by Congress. 'It has become evident,' continued Mr. Baker, 'that the public and the newspapers do not want a ship-subsidy bill, and we have been compelled to proceed with our plans.' "

Mr. Baker threw additional light on the subsidy question by saying, in answer to an interrogatory, that the stock of his company would be taken in at a valuation of $300 to $325 per share. This cannot be considered an extravagant valuation, as things go in this fast age. The stock of the Atlantic Transport Company sells at $240 to $250 per share, independently of any combination or governmental subsidy, and the Company is building six or eight new ships at the present time. The Company is a remarkable success. It is almost wholly American, and its prosperity in the face of the competition of older and more famous lines is a striking commentary on the statement, so often repeated, that an American merchant marine is impossible without subsidies. It is aside from the purpose to say that these ships fly the British flag, since we can change all that by a joint resolution of Congress admitting them to American registry. As Mr. Baker is now building new ships in our own yards to add to his fleet, it is plain that he can see a way to sail them under the American flag and still make a fair profit.

It is not exactly certain that this giant consolidation will cause the defeat of the Subsidy Bill, now pending in the House, but it will considerably lessen its chances of passage. The declared object of the consolidation is to prevent rate-cutting. The more immediate purpose is to bring about a stock merger, by which the shares of the united companies can be put into a pool, and be made the basis of a new issue, of much larger nominal amount, to be sold to the public whenever the public is in a mood to buy such securities. Now the voters in the Western States, particularly, are becoming very restive on the subject of these mergers. Many persons who have been counted as supporters of the Ship-Subsidy Bill will be startled when they find themselves confronted with a gigantic shipping Trust, and discover that the American Line, for whose special behoof the Subsidy Bill was drawn and passed by the Senate, is a part of the combine, if not the head of it. "It is possible, though by no means certain," says the President of this line, Mr. Clement A. Griscom, "that the International Navigation Company [the American Line], whose chartered powers are very broad, will be made the parent company." The Western Congressman who reads these words, and discovers suddenly that in his fight for reëlection this fall he must carry not only the odium of a ship-subsidy bill, but of a $200,000,000 Trust in addition, will begin to think that it is best to divest himself of such a handicap. The only way to do this is to have the pending bill reported from the Committee adversely, and voted down now. If this is not done, it will be charged and believed that the bill is merely held back till after the election, and that it is to be passed next winter for the benefit of the combine. Of course, all the subsidy that the bill provides for the American Line will, if it passes, go into the treasury of the consolidated company.

Although the new combination looks formidable on paper, it does not follow that it will be able to control the rates for transatlantic freight and passage. There are powerful and independent lines not in the combination, the Cunard, North German Lloyd, Hamburg-American, Holland-America, and the French Line, besides the so-called tramp steamers, which will always be a competing force even if all the regular lines should combine. Moreover, a large number of competitors may be put into the transatlantic service at any time by the termination of the Boer war in South Africa. So there is no immediate danger of extortionate rates for European travel or freight service by reason of the present combination.

A REFERENCE LIBRARY OF ART REPRODUCTIONS.

Public attention has been frequently called of late to the work which the public libraries may do for art education, by making choice collections of art reproductions, giving periodic exhibitions, and supplying facilities for lectures and conferences. The time is evidently come for this kind of work, and all such efforts will meet with an aroused public interest. This is shown most significantly in the great success of the various series of cheap art reproductions. Many are in the field. They constantly increase their scope, and, at a price ranging from one cent to five, these reproductions of great works of art make their way into school and home. All these series appear to succeed, and success is gained only through an enormous circulation. The service which such enterprises render, and which the art departments of the smaller libraries may aspire to, is akin to that of the circulating library. The aim is to convey information and to cultivate taste concerning all matters of art. There is another service which the greater libraries may render—namely, that of

making complete collections of reproductions for the use of special students of art history—in effect, reference libraries of art.

It is the recent advance in the art of photography which has made it possible to study under one roof the art of the world. The isochromatic photograph is, for the trained eye, a sufficient record of any work of art. The enterprise of photographers has now gone so far that the more important pictures, statues, and drawings in public galleries have been adequately reproduced, and a good beginning has been made with the private collections. Meanwhile, the price of such reproductions nas become so reasonable that the making of a student's collection becomes rather a matter of discrimination than of sheer expenditure, and the photographs are now so permanent that the risk of the deterioration, or even of the total destruction, of a collection is quite obviated. The utility of such a repository is obvious. If no study of reproductions can ever replace first-hand knowledge of the originals, it yet is an indispensable complement to such study. It has, in fact, certain distinct advantages, for in the art library the works of a master, which are scattered through a score of galleries in many lands, may be placed upon one table, and the comparison of work with work, which otherwise would usually depend upon that fleeting thing, the visual memory, may be made in all leisure, photograph being confronted with photograph. It is the perfection of photographic reproduction which has revolutionized art history, making what was previously matter of opinion matter of demonstration, and raising art criticism to the plane of the other historical sciences.

That American librarians have laboriously built up reference libraries in the historical sciences, philology, and natural science, while virtually slighting the field of art, is very natural. In the first place, there was a superstition that art history must be studied chiefly in books, or, in another view, only in galleries. The idea that photographs and similar reproductions are the indispensable apparatus of the art historian has only lately made its way. This kind of study was a very new thing, and tainted with the suspicion of amateurism. Only a very liberal librarian—one who would strain the last point for a minute palæontologist or entomologist—could be expected to appropriate good money and devote unwonted pains for the benefit of people who merely wanted to look at pictures.

This attitude of depreciation has changed as art history has come to be a recognized science. Many librarians have given their energies to this new and fruitful field of library activity. Boston, though with a sadly insufficient appropriation, still leads in the completeness of its collection for the study of the fine arts. The Avery Library at Columbia University and the Cooper Institute have notable collections for the study of architecture and the industrial arts respectively. In Brooklyn the Pratt Institute and the Brooklyn Institute have made good beginnings, and doubtless many other libraries throughout the country have done something in this direction. We believe that many of the great libraries would undertake such collections if they could be fairly informed of the probable expense of an art department—its first cost and charges for maintenance. Benefactors, too, would probably adopt the idea readily if it came to them in a practical form. As with any new project, the question of ways and means is all-important.

Here Sir Martin Conway, Slade Professor of Art in Cambridge University, England, has some valuable suggestions in his recent book, 'The Domain of Art.' He writes:

"The great age of Italian painting from Cimabue to Tiepolo might perhaps be fairly completely represented by 20,000 photographs of pictures and drawings. . . . The cost of the photographs would not be less than £1,000. They would have to be mounted, boxed, and shelved for purposes of general reference by students, and that would cost at least £1,000 more. In practice the whole cost of such a collection would work out at nearer £3,000 than £2,000. That would enable us to produce a kind of illustrated index, chronologically classified, of all the chief paintings and drawings that have come down to us from the old Italian schools."

It is a comparatively simple calculation to deduce from this the probable cost of a complete collection for painting. Assuming that Italian painting, including drawing, comprises rather more than half of what would be necessary for an art-reference library, and remembering that photographs for northern painting are relatively more expensive, the minimum cost of a collection for painting may be reckoned at double Sir Martin Conway's figures—that is, £6,000, or $30,000; the maximum cost might fairly be put at £9,000, or $45,000. It would take several years, under ordinary conditions, to buy, mount, and properly classify the initial collection. Afterwards the cost of accessions would be comparatively small. The expense of maintenance would be at most the salary of a special curator, with an assistant. Much of the work might be distributed to the regular staff. Many of the larger libraries already have a special art-librarian, in which case the additional expense would be comparatively less.

To speak in round numbers, a gift of $100,000 would provide generously for the establishment and maintenance of a reference library of art reproductions. When these facts are known and properly presented, we believe it will not be long before the New York Public Library, the Congressional Library at Washington, and one at least of the three great Chicago libraries will be in a way to add such departments. It should not be forgotten that, while such a collection is primarily for the use of specialists, it can readily be made available also for the general purposes of art education. It would be a valuable resource as well to our artists, for by the use of such a collection they could very readily find the necessary contact with the finest traditions of the past. Under modern conditions, photographs of great works of art are to the young artist what Horace's "Exemplaria Græca" were to the young poet of Augustan times.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, April 19, 1902.

The April meetings of the National Academy of Sciences, which are held in Washington, are usually more important, scientifically, than the autumn meetings, which are held elsewhere. The relations of the Academy to the Government would naturally render them so; and other circumstances tend to the same result. At the meeting which has just adjourned, twenty-six papers were presented, of which four were biographies of deceased members. Of the remaining twenty-two, five related to Astronomy, as many in a broad sense to chemistry, three each to biology and geology, two each to psychology and logic, and one to metrics; while one was a description of Mosso's station on Monte Rosa.

Of the five papers upon astronomy, one, a review of the present state of our knowledge of the constant of aberration, by Dr. S. C. Chandler, was read by title only, and one upon the coefficients of precession and nutation, by Mr. Ira Ibsen Sterner, was an affair of computation. In a paper upon the planet Eros, Prof. E. C. Pickering expressed the belief that the photographic observations of that planet thirty years hence would yield the best value for the solar parallax; but Prof. Asaph Hall held that the best value would quite possibly be derived from a certain inequality of the moon's motion. Professor Pickering discussed in a very interesting way the irregular variations of light of the same little asteroid, Eros. The period of time during which the planet goes through all its changes of brightness seems to be constant at about two and a half hours, but the amount of the change appears to depend upon the direction from which the planet is viewed. The inference is that the planet rotates about an axis which must be invariable in direction, or nearly so. Yet the planet does not appear to be displaced in position during the period of its rotation; from which it may be inferred that it is about equally bright in all parts. Hence, its variations of brightness would be owing to the angular area exposed to the eye, as the object is viewed from different sides. Thus, the amount of variation, the mean brightness, and the law of variation, as the planet is viewed from different sides, afford means for a study of its form, and of the causes of variation, in a way hitherto unparalleled in photometry.

Professor Pickering also gave an account of the present state of research into the distribution of stars of different magnitudes over the heavens, a work begun by the immortal William Herschel, from which —with such assistance as proper motions and possibly some minor sources of information may afford—must be deduced whatever knowledge of the form and constitution of the star cluster in which the solar system is as a grain of sand upon a seabeach, the denizens of earth may be destined ever to attain.

Professor Hall, who preserves a manifest attachment to analytical devices for getting at facts where observation is more or less in default, discussed the possibility of a comet's being disrupted by gravitation alone, and wrote down the general differential equations of the problem—equations which a skilled mathematician might study for many months without finding any really good way of handling. Professor Pickering remarked that a series of photographs had demonstrated the existence of a repulsive force between parts of a certain comet, at a certain epoch, which was many times as strong as the disrupting force of gravity.

Of the five papers I have classed as chemical, one by Professor Nichols, on the optical properties of asphalt, and one by Professor Morley, on the tension of mercury vapor below the boiling-point of water, were of technical interest. Professor Morley finds that the tension, as experimentally determined, is greatly less than that which had been deduced by extrapolation. Professor Crafts gave a brief statement of the progress he has made since November in the study of the catalysis of comparatively concentrated solutions, using as a catalyser what will be understood by all students of chemistry as $C_6H_5SO_3H$.

Professor Richards, who at present looks after the atomic weights more than others do, has determined that of the very rare potassium-metal cæsium. The number he obtains is about 132.879; with a range of from 132.873 to 132.882. Hitherto, 132.8 has been the number given. He also offered a largely speculative, yet highly useful, contribution to the question of what hypotheses may reasonably be tried in order to account for changes in atomic volume. It seems very extraordinary that, notwithstanding the stupendous mass of chemical facts that have been collected and the very considerable researches that have been made into physical chemistry, we are still almost entirely ignorant of what a chemical compound is, or how its constituents are held together. We are not even sure that they are held together by mutual attractions; for although heat is generally evolved when bodies combine, showing that mutual forces are satisfied simultaneously with the act of combination, yet in some cases, on the contrary, heat is absorbed during combinations—a fact which naturally leads us to inquire whether there may not be other agencies than mutual forces whose action indirectly results in the formation of chemical bodies; and whether, if so, it is not probable that such agencies, whatever they may be, are a factor even of those combinations in which they are aided by direct forces. When hydrogen and chlorine come together to form muriatic gas, there is no condensation—or none of which account is commonly taken—although there is enormous evolution of heat. But then, the extreme chemical activity of the resulting gas seems to prove that it is not a fully complete chemical compound. Notwithstanding the tremendous energy with which the ions have approached one another, they are still so active that the case must be very different from what it is when a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen loses one-third of its volume in combining. A body may undergo contraction without combining with a different body; as when aqueous vapor is cooled. In all such cases heat is plenteously evolved, and molecule unites with molecule. It is a question how far the heat of chemical reaction is anything more than heat of contraction. Contraction does not necessarily consist solely in the approach of atoms towards one another. If an atom is a vortex, it must be in itself elastic and capable of deformation; and it may be so even if it is not a vortex. If atoms are compressible, the mutual attraction between two atoms would naturally tend to deform them. Another question, therefore, to be considered is the relation between such deformations and their valency. It seems to be a fact that highly compressible elements have low valency, while carbon and other elements of high valency are little compressible. All these are interesting and valuable considerations to be borne in mind in the construction of new hypotheses upon which experimental investigations are to be based.

The geological papers were of remarkable interest. Two, by the new President of the Academy, Mr. Alexander Agassiz, related to the mode of formation of coral reefs and to the somewhat peculiar coral reefs of the Maldive Islands, which Mr. Agassiz has lately visited. Instead of being in the trade-winds, these islands are in the monsoons; and, instead of being exposed to the tremendous surf of the Pacific, they are in the gentler Indian Ocean. Darwin's theory of the origin of the coral reefs, which, as is generally known, was that the work of the coral animals began when the Pacific was a shallow sea, and that, as its floor has gradually sunk, the corals have built higher and higher, until they now rise in some cases from the deepest ocean, seems, at any rate, to be definitively exploded. In the first place, it does not seem to be generally true that the sea-floor is everywhere sinking where there are coral-reefs. In the next place, borings show that the coral-rock extends only to a moderate depth. In the third place, an admirable survey was made of the Maldives, about 1830 to 1836, from comparison of which with the existing islands it is found for certain that older and younger atolls exist side by side in the same sea, which is hardly compatible with Darwin's theory. There are several other arguments to the same effect, not so easily stated in a few words.

On the other hand, the differences between the Maldives and the Pacific coral islands, which are very remarkable, are easily explicable on the theory of their formation which is supported by Agassiz. The Maldive atolls are excessively composite. What may be called an atoll, and upon a small-scale map has every appearance of such a formation, may be found to be a composite of tens or of hundreds of partially independent atolls; and the lagoons will contain rich growths of corals, in striking contrast to the atolls of the Pacific. This is attributable to the wide and deep passages existing in the reefs. In the Maldives, as in the Pacific and near Yucatan, manganese nodules were found upon the floor of the ocean, and these are held to be necessarily of eruptive origin. Not limestone, but eruptive rocks form the foundation structures upon which the coral islands are built. Next above these rocks are limestones that are not coralline, but are composed of fragments of shells of globigerinæ. These deposits are raised to such a height as to be moved by the action of the sea and to be further thrown up in places to within 30 or 40 fathoms of the surface, at which depth the work of the coral animals can begin. After that, everything seems to depend upon the action of the sea, and so upon the prevailing winds. The nature of the changes which individual islands have undergone since 1830 are extremely interesting and significant. A coral reef is not necessarily circular. That type occurs but seldom. It is more apt to be shaped like a pear or a gourd. According to circumstances, in the Maldives, in course of time, a faro, or island, or several, may be formed upon the reef; quite commonly two, where the seas of the two monsoons strike tangentially. These islands put out spits in one direction and the other as the wind changes, and thus the two islands at length join together and the one island takes the form of a broken ring.

Professor Osborn summarized the evidence that North America and Eurasia were, during the Mesozoic and Cenozoic, joined in such wise as to constitute a single zoölogical realm. In regard to the latent homology of which he told us last October, he has since found that this had been long ago remarked by Owen, and named homoplasy. Professor Osborn presented part third of a monograph on the bombycine moths of America. This part relates to the Sphingicampidæ.

Professor Cattell read a paper on psychophysical fatigue, in which he showed that Mosso's method of experimenting upon lifting a dead weight from the ground, the amount of work being measured by the product of the mass into the height through which it was lifted, is open to the objection that there is much effort before the weight is stirred. By experimenting upon pulls against a spring, Professor Cattell has entirely avoided this objection; and the consequence is, that the strange anomalies of Mosso's results now completely disappear. Three papers by Mr. C. L. Peirce, on Color Sensation, on the Postulates of Geometry, and on the Classification of the Sciences, were read by title.

Mr. William Sellers read a paper on the compulsory introduction of the metric system into the United States. This referred to a bill which the doctrinaires of the metric system, with their usual utter neglect to ascertain the state of facts, have introduced into Congress requiring every bureau of the Government (including the Bureau of Weights and Measures, the Mint, the Bureau of Construction of the Navy, etc.), from and after a given date, to use no other than the units of the metrical system for any purpose whatsoever. That this would render every plan in the Navy Department worthless, that it would be impossible to repair the engines of any ship, are among the smallest inconveniences which would result from carrying out the purposes of

this fantastic measure, which is, however, urgently pushed by Gen. Comstock. At present the American screw system is in use generally upon the Continent of Europe. There has been, of late years, some attempt to revolt against it; but if America only maintains her position, those countries must ultimately come to the inch for mechanical purposes, because it and its modes of subdivision are more convenient and advantageous for those purposes. America is now, said Mr. Sellers, fifty years in advance of the rest of the world in mechanics. Really, to discard the inch would be to surrender our preëminence, which could not, under those circumstances, continue, such advantage should we be at once putting into the hands of England.

The newly elected President of the Academy, Mr. Agassiz, gave a brilliant reception on Wednesday at the Arlington. President Roosevelt received the Academy on Wednesday morning with the utmost grace.

MADAME RÉCAMIER.—III.

PARIS, April 19, 1902.

Madame Récamier returned to Paris after the fall of Napoleon in 1814. She found there all those who had been persecuted like herself under the Empire. She was as handsome as she ever had been, and to the prestige of beauty she added the halo of triumph. Her friends, the Montmorencys, Mathieu and Adrien, the Duke de Rohan, Alexis de Noailles, were all in high honor. Adrien de Montmorency presented to her his son, who fell at once in love with her, which gave him occasion to cite a verse of La Fontaine, in the "Animaux Malades de la Peste"—

"Ils n'en mouraient pas tous, mais tous étaient frappés."

During these first hours of triumph Madame Récamier had the pleasure of extending her kindness to Queen Hortense, who was at Saint-Leu, as well as to Queen Caroline of Naples. She drew more closely to the royalist cause Benjamin Constant, who became very seriously enamoured of her. Queen Caroline begged Madame Récamier to find in Paris some one who could defend her interests and those of Murat at the Congress of Vienna. Madame Récamier cast her eyes on Benjamin Constant; he refused to undertake the task, which he thought unworthy of him, but this circumstance brought him in daily contact with Madame Récamier, and what had been at first only a natural attraction grew into a most violent passion.

Benjamin Constant was a man of extraordinary talent and of an unbridled disposition. He never seems to have been able to understand that Madame Récamier did not return his love, and he was exasperated at her resistance to a passion which in the end amounted almost to madness. It was strong enough to influence his politics; he was not a royalist at heart, but made himself a royalist. When Bonaparte lands in France, after having left the island of Elba, Benjamin Constant writes in his diary: "I throw myself *à corps perdu* on the side of the Bourbons. It is Madame Récamier who drives me to this." Napoleon approaches, and, on the 19th of March, Benjamin Constance, who remains in Paris (Madame Récamier had left for Switzerland, taking with her twenty thousand francs which Benjamin Constant had lent her), writes in the *Journal des Débats* an article which ends with this celebrated phrase: "I will not, a miserable deserter, drag myself from one party to the other, cover infamy with sophism, and 'balbutier des mots profanés pour racheter une vie honteuse' [I cite the text in its eloquence]."

Constant started for Nantes, but, learning on the way that the town was in the hands of the Bonapartists, he returned to Paris, thinking that he was to be arrested. He received, to his astonishment, the visit of a negotiator who invited him, in the name of the Emperor, to go to the Tuileries. After some hesitation, and on hearing that Lafayette and all the Constitutional party were united in a policy of conciliation with Napoleon, he went to the Tuileries, and, after a long conversation with the Emperor, accepted the post of Councillor of State. In the first letter which he wrote to Madame Récamier after this reconciliation with the Empire, he said merely: "The life of a courtier or a statesman be d—d! I think that I shall resign to-morrow, and I am sure I would do so if I only thought that you would thank me for it." He added: "I have had the most curious conversations. . . . They will be good to hear, if you are curious." His versatility was not rewarded; the dream of a liberal Empire soon vanished. After Waterloo, Constant found a change in Madame Récamier's attitude towards him. "I feel there," he writes in his *Journal intime*, "a barrier which paralyzes me." There is some truth in these remarks of M. Turquan: "Benjamin Constant's love for Madame Récamier seems to have dried up his brain. The unfortunate man produces nothing more; he seems to have been arrested in full development." Michelet did not hesitate to attribute Constant's failure to his unhappy love for Madame Récamier.

Madame Récamier saw the Duke of Wellington in Paris, in 1814. M. Turquan reproaches her for doing, in these circumstances, what Madame de Staël, the Duchess d'Abrantès, all the ladies of the Faubourg St. Germain did; and at any rate, she received very coldly the homage of the Duke. In 1815, after Waterloo, Wellington paid her a visit, and among his first words to her, he said, alluding to Napoleon: "Je l'ai bien battu." Madame Récamier was offended by these words, and from that day she did not see the Duke of Wellington again.

Madame de Staël fell ill, and Madame Récamier, who visited her constantly, made in her house the acquaintance of Chateaubriand, who was much struck by her beauty; but their intimate relations began only some time after the death of Madame de Staël. In 1818, Madame Récamier went to Aix-la-Chapelle, during the sitting of the Congress, meeting there, as I have said, the Prince Augustus of Prussia; on her return to Paris she paid more attention to Chateaubriand than she had done at first. She knew that he had made a deep impression on a number of great ladies, Madame de Beaumont, Madame de Castine, the Duchess de Mouchy, the Duchess de Duras. It seemed natural for her to count the author of the 'Genius of Christianity' among her ordinary courtiers. Chateaubriand soon held the first place among them; but she kept them all, even those who at first suffered the pangs of jealousy. She was a great master in the art of mingling natural coquetry with real friendship.

M. Récamier, who, after his great failure in the time of the Empire, had attempted to rebuild his fortune, failed again under the Restoration. His wife had to shut up her house, to sell a hôtel which she had bought, and she took rooms in a sort of convent for ladies, called L'Abbaye-aux-Bois. She was, of course, to live there as she liked, to receive her friends, and to keep a few servants. Chateaubriand has described her apartment:

"A dark passage separated two small suites. The bedroom was adorned with a library, a harp, a piano, a portrait of Madame de Staël, and a moonlight view of Coppet. In the windows were flower-pots. When, all panting after the ascent of three flights of stairs, I entered this cell at the approach of evening, I felt enchanted. The windows afforded a view on the garden of the abbey, on the lawn where nuns walked around and where their pupils were running. The top of an acacia reached to the height of the eye. Pointed spires cut the sky, and on the horizon the hills of Sèvres were seen. The setting sun covered everything with gold and entered by the open windows."

It was in this retreat that Madame Récamier received her friends, who were faithful to her to the end. Chateaubriand had his chair near the chimney, where he invariably sat every day for some hours. Every means were tried to amuse him. One day, Rachel, who was then at the beginning of her career, came and recited some parts of "Polyeucte" and of "Esther." She was just reciting the famous verses which Corneille places in the mouth of Pauline when she feels the operation of grace and becomes a Christian—

"Mon jeune époux mourant m'a laissé ses lumières,
Son sang, dont ses bourreaux viennent de me couvrir,
M'a dessillé les yeux et me les vient d'ouvrir;
Je vois, je sais, je crois!"—

when the door opened and an archbishop was introduced. Madamoiselle Rachel was a Jewess, and when she was presented to the archbishop she did not dare to repeat again the scene from "Polyeucte," but recited the verses from "Esther":

"Est-ce toi, chère Elise."

In 1820 there came a new visitor to the Abbaye-aux-Bois, Ampère, the son of the great Ampère who may be called the father of modern electrical science. Young Ampère naturally fell in love with Madame Récamier, and became her devoted friend. He was a charming man and became a member of the French Academy.

The assassination of the Duke de Berry (February 13, 1820) was followed by many changes in the interior policy of the Restoration. Decazes left the Home Office; it was thought for a moment that Chateaubriand would enter the Cabinet. Louis XVIII., who disliked him, contented himself with sending him as Ambassador to Berlin; he was sent later to London and to the Congress of Verona. When M. de Villèle became Prime Minister, he gave the Foreign Affairs Department to Chateaubriand. In 1823 Madame Récamier made a journey to Rome with her young niece (who became Madame Lenormant), Ampère, and Ballanche. She received almost daily letters from Chateaubriand and from Mathieu de Montmorency. At Rome she was received by the French Ambassador, the Duke de Laval. She stayed a long time in Rome,

where Ampère made the first studies which he afterwards completed in a charming book, 'Promenades dans Rome.'

M. Turquan's volume ends with a detailed account of the last years of Madame Récamier. She became a widow some time before the Revolution of 1830. This revolution caused great commotion among her friends. Chateaubriand, though he had many reasons for discontent with the Government of the Bourbons, remained the chivalrous advocate of their cause. He resigned his seat in the House of Peers; the Abbaye-aux-Bois became his refuge. It was there that he read to a select circle the eloquent pages of his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe.' Madame Récamier became to him a sort of Antigone. By degrees she grew almost blind. The celebrated beauty who had carried everything before her in her early days, led at the close the most melancholy life. She died on May 11, 1849, after a new Revolution. She was a victim of the cholera, which was then raging in Paris. It is said that on her deathbed her features, softened and glorified, recovered all the beauty of former days.

Correspondence.

NON TROVATO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the literary notes of your number of March 20, I have been surprised to see the following sentence: "The Oxford Dictionary has been followed in the remarkable omission of 'anti-slavery,' certainly one of the best-worked of the *anti* epithets of the nineteenth century."

If such an omission had been made from the Dictionary it would certainly have been remarkable; so remarkable that one wonders the writer could let the statement go without looking to see if it could possibly be true. The word would have been duly found on page 364, column 1, with the other well-worked *anti* epithets of the nineteenth century, *Anti-combination* (laws), *Anti-corn-law* (League) *Anti-rent* (agitators), *Anti-state-church* (Association), and *Anti-vaccination*, duly distinguished by black type from the general crowd of *anti* combinations. On account of the interest of *Anti-slavery*, special trouble was taken by me to trace the epithet to its source, and I succeeded in getting a quotation from the manuscript minute-book of the British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society of the 9th of April, 1823, which is probably the earliest written use of the word on this side the Atlantic. In addition to this, the Dictionary quotes of the same year the New York *Observer* of 17th of May, the *Anti-Slavery Reporter* of 1825, and a speech of Wendell Phillips of 1863; which, I think, sufficiently epitomize the history of the epithet.

In Great Britain, now, critics do not venture to write of the Dictionary's "remarkable omissions" when they overlook a word in it (which, on account of the vastness of the field, and the necessity for economizing space, is always possible); they modestly say they "have not found" it.

James A. H. Murray.

Oxford, April 11, 1902.

[Our dereliction arose from too good a memory and too imperfect examination, original and recent. On the first appearance (in the eighties!) of the portion of the Dictionary containing the word *anti-slavery*, we made at least a mental note of the absence of this word *from its place in the main alphabetical sequence*. At that time undoubtedly we lacked the caution the exercise of which is emphasized anew by Dr. Murray. In apologizing for this lese-Dictionary, we may properly allege the mitigating circumstance that it is not obvious at first glance on what principle like compounds are allotted now to the main alphabet, now to a subordinate place. The need of definition is not the controlling factor, as is plain, say, from *antisocial* being at the front while *anti-slavery* is perdu.—Ed. Nation.]

WHO WAS ISAAC WEAVER?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The pamphlet 'Experience the Test of Government . . . Philadelphia, printed by William Duane, 1807,' and included in Duane's "Select Pamphlets," 1814, has by some cataloguers been regarded as anonymous. A copy which has just come into my hands has, written on the back of the title-page, evidently in a contemporary hand, "Written by Isaac Weaver."

At my request the Library of Congress has made research into the matter, but finds no mention of Isaac Weaver, much less any support of this ascription. It is very desirable that, if possible, the authorship of this important tract be determined, and I hope some Pennsylvania antiquarian or bibliographer may be able to throw light on the question—at least, to discover who Isaac Weaver was. W. I. Fletcher.

Amherst College Library, April 19, 1902.

THE STUDENT GOWN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can some bright student of sociology explain the sudden fondness of American students for what is euphemistically termed "academic costume"? One can understand the argument that some sort of uniform is desirable in order to add to the solemnity and dignity of Commencement day. But how any young fellow with a trace of humor in his composition can, of his own choice, appear at other times in a flowing black gown and a mortar-board, is not so evident. Many college students are of very humble social position, and are compelled to do the lowest sort of manual labor in order to meet their expenses. Yet in a number of Eastern colleges the seniors array themselves for the spring term in all the majesty that this garb can give. In the course of a few weeks these seniors will go, one to his farm, one to his merchandise, and sink into the mediocrity that is the lot of the majority; but, for one glorious spring term, they have been marked off from the vulgar herd. Wherever they have gone they have been gazed upon with awe as living college seniors. Does this represent the real state of mind of the gownsmen, or must we look farther?

At Oxford and Cambridge the students have, of course, retained the distinctive dress worn in the Middle Ages, when every one was attired according to his station. American colleges were at first modelled somewhat on the English pattern, but in the course of the last two decades they have gone as far from their English models as possible. Is the gown intended to remind us of historic relations that would otherwise rapidly be forgotten? Our German cousins are rather absurdly fond of uniforms; but German students, though many of them wear modest flat colored caps, seldom venture to don a peculiar university garb except for processions.

What, then, is the genesis of this fashion? Has it come to stay, or is it a passing fad? Some one who knows will, perhaps, be good enough to tell. Oxford.

April 14, 1902.

"ACADEMIC STUDIES AND DEGREES."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the thoughtful and temperate article on "Academic Studies and Degrees," which appeared in the *Nation* of April 10, there are certain assumptions which may well be questioned. One of these assumptions is, that the student of science is a specialist, while the student of the classics is not. Another is, that scientific studies are directly utilitarian to the student, while classical studies are not. A third assumption, which (to be sure) may be regarded as a direct consequence of those just given rather than a new proposition, is that classical studies give "the flexibility of mind which we call culture," while scientific studies do not. The writer appears, moreover, to exclude modern languages from the category of culture-giving studies.

"The studies that lead to knowledge of man, with the flexibility of mind which we call culture," is a passage to be pondered over when it is applied to the old-fashioned classical college curriculum. Is it true that Latin, and Greek, and mathematics, the main constituents of the traditional A.B. course, gave a peculiarly wide or true knowledge of man? Is it true that from their very nature or from the way in which they were taught, they gave especial flexibility of mind, a quality of culture, not to be attained by means of other studies? Occupied with such reflections, I yesterday chanced to enter the study of an acquaintance whose name would be recognized by many readers of the *Nation* as that of a man of culture. Finding myself alone there I did, what I usually do under such circumstances—that is, I looked somewhat curiously at the pictures on the walls. I found there, among others of less notable persons, portraits of Darwin, Carlyle, Emerson, Lincoln, Newman, and, I think, Chaucer. Now, it seemed to me that there was an indication, almost a proof, of liberal culture, of varied interests and sympathies, of the power to meet a great variety of educated men on common grounds, in the selection of such a list of portraits. Yet how very modern the list was, as a whole. The owner was, no doubt, more or less proficient in Greek and Latin twenty or more years ago; but I feel sure that most of the ideas, not purely literary, with which he occupies himself are ideas for which he need not go to the classics—ideas with which he would not find the classics especially helpful. And is this not true of most liberally educated men at the present time? Has not

this age, like every other age of real intellectual activity, brought forth its own intellectual products, and is not cultivation nowadays mainly concerned with these products?

And even if, in the group of portraits which I have described, one were to replace Carlyle by Pasteur, and Chaucer by Helmholtz or Clerk Maxwell, could these changes fairly be taken as indicating commonplace and utilitarian interests? Is not the true criterion of culture the ability to hold mutually agreeable and profitable mental intercourse with many sorts and conditions of men? Is it not to be sought in familiar acquaintance with many subjects of general interest, rather than in the profound knowledge of any one thing, even if that one thing be Greek? Is it not true that a student who should, at the present time, confine himself in college to such studies as his grandfather took while there, would appear uncultivated in general intellectual intercourse with most educated men of to-day? The writer of the article under discussion admits that such a student would find himself one of a very small company.

Is the writer sure that the feeling of having preserved the old tradition of "aristocratic" or "clerkly" learning, at the sacrifice of intellectual companionship with the great mass of college-trained men, would make this student anything better than a prig? Will not this writer admit that a great deal of the old spirit of "disinterested and 'clerkly' study" has gone over from the classics to physics and chemistry and biology? He has spoken of the Johns Hopkins. Did he know Rowland? Was any classicist ever more magnificently disregardful of mere utilities than he? Let us remember that the discovery of the Roentgen rays was led up to and made possible by decades of patient study in a field of physics that seemed absolutely barren of all promise of utility.

I agree, however, with what I understand to be the opinion of the writer, that some studies of a too technical character are sometimes thrown open to candidates for the A.B. degree. The danger that this will happen is perhaps especially great where a college and a technical school exist side by side. The curriculum of a scientific school which undertakes to give a professional education is almost always sadly overcrowded; things for which some use cannot be plainly foreseen must be left out of it. The result is an atmosphere of hurry and strain, a spirit of desperate economy like that which forces an Arctic explorer to leave his watch behind in making his race for life. This spirit is the very opposite of "liberal," and no amount of work done under such conditions can give a liberal education.

Very truly yours, EDWIN H. HALL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 14, 1902.

[We had no intention of excluding the modern languages, or indeed any of the historical sciences, from the category of "humanistic" studies; still less of asserting the inferiority *per se* of scientific studies. What we wished to emphasize is the cleft between these two kinds of training. Let Mr. Hall take extreme instances—a young man trained in classical and modern literatures, history, and philosophy; and another student trained exclusively in mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, and other natural sciences—and he cannot doubt that these two different curricula would bring about two radically diverse mental attitudes. Without predicating superiority of one or the other education, it is clear that they are different. That this difference should be recognized in our academic degrees—a contention which we cannot see that Mr. Hall's interesting *questionnaire* really touches—was the plea of the article in question.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

Our readers have had a foretaste of Prof. G. Frederick Wright's forthcoming book on 'Asiatic Russia,' illustrated with photographs and maps, which McClure, Phillips & Co. are to publish in two volumes.

William S. Lord, Evanston, Ill., has in press 'Love-Story Masterpieces,' compiled by Ralph A. Lyon; 'John McGovern's Poems,' and 'Line o' Type Lyrics,' by Bert Leston Taylor.

'Next to the Ground,' by Martha McCulloch-Williams (McClure, Phillips & Co.), is an out-of-door book of an unusual kind, in that it is a study not only of wild animals and plants, but of the biology of farm processes, crops, and domestic animals. The author shows minuteness and fidelity of observation, and considerable scientific knowledge in accounting for the facts that she notes; she has, moreover, freshness and aptness of diction, and a freedom from sentimentality that makes her book seem genuine and wholesome as befits its subject. The scene of her observations is a Tennessee plantation. To anybody familiar with Southern farms her description of August, "the ragged month," and her chapters on breaking up old grass-land and burning for tobacco seed-beds, will bring up lively remembrance of characteristic landscapes and scenes of labor. The chapters on quail-shooting, fox-hunting, and 'possum-hunting are less convincing; one cannot follow with the thrill of the chase. The study of the hog free to range in ample feeding-grounds will surprise readers who know the animal only in the confinement of the sty. The book gets some human interest from the incidental introduction of the planter and his family, but this part of the work is not uniformly skilful. Wherever the author appears to have seen for herself, her record is to be relied on. She evidently uses, however, considerable material not obtained from her own experience, and here, unfortunately, she has made mistakes that mar a highly commendable book.

Mr. Ernest Christopher Meyer, of Madison, Wis., has prepared and publishes an essay entitled 'Nominating Systems; Direct Primaries versus Conventions in the United States.' He regards the "primary" as the "citizen's citadel of right," and when pure, as "the fount from which the great blessings of democratic government flow." Of course this view implies the permanency of the party system. Independent movements will be hindered by making party machinery a part of the governmental organization, which properly knows only citizens, and favors no one because he calls himself a Republican or a Democrat. Whatever reform is to come must be reform "within the party." Nor is it to be assumed that the caucus will, on the whole, be more difficult to manage than the convention. As Mr. Bryce observes, no meeting can be held without a prearranged plan; and while the regulation of caucuses by law may make party organization more perfect, it does not follow that government will be thereby improved. Mr. Meyer, however, is firmly convinced that there is a fund of political virtue among the people which can be utilized by legalizing the caucus, and he deserves credit for the pains he has taken to collect whatever information on the subject is to be found. His book is certainly of value, but it will not supersede Mr. F. W. Dallinger's excellent work, 'Nomination to Elective Office.'

The sixth—a skip from the fourth—volume of the 'System of Physiologic Therapeutics' (Blakiston), under Dr. Cohen's editorship, is by Dr. N. S. Davis, jr., upon 'Dietotherapy.' The alternative title of "Food in Health and Disease" is more acceptable. The work is a convenient arrangement of principles and details in the matter of food and feeding, and very acceptable features are the reproduction of numerous dietaries in actual use about the world taken from Bulletins of the Department of Agriculture, and a table of the composition and fuel value of flesh foods by Mitchell. Dr. Davis accepts his father's well-known views, that alcohol is as unnecessary as a medicine as it is undesirable as a beverage, although he admits that in small doses it may be beneficial. These, however, are to be strictly guarded by prescription. As a whole, the book is a good working exposition of what may be accomplished by foods. When the author says (p. 27), "the Pasteur or Chamberlain filter is the best," and "it is made of porous earthenware," it is apparent that he has the Pasteur-Chamberland in mind, and uses "earthenware" in a very broad sense to include biscuit porcelain. More definiteness would be better. As in the other volumes of this series, the index is copious.

An edition of Gauss's classical work on 'Curved Surfaces' has, during the last generation, appeared about once every three or four years, so that it would seem to vie in popularity with 'Gulliver's Travels' and far outdo Munchausen. The last and best edition, at any rate the easiest for Americans to read, is a splendid publication by the Princeton University Library. It is in English. A mathematician who does not possess enough Latin to read a book on mathematics is cut off entirely from all the more important parts of the older literature, except what is written in French. Not only the language, but Gauss's algebraical notations, are modernized in the new publication, even in points where his preferences were emphatic. We should prefer to read the paper in his collected works. However, no doubt it is more easily read here, and all the slips are corrected. Besides the work itself, there is a translation of an earlier work by Gauss on the same subject, which never was printed until seventy-five years after it was written, in 1900. There are also an abstract by Gauss of his own memoir, and serviceable notes. A valuable bibliography is added, in looking over

which we remark that this differential geometry has been chiefly cultivated, since Gauss, by Italian and French mathematicians. But the list omits some of the topics which have most engaged attention. The work has been done by James Caddall Morehead and Adam Miller Hiltebeitel.

In "The Problem of the Universe," Professor Newcomb, writing in the *International Monthly*, goes over the whole ground of stellar distribution and the doctrine of cosmic evolution, from Wright and Kant to Darwin and Kapteyn, making it quite clear that the infinities still have it, in so far as comprehension by finite intelligence is concerned; and further, that, in spite of the rather rapid increase of human knowledge of things stellar, our ignorance must probably remain for ever colossal. The universe is a large subject for magazine treatment, but abridgment is requisite, as nowadays readers of an article expanded beyond twenty pages, on any topic save money, war, or politics, are few and far between.

Professor Bigelow, an able and industrious meteorologist of the United States Weather Bureau, contributes to the current *Popular Science Monthly* an article, on the formation and motions of clouds, which goes to show that a critical knowledge of the scientific reasons underlying natural processes and phenomena need not always blind the eye to appreciation of the beautiful. He likens the present period of meteorological endeavor to the Tycho and Kepler stage of astronomy, when observations were in process of accumulation for the use of the coming Newton. But the Newtonian age in meteorology has scarcely advanced to break of dawn as yet. Professor Bigelow is quite right in saying that the storm forecaster ought to have access, not only to the ground strata of the atmosphere, but also to those at higher levels. Mr. Lawrence Rotch of Blue Hill has demonstrated in practical form how this can be done at small expense by means of kite ascensions, and in time we shall have three simultaneous daily maps of the weather—the two aerial ones for elevations of 3,500 and 10,000 feet.

A discovery of extraordinary interest is revealed in the (Boston) *Mayflower Descendant*. Mr. George Ernest Bowman there establishes the fact, hitherto unsuspected, of the existence of a marked "gravestone of a *Mayflower* passenger, erected at the time of his death and inscribed with his name and age." The person in question was Capt. Richard More, Senior, who came over as a boy in Elder Brewster's family, finally settled in Salem, Mass., and there died, being interred in the old Charter Street Cemetery. Mr. Bowman presents sundry documents (one from the Maryland archives at Annapolis), confirming his identity, and pictures photographically his well-preserved and handsomely lettered headstone and those of his wives. The year of his death is not inscribed, and is conjectural; but Mr. Bowman things Capt. More probably outlived John Cooke, who has been reputed the latest survivor among the male passengers. Mr. Bowman's researches were greatly aided by the complete index to every name in the MS. volumes of the Plymouth County wills and inventories, the Plymouth Colony deeds, and Plymouth County wills and deeds, which he is making for the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants.

The *Consular Reports* for April contains a review of our foreign commerce in 1901, showing that "while the aggregate of our exports of manufactured goods has shrunk, the variety of our sales in Europe is being extended, and the territory upon which they are encroaching is being steadily enlarged." From an encouraging account of the economic conditions of Mexico it appears that there are about 10,000 Americans in the Republic, mostly employed upon the railroads, and that American capital is becoming more deeply interested. Still, our Consul-General warns the "hundreds" of college graduates who write to him for information, that "Mexico is a bad place for a young, inexperienced man without ample funds." Railroad construction is rapidly improving the means of transportation, and "there is a healthy growth of manufacturing enterprise," there being 618 manufactories in the City of Mexico alone. The reports from France include the new Ship-Subsidy Act, passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and some interesting facts in regard to the mushroom culture in the quarries near Paris. "From 2½ to 3 tons of these cave-grown mushrooms are sent to market every day, and the total value of the trade is about $3,000,000 a year." Our Consul-General at Berlin gives some indications that the lowest point of business depression in Germany has been passed; but how dangerously near a general collapse has been is evidenced by the statement that "the loss sustained through the depreciation of bank shares alone during the past year was estimated on October 1, 1901, at 2,000,000,000 marks ($476,000,000)."

The *National Geographic Magazine* for April opens with an illustrated sketch by Dr. C. Rabot of recent French explorations in Africa, beginning with the Marchand expedition of 1897-98. Other articles relate to the proposed surveys in Alaska for the present year, of which the most important is the study of the Yukon section for the investigation of its coal veins, as the accessible timber is being exhausted; and to ocean currents, with special reference to the influence of the winds on the surface water.

"Toscanelli and Christopher Columbus," with which the *Annales de Géographie* for March opens, is a review of the arguments brought forward at the Congress of Americanists held in Paris in 1900, and since published in a voluminous book, to show that the letter of the Florentine astronomer which led to the voyage of Columbus was a forgery. M. Gallois's conclusion is that there is "nothing in the letter itself, nor in the circumstances under which it was written, which can cast doubt on its authenticity, nothing which permits us to refuse to Toscanelli the honor of having inspired the discovery of the New World." We remark, also, articles upon the structure of the Scandinavian Peninsula, and the distribution of frost in France—the fewest days (less than ten) on which frost occurs being at the opposite extremes of the country, the Riviera and the coast of Brittany. In an account of Italian East Africa the statement is made that the central region is the only part available for colonization. "The European can live there without danger from disease. the climate is healthy and agreeable, the colonist can cultivate the land himself, and cattle-raising is easy." There is an interesting description of the development of Kiao-Chau by the Germans, and some facts relating to the Russian emigration to Siberia, about 200,000 in 1900, in which are foreshadowed the extinction of the native races. The chief men of the Kirghiz, Yakuts, and Buryats, who have reached a certain stage of civilization, openly declare that the Russian colonization will bring ruin to their people.

The timely and unexcelled *Annuaire* of the Bureau des Longitudes for 1902 contains, in its appended scientific papers, one by M. Poincaré of the University on wireless telegraphy. He gives an historical résumé of underlying principles, going back to Hertz and Faraday, a brief description of the simpler forms of successful types of apparatus, a lucid presentation of the theory of wireless telegraphy, including that of the coherer, the advantages and disadvantages of wireless telegraphy, and the recent improvements of Marconi and Slaby. Marconi's transmitter and receiver are clearly figured, and the entire paper is perhaps the best brief exposition of the new method of communication yet published. M. Cornu follows with a technical article at some length on polyphase currents, and Admiral Guyou on the application of the decimal division of the circle to practical navigation. He makes out a clear case of rather obvious advantage, not only for nautical instruments, but for the more facile use of navigation tables. M. Janssen concludes with a brief note on the foundation and work of the observatory on the summit of Mont Blanc. Of the foreign members of the Bureau des Longitudes, four belong to the western hemisphere—Professor Davidson of San Francisco, Professor Newcomb of Washington, and two officers of the Brazilian navy. The *Annuaire* has at length adopted the very convenient and sensible subdivision of the day, long ago proposed, into hours numbered consecutively from one to twenty-four, doing away with the usual A. M. and P. M.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number three, is a review by Prof. W. Sievers of the published documents relating to the Franco-Brazilian boundary dispute. These are contained in fourteen volumes, of which ten are contributed by Brazil and three by France, and in five atlases of 250 maps, besides those in the text. He regards the Brazilian presentment as far superior to that of France, which has "little substance, consists largely of hypothesis, is not convincing, and is often very superficial." The volume containing the arbitrators' summing up of the evidence, the work mainly of an unnamed Swiss engineer, he characterizes as "a scientific work of the first order," which has enriched our general cartographical knowledge.

Mr. William I. Fletcher, librarian of Amherst College; Mr. Arthur E. Bostwick, Superintendent of Circulation, New York Public Library; and Mr. Ernst Lemcke of Lemcke & Buechner, New York city, a committee of the American Library Association, unite in a circular appeal to publishers of periodicals respecting indexes. The rules they lay down, and concerning which they desire to hear from anybody interested, are five in number. The first is that title-pages and tables of contents should always

accompany the number completing a volume; and another, that they should be printed separate from other printed matter, either advertising or reading. A third recommendation is more difficult, viz., abandonment of the "common practice of printing some first or last leaves of reading-matter on the same section with some pages of advertising."

The Queen Dowager of Italy has purchased the books and manuscripts of the famous poet and critic Carducci, leaving to the great scholar the undisturbed use of the library for his lifetime. The Paris *Temps*, from which we have the note, reminds its readers that in similar fashion Catharine the Great of Russia prevented the dispersion of Diderot's library.

The Sultan of Turkey has just shown his hostility to everything that tends to the enlightenment of his subjects in a way which brings him into sharp contrast with the rulers of China. For some time both governments have sent young men to foreign lands to be educated in the new methods that they may teach their own countrymen. There are 274 Chinese students in Japan alone, of whom 163, representing 12 provinces and Mantchuria, are maintained at the Government expense, and a month or two ago the Viceroy of Pechili sent 56 more to the military school of Tokio for a three years' course. Seventy Ottoman youths are being educated in Paris and Geneva, receiving annual Government pensions of from $250 to $1,500. A recent decree of the Sultan has deprived them all of these pensions, on the alleged ground that they took part in the Young Turkey Congress held in Paris a few weeks ago. This charge the students deny through the London *Times*—a denial the truth of which the Turkish Ambassador at Paris does not hesitate to confirm. He declared that he considered the decision of the Sultan to be "an act of extreme injustice, for not merely had he never denounced the Paris students as taking part in any propaganda, but he had himself testified to their exclusive devotion to their studies, their conduct having always been irreproachable and commanding the esteem of their professors and of all interested in them." The Sultan, not without reason, regards an educated Turk as his deadliest foe.

The fifty-first meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Pittsburgh, Pa., June 28 to July 3, 1902. Mr. Stewart Culin of the University of Pennsylvania will preside over the section of anthropology. Students are cordially invited to attend and contribute papers upon subjects connected with their fields of research. Several members of the section have informally expressed the desire to devote at least one day to papers and discussions on anthropological museums, their cases, methods of installation, and technique; also that papers should be offered on the more important special collections in museums both in this country and abroad. Intention to be present should be made known to Harlan I. Smith, Secretary Section H, American Museum of Natural History, New York.

—Among the interesting events of the recent Johns Hopkins celebration was a banquet to the veteran philologian, Professor Gildersleeve, the chief feature of which was the presentation of a volume of philological studies in commemoration of his seventieth birthday (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press). The contributors were, of course, his former pupils. The studies, occupying more than five hundred pages, give a fair index of the range of philological interest stimulated by Professor Gildersleeve's labors. The place of distinction at the head of the volume is given to Professor Briggs of the Union Theological Seminary, who applies to the study of the Apostolic Commission the light thrown upon early Christianity by recent critical investigation of the Gospels and the book of Acts. The current tendency to depreciate the work of Matthew Arnold appears to some extent in a paper by Dr. Mustard of Haverford College, on Homeric Echoes in "Balder Dead." The realm of English literature is touched at another point in a study of the Technic of Shakspere's Sonnets, by Prof. Thomas R. Price of Columbia University. The thought worked out is that the biographical theory, with all its dark mysteries, has broken down of its own weight, and that we are to find in the sonnets rather a record of the poet's early training in the realm of the imagination for the dramas that were to come, the characters employed being "so placed in a series of imaginary situations as to exhibit, in the widest possible range of emotion, the full play of the human soul." Of the papers dealing with topics from classical antiquity, a considerable number display that broader interest which is the cherished ideal of Professor Gildersleeve himself, while others lie towards that extreme of minute statistical investigation at which he has hurled so many a dart from his redoubt in the "Brief Mention" department of the *American Journal of Philology*. A few of the papers are historical rather than linguistic or literary in their bearing, such as Dr. Christopher Johnston's study of the Fall of the Assyrian Empire, and that of Dr. C. A. Savage on the Athenian in his Relations to the State. On the whole, the volume is a tribute in which Professor Gildersleeve may well take a legitimate pride; and the wide geographical distribution of the scholars from whom the individual papers come, is another reminder of the part which Johns Hopkins University is playing in American collegiate and university education.

—Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower, whose interest in art and antiquities has already been shown by numerous writings, now publishes two very handsome volumes on 'The Tower of London' (Macmillan). We refer first to the guise of the work, because even in this day of good printing and profuse illustrations it is sure to catch the attention. The photogravures are excellent, and out of a wealth of material the choice of subjects has been well made. The only possible cavil to be raised on this score is that the plates, by reason of their great number, render the book a little difficult to read. In dodging about among the illustrations, it is sometimes hard to find the text. We must be careful, however, to state that the descriptive part is not mere letterpress. In his general manner of treatment, Lord Gower has carefully avoided the strain of Mr. Harrison Ainsworth, on the ground, as he expressly states, that "a book which professes to be a history must not be a hotch-potch of truth and fiction." In his effort to secure accuracy he has, if anything, been too punctilious. While no one would suggest the introduction of legends in such a book, save as legends, there is the other danger of becoming too bald. The author is clearly an antiquarian rather than an historian or a picturesque essayist; but when once the reader has grasped this fact, he will find cause for satisfaction in many features of the narrative. If the style is never very animated, it is categorical and direct. Many curious facts about many different persons are brought together in a comparatively brief space, not without some misprints and errors of detail (for of these we have observed several), but in such wise as to have a value which is quite independent of the illustrations. The longest chapter by a good deal, and the most valuable, is the first. In it are described the various buildings which constitute the Tower group—the White Tower, the Lion Tower, the Middle Tower, the Byward Tower, etc.—and thus, step by step, the evolution of the whole pile is traced. As it is a fairly intricate piece of topography, this account should be of considerable assistance to those who may wish to know about the most remarkable building of its kind in Europe. The historical part of the text is mainly occupied with noticing the political offenders who have been imprisoned from generation to generation within the Tower. The first volume covers the Norman, Plantagenet, and Stuart periods; the second is devoted to the Stuarts and the Hanoverians.

—'Peter III., Emperor of Russia,' by R. Nisbet Bain (Dutton), is "the story of a crisis and a crime." While in form a biography, it may more properly be called an account of certain exciting events which occurred at the Russian court during the first six months of 1762. The Emperor himself is a most unpromising subject for the historian. The admirers of Catharine II. may have gone too far in accusing him of imbecility and depravity, but if not imbecile he was unbalanced, and if not depraved he was immoral. Mr. Bain, who thinks that he should not "be stigmatized as a mere idiot," calls him notoriously unfit to rule an empire. He was, in truth, a neurotic wreck, by the sight of whose misfortunes sympathy must be awakened rather than contempt or reprobation. Mingled with much that is painful and tragic in his career, there is a touch of the ridiculous. His admiration for Frederick of Prussia went so far that he insisted on compelling regiments which had just succeeded in driving Frederick from the field to adopt Prussian drill, and at St. Petersburg he sought feebly to reproduce the life of Berlin and Potsdam. Ridiculous as all this may seem, it constitutes a political fact of grave importance. What would have been the fate of Germany had Frederick been beaten and Prussia crushed in the course of the Seven Years' War? And the contingency was not so remote when Paul III. abandoned the policy of his predecessor, and, in the midst of a desperate conflict, exchanged the Austrian for the Prussian alliance. Here we reach the crisis to which the second title of Mr. Bain's volume refers. "The reign of Peter III. coincides with perhaps the most acute diplomatic crisis, not merely in the history

of Russia, but in the history of Europe during the eighteenth century. I allude, of course, to the imminent collapse of the Prussian monarchy at the beginning of 1762—a catastrophe only and hardly averted by the enthusiastic devotion of the new Russian Emperor to Frederick the Great." Peter III. began to reign in January, 1762, and he was assassinated just after the middle of July. Thus his opportunity to influence the destiny of nations was limited by months, and even by weeks. While there has been no disposition on the part of historians to neglect the importance of Russia's *volte-face* during this reign, Mr. Bain is quite justified in stating that the episode has not yet been treated with any degree of fulness by English writers. Drawing from Russian sources, of which he gives a critical account, he has succeeded in closing up this gap. Although Peter's diplomacy is made the most conspicuous topic, there is a clear account of the measures and demeanor by which he aroused the hostility of his subjects, both gentle and simple. Under the circumstances his assassination was a foregone conclusion, and it excited no great horror. Catherine II.. is, of course, a prominent figure, but Mr. Bain adds little to our present knowledge of her. As a monograph on the diplomatic history of 1762 this essay deserves to be known and used.

—Thomas Wolsey, Legate and Reformer,' by Father Ethelred L. Taunton (Lane), is a book which is recommended at first glance by the beauty of its print and illustrations. Proceeding past these, it soon becomes clear that the author is a devoted admirer of Wolsey, of whom he says without qualification: "Wolsey stands out as the greatest statesman England has ever produced; and it is not going beyond what records reveal if we say that his was the master-mind of the age." Such a statement might call forth a vast amount of comment if one were not seeking merely to indicate the spirit in which a particular treatise is conceived. But it is not the political aspect of Wolsey's career which Father Taunton places in the foreground of his book. He is quite willing to accept Brewer's verdict on the secular work of the Cardinal. His own contribution to this period of Tudor history centres about Wolsey's ecclesiastical achievements. In other words, Father Taunton seeks to strengthen the position at precisely the point which has hitherto been deemed weakest. "In [Brewer's] 'The Reign of Henry VIII.,' Wolsey's work as an ecclesiastic is entirely passed over; and in all biographies, even the most recent, the same omission is to be found. This is strange, for, although Wolsey's name stands high as a statesman, he has as high a claim to be known as a great Churchman. He certainly need not fear an examination both close and severe, for he emerges from the ordeal with increased splendor." In coming to details, the question which naturally attracts the most notice is that of the Cardinal's attitude toward reform. As Father Taunton outlines his programme, it involved an improvement in the educational advantages of the clergy, the establishment of new bishoprics in the large towns, and a visitation of the monasteries. The need of dogmatic revision was apparently unrecognized. Father Taunton asks: "If in that hour of the Church's need, the clear-minded and far-seeing Wolsey had sat in St. Peter's chair, and had ruthlessly set his knife to cut away the abuses that were stifling life, might not the religious history of Europe have been a brighter page?" Here it is pretty plainly implied that Wolsey might have averted the Protestant revolution. He certainly was a clever statesman, and his ministry forms an era in the history of England's relations with the Continent, but something was required besides visitations and educational endowments to meet the religious crisis of the sixteenth century. Though Father Taunton speaks in a very candid way about many features of the situation, he does not seem to have a clear grasp of the main issue. At more than one point, also, the material appears to be thin and drawn out. Altogether, the present work falls somewhat below the standard which the same writer has set in his earlier books on the religious history of England.

—Prof. Charles Dejob of the University of Paris, whose Italian studies are for the most part distinguished for their erudition and acute criticism, has been doing much interesting work of late in connection with the types and characters which figure in the literature of France and Italy during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; and, in his 'Études sur la Tragédie' and 'Les Femmes dans la Comédie Française et Italienne au XVIIIe Siècle' (Paris: Colin), the evolution of these types in literature received serious attention for the first time. His latest addition to this series of studies, 'Les Professions et l'Opinion Publique dans la Littérature Française,' has just been reprinted from the *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France*, the chief organ of French literary scholarship, in which it originally appeared. The interest of the artist in men, not merely as human beings, but as members of certain trades or professions, is here the central theme. Except in Homer, this interest is given little scope in Greek literature, and the rôle of the artisan is very slight in the Georgics of Virgil, in which the husbandman might easily have been expected to assume considerable prominence. M. Dejob indicates, briefly but trenchantly, how certain types originated in the literature of the Middle Ages, and were developed and crystallized during the Renaissance. Some of these were accepted by Molière; others, like the pedant and the braggart soldier, were eliminated by him from French comedy. The evolution of these types is carried by M. Dejob through the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, from Mercier and Diderot to Balzac and Dumas *fils*.

—Any one who examines closely the curves representing the varying spotted area of the sun will find that no two successive cycles are alike, either in area or in form. Individuality of cycle seems to be repeated after a certain time; and this peculiarity, coupled with a like variation in magnetic curves, together with suspected cycles in terrestrial phenomena, has led to a new investigation of the whole subject by Dr. W. J. S. Lockyer, assistant director of the Solar Physics Observatory, Kensington. Next to Schwabe, the eminent and original discoverer of sun-spot periodicity, over sixty years ago, comes the late Dr. Rudolph Wolf of Zürich, who, from an exhaustive study of the spots down to the year 1876, determined that these markings on the solar disk passed through nine complete cycles every century. But he was careful to state, also, that, while the average length of the period was eleven and one-ninth years, there might be variations of as much as two years from this value in individual cases. Into the character of these secondary variations, Dr. Lockyer has sought to penetrate; and he finds, first, that the actual epoch of maximum spots, relative to the preceding minimum, oscillates round the mean value, its greatest amplitude averaging 0.8 year. Finally he is led to the conclusion that, underlying the ordinary sun-spot period of about eleven years, there is another prominently marked cycle of more than three times its length, namely, thirty-five years. Not only does this cycle alter the time of occurrence of maxima in relation to preceding minima, but it is also responsible for changes in the total spotted area of the sun, from one eleven-year period to another. This secular period harmonizes completely with Brückner's well-established period of variation in the climates over the whole earth, and with Richter's observed variations of Alpine glaciers.

THROUGH RUSSIAN TURKESTAN.

À travers le Turkestan Russe. Par Hugues Krafft. With 265 illustrations from photographs by the author, and a map. Paris: Hachette. 1902. 4to.

This is a beautiful book to look at, without and within. It is finely bound, well printed on paper comfortable to eye and touch. Its heliogravure and in-text illustrations are perfect works of reproduction from uniformly good negatives. As a book to be read, to be learnt from, it is less praiseworthy; is, in fact, somewhat thin—the notes of a tourist rather than the observations of a traveller—pleasantly written, indeed, lucidly arranged, but not thorough in any respect. Yet with such and so many fine illustrations the text is of admittedly secondary importance. The plates with accompanying notes would have justified the volume's existence, and if the reader chooses to regard the text as mere notes to the plates, he will have small further cause for hostile criticism.

Turkestan (Russian and Chinese), and all the broad fesse of territory that traverses the great Asiatic shield between Siberia above and the Indies below, is a country of deserts and oases, of great plains and high mountain ranges. Perhaps in no brief phrase is the spirit of the region better expressed than in

> "With me along the strip of herbage strown
> That just divides the desert from the sown."

It is the juxtaposition of watered oases and desert settings that the traveller remembers as the essential quality of the land—the swift exchange of fertility for barrenness. No photographs and few descriptions can translate this effect for an untravelled reader. The long, burning desert must be traversed in physical weariness before the joy of the oasis can be known; and the confinement of the oasis must be experienced before the delightful freedom of the desert and the steppe can be realized. The true life of central Asia is in the exchange between "desert" and "sown." Turkestan,

in this book, is all oases, all fertility, an umbrageous land, a garden full of houses, mosques, and ruins. Neither desert nor steppe enters its pages. There are none of the great expanses, blistering under the sunshine or swept by bitter winds, that the old travellers before railroad days made familiar to us in the tales of their sufferings. Nor are we shown many mountains in this region of ranges, only a peak or two in the background of Samarkand. We look in vain for the great glaciers, for the splintered rock-walls and mighty bastions of Turkestan's fortress enceinte. None of these things appear. The traveller went by train and stopped only at populated resorts, the centres of the larger, fertile areas; it is only of them, therefore, that he can tell us.

He chats pleasantly about the new Russian settlements beside the ancient cities, like the cantoonments in India, "toujours encadrés de végétation." Tashkent, he says, is most European, Samarkand prettiest. He chats, too, about the old cities, whereof Tashkent is the biggest, Samarkand the most utterly destroyed, in that awful three days of Russian fury about which so little was ever said. The old arts, we learn, are rapidly fading away, the old handicrafts disappearing, just as the bazaars are being knocked down to make way for wide straight open streets. Fortunately, the bazaars of Bokhara are still intact and beautiful as of old, but their day will come soon. Our grandchildren will hardly have a chance, in any part of the East, to behold the wonder of the ancient Oriental places of trade thronged with folk in all manner of costumes, and stricken by shafts of sunlight through holes in the roof. In the old independent days the turbulent little states of central Asia had their courts and their khans; and in each city was a fortress palace. Only the palace of Kokand remains, a poor thing, built crudely in the old style in mid-nineteenth century. The lost palaces in their day were doubtless splendid. Tamerlane lived in style, one may be sure; but of Tamerlane's abode no trace remains. There is a modern fort on its site.

In mosques and mosque ruins we are more fortunate. There are mosques of several kinds—ordinary places of worship, tomb-mosques, and university mosques (called Madrassahs). The university mosques were the most famous and the biggest, for, under Tamerlane and his fifteenth-century successors, Samarkand was made a great centre of Mussulman learning, and still retains living traditions of the sort. These great buildings—mosques of the three sorts—were far more numerous once than they are now. The earth has shaken many of them down in its uneasiness. Great overthrows have happened in late years and others are impending. There is the wonderful university mosque, Bibi Khanum, for instance, built by or in the time of Tamerlane out of the spoils of India. Little more remains of it but heaps of débris and one great arch, like New York's new cathedral in its embryo stage. Some day New York's cathedral will be a ruin in its turn—let us hope a ruin as venerated and as picturesque as Bibi Khanum. Who has not heard of the Gur Amir, wherein Tamerlane lies amidst his family and near the holy man whose words he reverenced? A superb blue dome, melon-ribbed, covers them. Some distance away is Shah Zinda, a royal cemetery or assemblage of tomb-mosques, built by Tamerlane and his successors of the fifteenth century. The three mosques of the Rigistan—the great square of Samarkand—must also be mentioned, one built in the fifteenth, the other two in the seventeenth century, showing a marked decadence. These are the buildings best illustrated in this book. We would gladly have sacrificed a number of the photographs of "ladies not in society" which follow, for more views of these splendid buildings, and especially for details of their wonderful decoration, now so rapidly falling into decay. All these mosques are built of gray, crude brick and adorned at important points with decoration of colored tiles. This was the style of Persia, borrowed by Iran from Mesopotamia, and first invented in ancient Babylonia.

If you wish to find what was the true local style of architecture, it is not to these royal buildings you must turn, but to the mosques of the smaller towns and villages. They are built of brick and have no tiles, but depend for decoration upon the porticos and galleries of wood attached to them. The Ferghana mosques of this type remind our author of certain Buddhist temples of China. To us they are strikingly reminiscent of the village mosques of the Hindu Kush and Karakoram valleys, such as one finds as far south as the ridge bounding the Vale of Kashmir and as far east as the Buddhist margin in Little Tibet. We were struck by the contrast between these and the Buddhist buildings, when erected within a few miles of one another. These small wooden and mud-brick mosques are in the true Central Asian style, faintly reminiscent of Greek buildings, one might say, but doubtless of purely local and independent origin. Their characteristic feature is a long wooden portico or veranda, running the whole length of the front of the edifice. Within, the roof is supported by rows of wooden columns, often remarkably slender and rather fantastically shaped, supporting beams and lined parallel to the portico. These little buildings, surrounded and overshadowed by trees, stand generally beside the small open place which is all the village can spare for assembly in the midst of its precious area of cultivable ground.

It is a great pity that the descriptions of mosques in this book are in no case accompanied by plans. The descriptions themselves are too vague to be of service alone, and the photographic illustrations, however beautiful, do not suffice for complete information. It is a further misfortune that the book is not supplied with an index. Such accurate information as it contains is so scattered about that the reader who thinks himself likely to refer to the volume at any future time is compelled to make a rough index for himself as he reads. To sum up, the book is a beautiful thing to look at, and a valuable body of fine photographic records of certain centres of population in Russian Turkestan, but it is neither profound in its learning nor wide in its observation of men and art. Still, it is a book for a book-lover to buy.

THE BOOK OF THE COURTIER.

The Book of the Courtier. By Count Baldesar Castiglione. Translated from the Italian and annotated by Leonard Eckstein Opdycke. With seventy-one portraits and fifteen autographs reproduced by Edward Bierstadt. Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xiv, 439.

If the literary tastes of an age are as typical of it as its creative impulses or the great works of literature which mirror its various life, the future historian may find it not unworthy of his notice to consider the attractiveness of the Renaissance for the more exquisite of contemporary minds. The last thirty or forty years may, indeed, be said to have witnessed the "rediscovery" of the Renaissance, much in the same way as the Middle Ages were rediscovered by the earlier Romanticists of the century that has just passed. In the impulse given to this new interest, scholarship has done its share, but, in English-speaking countries at least, the name of Walter Pater must be associated with those studies which have tended more and more to give to this enthusiasm somewhat of the nature of an esoteric cult. The aristocratic temper of the times, the taste for luxury, the growth of the courtly spirit, and the new scientific ardor—all marking a reaction against the democratic ideas of the Revolution—have found in the period alike of Ariosto and Titian, of Machiavelli and Galileo, a reinforcement of their most intimate spiritual and æsthetic needs. Some of the typical books of the Renaissance have assumed anew the splendor and fame of classics, and of none is this more true than of the 'Cortegiano' of Castiglione. The Elizabethan version of Sir Thomas Hoby has been twice reprinted within a year, and a new English rendering, with annotations and a profusion of illustrations, is now presented to cultivated readers by Mr. Opdycke.

The 'Cortegiano' is a dialogue, in which the family and the retinue of the Duke of Urbino discuss the qualities of the perfect courtier. What is a courtier? What accomplishments should he possess? What is the purpose or aim of courtiership? These are the questions which the courtly interlocutors, the sprightly Emilia Pia, the Duchess Elisabeth Gonzaga, Giuliano de' Medici, Bembo, and a score of others, discuss and argue after dinner. Here the dialogue form is no mere Platonic or Ciceronian convention of the age, but gives the required opportunities for individual characterization, for *nuances* of thought and expression, and, in short, for all the artistic qualities which make of a mere social treatise a delicate and permanent work of art. These qualities are apparent in the most cursory perusal of the book itself, but some historical explanation is essential before the general reader can assume the point of view of the interlocutors, and find a more than perfunctory interest in a discussion of the courtier and of courtiership.

Each age, considering the eternal problem of the individual's relation to his social environment, develops its own ideal of perfect manhood, and more often leaves to a critical age the problem of formulating it. For secular society in the Middle Ages this problem is simple. There knighthood expresses the highest aspirations of social life. The infinite gradations of feudal society offered no common basis for individual perfection, and in the knight mediæval chivalry developed a visible symbol of ideal manhood. Forming part of a warrior class, the knight's virtues are martial virtues, courage, magnanimity, loyalty, courtesy; and of

all these honor was the touchstone. But, being a child of his age, and therefore of the Church, the knight was not merely a soldier but a Christian soldier, and chivalry borrowed from religion some of its external rites and some of its sanctified spirit. By his profession called to all parts of the world, he was essentially a wanderer, and hence arose the bastard forms of knight-errantry; but his home life was passed at the feudal courts, and from this social life there sprang the finer developments of courtesy and the system of courtly love.

Here we find the point of departure for the ideal of the next age. Feudalism, with its innumerable courts and varying gradations of society, had disintegrated through internal corruption and external action. Political concentration was the result, and the countless castles of feudal lords ceased to be important social and military centres. The life of every state was focussed on a single prince and a single court, and here alone were the opportunities for individual preferment. These are historical commonplaces, but they indicate, as is well known, the conditions under which the courtier, the ideal man of the Renaissance, gradually developed. No longer merely a warrior like the knight, the courtier yet inherited some of the martial virtues of chivalry; and the knight's amusements, which had naturally been martial, became the fashionable amusements of the courtier. With more leisure, and a single centre of interest, it followed that the courtly graces, courtesy, chivalrous love, and the like, were still further developed, and loyalty to the prince took the place of devotion to a cause. The religious element was eliminated, and, more important still, Humanism added the further grace of culture, and fused the ideal of honor with the classical ideal of glory.

As knighthood had virtually been the creation of mediæval France, so courtiership was a product of Renaissance Italy, and of this ideal the 'Cortegiano' is the complete and certainly the noblest expression. The courtier, according to Castiglione, must be proficient in letters and arms, and in all the graces and accomplishments which form part of a refined and cultivated society. He must be a lover, for love is one of the highest virtues. All this and more he must be, not solely for the sake of his own individual *virtù*, but more especially for the sake of the prince at whose court he is a courtier. This is the ideal element in Castiglione's conception—that virtues and accomplishments alike are nothing unless, working through the prince, they accomplish moral ends. But this is perhaps the dream of an idealist, and the courtier as a type is rather a man in the universal cultivation of his accomplishments, like Castiglione himself—soldier, poet, courtier, and diplomat.

The 'Cortegiano' was published by Aldus in 1528, and its success was immediate, not only in Italy, but throughout Europe. The reason is simple. The Renaissance was just beginning to permeate Transalpine life, and the two gates to the Renaissance were Humanism and the courtly spirit. That Humanism alone was not sufficient is shown by the case of Germany, where there was no true Renaissance because the courtly spirit was absent. The Renaissance in Spain virtually begins with Boscan's classical rendering of the 'Cortegiano' in 1534, in France with Colin's in 1537, in England with Hoby's splendid version in 1561. Sir Philip Sidney consciously modelled his life according to the ideals of the book, and, like Castiglione, he represents the full flower of courtiership in its harmonious development of graces, accomplishments, and virtues.

Sidney and Castiglione were both beautiful spirits, yet there never dwelt on sea or land a courtier like that in the mind of either. Such a courtier was, after all, an ideal, and many cultivated men felt how far short of this ideal fell the actual life of courts. Spenser, in one of the noblest passages of the 'Faerie Queene' (book ii., canto iii., stanzas 37-42), rejects some of the essential elements of the courtly ideal, returns to the finer spirit of chivalry, and recommends the quest of honor "in woods, in waves, in warres." The ideal no longer chimed with men's conceptions of perfect manhood, and Spain, in introducing new modes of honor, courtesy, and love, was next to add its share to the spiritual life of Europe. It is beyond our province to show how the gallant succeeded the courtier; how the former was first completely developed in France from the beginning of the seventeenth century; and how, at the Hôtel de Rambouillet and the salons of other women, the martial element was almost wholly discarded for an ideal of gallantry and culture. It is also beyond our province to show how, after dominating social life for two centuries, the gallant succumbed to the democratic influences of the Revolution, and in the new conception of the "gentleman" England added to the ideal of honor, which expresses what is due to ourselves, the nobler ideal of duty, or what is due to others. Of all these shifting conceptions of knight, courtier, gallant, and gentleman, the second alone has received adequate expression in an interpretative work of literature—the ideal of the courtier in the 'Cortegiano' of Castiglione.

Nothing of all this, however, appears in Mr. Opdycke's volume, which suffers in this way from the lack of an introductory essay. The critical apparatus at the end of the book consists of an excellent bibliography, a two-page life of Castiglione, and about a hundred pages of notes. The last, which are chiefly explanatory of the proper names in the text, make us wonder what Mr. Opdycke conceives to be the duty of an editor, or what audience he is addressing, when he thinks it necessary to devote rather long notes to such names as Catullus (p. 346), Sappho and Pindar (p. 391), Aristotle (p. 414), Aspasia (p. 361), Procrustes, Diomed, and Antæus (p. 412), Prometheus (p. 408), Themistocles, Lycurgus, Hasdrubal, Sardanapalus, Henry VIII., Pygmalion, and a host of other names familiar to the schoolboy of twelve or thirteen. Fully a third of the annotative matter is thus made up, and much of the rest is of rather flimsy scholarship. Serafino dell' Aquila (p. 373) is, according to Mr. Opdycke, "identified by Cian" as a forgotten Neapolitan poet, in the same way, we suppose, that Mr. Opdycke himself has "identified" Aristotle and Henry VIII. The 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili' (p. 405) "is said to be," what every scholar ought to know it is, a mixture of Humanism and allegory.

Mr. Opdycke succeeds better as a translator. His rendering is fluent and at times not without grace; literally, it is accurate, but the accuracy is of the sort that can most easily be attained with the aid of an Italian reviser. The delicate shades of Castiglione's thought and expression Mr. Opdycke does not often render. A single example of this (pp. 288, 289) will suffice. In Bembo's splendid Platonic rhapsody on love towards the end of the 'Cortegiano,' man is credited with three modes of perception: sense, from which springs the physical appetite, which man has in common with brutes; reason, from which arises choice (*elezione*), man's natural condition; and intellect, from which springs will, by which he is able to commune with the angels. Naturally in the mediocre stage of reason, man can choose between brute sense and angelic will; or, as Mr. Opdycke translates the passage, "Being by nature rational and placed as a mean between these two extremes, man is able at will [*per sua elezione*], by descending to sense or mounting to intellect, to turn his desires now in the one direction and now in the other." "At will" is not an inaccurate translation of the original phrase, which means more strictly "by his own choice"; but it should have been perceived how the use of the word "will" creates a confusion of the second stage, or choice, with the third stage, or will.

He must be a churlish and ungrateful reviewer, however, who would not thank Mr. Opdycke for the taste and care exhibited in other than scholarly matters. This is a beautiful book, bound in full vellum, stamped in gold with Castiglione's seal, charmingly printed by the De Vinne Press on the richest paper, and profusely illustrated with autographs and an interesting array of contemporary portraits. Binding, typography, proof-reading, illustrations, and general arrangement alike display the zeal and the discretion with which the book has been put together. The illustrations really illustrate, and in themselves make the book worth possessing. But this, after all, is the mood of dilettantism—to consider the externals with infinite care and to allow content and spirit to take care of themselves. Or, as the English poet for whom the 'Cortegiano' meant most, has put it:

> "For like a child that some fair book doth find,
> With gilded leaves or colored vellum plays,
> Or, at the most, on some fine picture stays,
> But never heeds the fruit of writer's mind."

Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction. By Charles H. McCarthy. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1901.

For many reasons the present time may be regarded as favorable for writing the history of Reconstruction. The anger and hatred aroused by the civil war have burned themselves out, and sectional jealousy and hostility have ceased to be openly manifested, even if they have not altogether disappeared. At the same time, there are many living who personally recollect the controversies of that troubled period, and who will read whatever is written of them with enlightened and critical interest. We cannot, however, agree with Mr. McCarthy in the view that his work, so far at least as concerns any logical exposition, conducts the reader over untravelled ground. In fact, we are rather inclined to regard the work as peculiarly weak in logical exposition, while the ground over which it conducts us, even if untravelled, is to a great extent not worth travelling over. The space devoted specifically to the exposition of

Lincoln's plan is small, and we learn neither how far that plan was deliberately thought out, nor whether Lincoln would have been likely to modify it because of opposition in his party.

We should have been glad, also, to have some comparative estimate of the different plans of construction, some criticism from a constitutional point of view, in place of the minute detail of incidents which, while exciting enough, are not indispensable to our comprehension of the period. Mr. McCarthy hardly appreciates the distinction between history and annals, and he has not acquired the art of condensing debates. A great deal of space is wasted on utterly unimportant things. Why should we have to read that "Mr. Perry of New Jersey spoke of the duration of the war, predicted the general bankruptcy which its great expense would bring about, and calculated that in eleven years the cost of the war would equal the assessed value of property"? Or that "Fernando Wood declared that he had listened with interest and pleasure to words of conciliation from the South," and was followed by Mr. Le Blond of Ohio, whose speech added nothing of value to what had been said before? Our thoughts are not widened by information that "the speech of Mr. Williams was marked by considerable fluency," or that Senator Trumbull replied to Senator Howe, who was not in his seat. We might as well be told what o'clock it was, and whether the day was sunny. History is not written in this way.

We comment on these defects with severity because they spoil what might have been a good book. They fatigue and distract the attention. Had Mr. McCarthy reduced the bulk of his extracts one-half, he would have doubled their value. Had he worked over his notes, and given us their real meaning, we should have seen clearly the great issues, instead of having to grope after them. Nevertheless, we must acknowledge our indebtedness for a useful compilation, and when we have winnowed out the chaff, we find a substantial residuum.

The theory adopted by Mr. Lincoln was necessary, in his opinion, as a logical justification of the war. In his view, to assert that the Southern States were no longer in the Union, was to make "the fatal admission that States, whenever they please, may, of their own motion, dissolve their connection with the Union." He did not think the Union could survive that admission, saying: "If that be true, I am not President; these gentlemen are not Congress." He justified his emancipation proclamation as an act of war, but did not think that Congress had any Constitutional power to prohibit slavery in the States. Hence he was anxious to have slavery prohibited by Constitutional amendment, and, in order to obtain the required number of votes, he desired to restore loyal government in some of the States. This he thought he could do under the clause which declares that the United States shall guarantee the States a republican form of government, and he used his power as commander of the army to set up governments whose *de-facto* existence might in the rapid course of events cause their *de-jure* weakness to be overlooked.

According to this theory, a government established by a very small minority of the people of any State might be republican in form. In his message of December 8, 1863, Mr. Lincoln said, "An attempt to guarantee and protect a revived State Government, constructed in whole or in preponderating part from the very element against whose hostility and violence it is to be protected, is absurd." But he was willing to allow those who had participated in the rebellion, with certain exceptions, to take an oath of allegiance and of recognition of various acts of Congress and Executive proclamations, and thereupon to take part in restoring republican government. He announced that whenever, in any State in rebellion, one-tenth of the number of voters at the general election of 1860 should form a government which was in harmony with this oath, he would recognize it as the true government of that State. Governments created after this plan in Tennessee, Louisiana, and Arkansas were held by him to be legal. He appears to have considered that, as Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United States, he might, while war continued, guarantee republican government without the aid of Congress.

President Johnson, it may be observed at this point, tried to carry out this theory after the war was over, and did what Lincoln had called absurd in practically allowing new governments to be formed by "unreconstructed" rebels. The fact that peace had been restored made the theory untenable, if Congress refused to concur with the President. The "guarantee" of the Constitution was to be given by the United States, and not by the Executive alone; and while the Executive guarantee might suffice in time of war without confirmation by Congress, it was void in time of peace when repudiated by that body.

Probably Lincoln would have had his way if he had lived; and it might have been better for the South and for the negro. He was determined that slavery should be ended, and would have been glad to have the suffrage given to such of the blacks as were qualified. In the end, political power gravitated to the most powerful class, and the Congressional scheme of reconstruction came to grief. When the former rebels finally grasped the reins of government, they had been exasperated by the rule of the "carpetbaggers," and took revenge on the blacks, who had been demoralized by having the responsibilities of government thrust upon them. In fact, the Congressional theory was impracticable. If the Southern States had "committed suicide," and were to be treated as conquered territory, they ought to have had a military government. Governments by minority rule could not be stable, and they required military support from the beginning.

Lincoln's governments, it is true, had this weakness, but they would have served the great end of getting rid of slavery by formally Constitutional methods; and this was what Lincoln chiefly desired. Probably he overestimated the number of loyalists in the South; but it is at least conceivable that the conservative elements in society might have taken up the work of government in better spirit on the close of the war than after a period of outrageous misrule. No doubt there would have been trouble with Congress; but Lincoln was so strong with the people that he might have prevailed. He had displayed his policy; he had practically vetoed a Congressional measure adverse to it; and he had been triumphantly reëlected. His death and the folly of his successor gave his opponents their opportunity; but the manner in which they used it does not fall within the scope of this book, and need not here be reviewed.

Memoirs and Letters of Sir James Paget. Edited by Stephen Paget, One of his Sons. With portraits and other illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. 429.

The name of Sir James Paget has been familiar as that of the great surgeon and perhaps the pioneer pathologist of England, whose writings marked the transition from the older to the newer doctrines, such as had then been heard of in Germany alone. Few persons, however, have been aware of the interest which attaches to his early years, and the portion of the above Memoir which treats of this period is that which is likely to excite special attention in the lay reader. Although Paget's life was passed so largely in seclusion and was barren of striking social or political "events," the narrative of it reveals to an unusual degree the building up and working out of a remarkably fine, strong character and a very keen intelligence. The history of privations borne with constant and cheerful patience, of unremitting and well-directed labor, and of final success—not unsought, indeed, but which would not have been welcomed had it not been felt to have been fairly won—is warmed and lightened by the story of domestic problems, sorrows, and joys. As one reads, it is easy to feel himself bodily transported to the quiet quadrangle of St. Bartholomew's, where so many of Paget's early years were spent, and impossible not to feel morally lifted to a high plane of thought. Paget's characteristics of strength, purity, fine intelligence, and balanced judgment were shared by his parents and his brothers, so that this was, in a great measure, a case where the stem was strong because the root was sound and the stock good. Nevertheless, it would be to miss the moral of his life if we overlooked the extent to which incessant training and cultivation were responsible for each stage in the continuous progress.

Born in 1814, at Yarmouth, he spent the first four and a half years of his medical life as apprentice to Mr. Costerton, an active and energetic local practitioner, and next went on to London, intending to pass a limited period in further study at St. Bartholomew's, one of the several London medical schools which were then on a relatively poor basis, and were struggling with difficulties within and without to maintain their footing. Here, even while still a student, he worked so ardently that he soon became recognized as a fit candidate for recognition and for promotion, which, however, was long and weary years in coming. Meantime his father's resources failed, and it devolved more and more upon the sons, themselves hardly earning more than enough for a bare subsistence, to keep the family in comfort, and to pay the debts which soon arose. Not until 1861—that is, until nearly thirty years after Paget's first

arrival in London—were these debts finally paid. That whole period was one of continuous struggle, lightened by many encouragements, nevertheless, and by the growing recognition of Paget's merits among scientific men. He had, too, the unfailing help of Miss North, to whom he was engaged for eight years, and whom he married so soon as his appointment to the wardenship of the collegiate department of Bartholomew's Hospital (a department instituted largely at his solicitation) gave him the means of looking a little further ahead. From first to last his relations with his wife were remarkably happy. "No human wisdom," he says, "could have devised a step so wise as was this rash engagement," contracted at a time when his future, to judge from outward signs, was wholly uncertain.

It is noteworthy that the ambitious young student began very early to observe for himself, and throughout his life he prized the memory of the influences that had fostered this tendency. As an amateur botanist, he had acquired the habits of careful observation and preparation of specimens which enabled him to put the museum work of St. Bartholomew's on a new basis, and had gained a confidence in his power to *see* things which other people only *looked at*, that remained one of his strongest scientific characteristics, and made him the first English pathologist of his day. From being Curator of the Museum he was advanced, after several disappointments, to a lectureship, then to a wardenship, finally to the assistant-surgeoncy. At last there came the long anticipated period of private practice, with its early years of patient waiting and its final shower of honors. During the seven years after obtaining his diploma, his largest income from practice was £23 13s., and not until he had been a surgeon sixteen years had it ever exceeded £100. Finally, it began to rise, and went on increasing until it had exceeded £10,000 a year. Then, he says, he gave up operating, and it fell at once to £7,000 and slowly decreased further.

The lighter phases of life found little place in the midst of Paget's arduous toils. Even as a boy he had cared more for his botany than for his sports, and in his maturer years the pleasures of London went on around him almost without his knowledge. Nevertheless, he had a disposition sensitive to pleasure as well as to pain, and was ever equipped for using each moment of leisure for enjoyment of every quiet sort that came to his hand. In later years, when for the first time his income allowed him to take vacations, his pleasure in the sight of foreign lands was unbounded. Obscurely as he lived when young, the wiser men whom he met picked him out very early as one bound to win in the race, and, before he died, his list of friends, both personal and scientific, was long and varied.

This volume consists largely of an autobiographical memoir, written when Paget was about seventy years old, and of extracts from his letters. The contributions made by his son carry on the story interestingly and intelligently, except that the changes of style and the overlapping are occasionally somewhat disconcerting. The make-up of the book, and the illustrations, are admirable.

Frederick the Great on Kingcraft. From the original MS. With reminiscences and Turkish stories. By Sir J. William Whittall, President of the British Chamber of Commerce of Turkey. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. viii, 236.

The title of this book is of the kind that reverses the real contents. What we actually have in it is a very living, garrulous, and amusing account of an English family in the Levant, how they came to be there, what happened to them there, and how Turkey and the Turks strike the writer. Early in the last century his grandfather settled in Smyrna and married the daughter of a French refugee. Through his marriage he was brought into close relations with France and French refugees of all shades of respectability and politics, and especially with Marshal Savary, the Duke of Rovigo, who was thrice in hiding in his house in Smyrna. On another side this marriage made him the head of a Venetian family which dated back to the twelfth century. With such ramifications and connections, the life even of an English nineteenth-century merchant could be eventful enough. And so, between the wars of Napoleon, the perpetual Turkish squabbles, and the revolutionary movement of 1848, it was in this case. Of it, however, we are not given here any detailed chronicle, but simply such scraps of reminiscence as an old man might jot down or tell over for the amusement of his descendants. So Richard Cobden and the Sultan Abd al-Aziz, Fouché and Savary, the Prussian navy when it consisted of a single vessel and had a Dutch admiral and a Swedish captain, and, above all, Turks—from brigands in simple to High Commissioners *in excelsis*—roll along anecdotally through these pages. The effect is of after-dinner talk, and has salt of its own. The later part drifts over, as such talk naturally would, from anecdotes to tales, edifying and otherwise, scraps of folklore, of Turkish popular wisdom in parabolic form, and, especially, of selections from the stories of the undying and inexhaustible Khoja Nasr ad-Din, the national butt, buffoon, and philosopher of the Osmanlis—Handy Andy, Aesop and Rabelais, with a squinting brain. All goes to illustrate Turkish thought and ways, and for that will be much more to the purpose than many learned volumes. Only, Sir William Whittall must not think that his stories are new outside of Turkey. They have probably all appeared already in English in some form or other. Nor must he think that his facetious Yankee had necessarily plundered him of the story of Hassan. The hunchback who falls among fairies, dances with them, shouting a chant of the days of the week, and is rewarded by losing his hump, is a *lieu commun* in folklore, from Brittany to China.

But, for all this, the title has a fair justification. On the cover the Prussian eagle glares and gasps in gold, and, certainly, part of the book is calculated to make all loyal Prussians glare and gasp too. The notorious 'Matinées,' truly or falsely of Frederick the Great, have often been printed before, but never by an acknowledged editor from a known MS. with an authenticated genealogy and with *bona fides* guaranteed. Up to a certain point, the *bona fides* in this case cannot be doubted. That Savary in 1816, when he was in hiding at Smyrna, showed the grandfather of the present editor a MS. of the 'Matinées' and allowed him to take a copy of it; that he professed to have stolen that MS. from Frederick's apartment at Sans Souci when he was there in 1807 with Napoleon; that the present edition is a faithful reproduction of that MS.—all that may be accepted as certain. The point is the *bona fides* of Savary. To his credit is to be set that he was ashamed of the theft, and exacted a promise that the MS. should not be published in the lifetime of either of them; also, that he evidently believed it to be a MS. of the first importance, for he carried it with him even when an otherwise empty-handed fugitive. If Savary was himself deceived, then the problem remains how this MS. came to lie in the writing-table drawer of Frederick, in his apartment where everything had been religiously respected since his death.

So far only, this book puts the controversy on a new footing. The matter of internal evidence remains as before. We have still our choice between Carlyle's immaculate Frederick and the author of these cynical and worldly-wise counsels. Carlyle's hero-king, it is true, is fast fading as his Cromwell has faded, and it is not now so difficult to bear up against the lurid rhetoric and ponderous sarcasm with which he assailed the 'Matinées' and all who were foolish enough to read them. Rhetoric passes, but facts remain, and the present edition undoubtedly adds to the burden of facts adverse to Carlyle's conception. And there is, too, the never answered question, Where, in the eighteenth century, was the man who could have created this character of a pseudo-Frederick?

The Ethnic Trinities and their Relations to the Christian Trinity: A Chapter in the Comparative History of Religions. By Levi Leonard Paine, Waldo Professor of Ecclesiastical History in Bangor Theological Seminary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901.

Like our author's 'Critical History of Trinitarianism,' this is an astonishing book to proceed from the Professor of Ecclesiastical History in a theological school which has had the reputation, heretofore, of being unspotted from the world of modern thought. The heresy of Professor Gilbert's book, which cost him his chair in the Chicago Theological Seminary, was inappreciable in comparison with the heresy of Professor Paine's, which compares the Christian Trinity with the ethnic trinities, to the former's partial disadvantage; views the Bible as a purely human collection of imperfect writings; regards the wonder-stories attaching to the birth and death of Jesus as deserving no credence; assigns to Jesus a purely human nature; and, in short, denies to Christianity any supernatural character whatsoever. Interesting and important as the book is, considered as the individual product of a learned orthodox professor, it is much more so considered as a sign of the times, for it is no isolated product, though it is marked by a preëminent frankness and audacity. The wonder is how long the process can continue without some realignment of the theological forces such as that which followed a similar condition of affairs some eighty years ago. The trouble seems to be that there is not now any party relatively

orthodox enough to put on the screws and squeeze out the heretics.

Quite apart from its significance in this regard, and its demand for a new Christianity that shall be wholly unsectarian and undogmatic, Professor Paine's study of the various ethnic trinities is of great value, and the more entertaining because he does not resist the temptation to give an occasional side glance across from India and Persia to the "social trinity" which is a late device for saving something from the general wreck. We have, first, a "Preliminary Survey," which is a brilliant summary of the main positions of the book. This is followed by a chapter on "The Special Causes of the Rise of the Ethnic Trinities." We have here a denial of any primitive sense of the sacredness of certain numbers, in particular the number three, or any crude perception that the godhead has necessarily some kind of three-fold character. It is at this point that the "social trinity" is denounced as "the most illogical and fatuous" of all trinitarian theories. There is certainly, thinks Professor Paine, no evidence that such considerations had weight with the framers of the ethnic trinities. His own persuasion is that these were naturalistic, and that generative and mediatorial ideas were dominant in them. This opinion is worked out carefully and persuasively. A very interesting particular is that of the occasional transposition of the different members of these trinities. The son, especially, has a tendency to assume the father's place. We are advised that the Christian Trinity has exhibited a similar tendency, the Son displacing the Father in popular reverence, and (in Roman Catholic worship) the Virgin gaining on the Son and quite obliterating the Holy Spirit. We read of a Roman Catholic movement, now on foot, to place the Virgin formally on a level with the members of the Trinity, making of it a quaternity of which the Virgin would practically be the head.

The Hindu Brahmanic trinity has a chapter to itself; so, too, the Persian Zoroastrian. The Zoroastrian development is particularly interesting. Professor Paine does not incline to the opinion of Darmesteter that Zoroaster was a mythical character. Here the trinitarian development was never quite complete. The idea once commonly entertained by Avestan scholars, that the groundwork of Parseeism was monotheistic, is discredited. Polytheism is the soil from which trinitarian conceptions naturally spring. We have an apparent exception in Christianity, but it is only apparent, because the Christian trinity was a Greek idea engrafted on a Jewish stalk. Moreover, its determinative antecedent, the Plotinian trinity, was hardly an ethnic trinity at all, but a private speculation, at once deriving from Plato and distorting him.

A chapter on the Greek Homeric trinity is of surpassing interest, especially where it treats of the Odyssey, to which Professor Paine brings a glowing admiration. In the Iliad we have a second trinity emerging from the background of a first, and in the Odyssey we have a third. In a comparison of the Virgin Mary to Athene, we have one of Professor Paine's most characteristic remarks. It is that "the same historical process which overthrows the faith in Mary as the virgin mother and the queen of heaven must overthrow the kindred doctrine of Christ's deity." The Greek philosophic trinities next receive consideration, the Plotinian having a chapter to itself. Professor Paine's intellectual engagement with this, while holding it to have been the baleful source from which the Augustinian (pantheistic) trinity derived, is a charming paradox. It is here that Professor Paine parts company with Prof. A. V. G. Allen and others, contending that what they regard as the merit of Athanasius was the defect of Augustine.

In a second division of his book, Professor Paine considers the relations of the Christian trinity to the ethnic trinities. The external relations were through Judaism to the Avesta, and through Justin, Origen, Athanasius, Augustine, "first of all philosophical thinkers," to Greek philosophy and mythology. Coming to the internal relations, resemblances between the Christian trinity and the ethnic trinities are found to be more in evidence than differences. Of these last, "the raising of Christ from the position of a man to that of a divine being" is marked as the most radical. Everything up to this point has had for its object the discrediting of the forms of thought which are elaborated with so much intellectual sympathy. The promise of the future, we are assured, is that of an undogmatic gospel of the spirit, independent of all creeds and forms, a gospel of love to God and man. Love, truth, and freedom are the constitutive members of its glorious trinity. We read in conclusion of "The Unreadiness of Christendom for the Fulfilment of its Mission," and of the perils that beset organized Christianity. These are predominantly ignorance and insincerity. It is a terrible indictment that is brought against the ministers and churches under the second head. What Coleridge called "orthodox lying for God" has perhaps never before been so cruelly alleged by an accredited teacher of orthodoxy in one of its theological schools.

The great modern event for Professor Paine is the publication of Darwin's 'Origin of Species' in 1859, and there is something slightly dogmatic in his treatment of evolution, as if it were already a finished doctrine to which nothing can be added and from which nothing can be taken away.

British Vegetable Galls: An Introduction to their Study. By Edward T. Connold, Honorary General Secretary to the Hastings and St. Leonard's Natural History Society. Illustrated with 130 full-page plates and 27 smaller drawings. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

This work belongs to a type of useful popular treatises much more common in England than elsewhere. The author tells us in his preface why he was constrained to write, and his statement applies to almost all similar compositions:

"For several years past it has been one of my favorite pastimes to collect vegetable galls and to observe the many peculiarities connected with their growth. The accumulation of a large number of specimens and a mass of notes resulting from these researches has awakened the desire to arrange them in book form."

The volume embodies, therefore, the results of a large amount of loving labor by one who does not profess to be a specialist. It is plainly designed to present in an attractive form the facts and phenomena which have chiefly interested him. With the abundant resources of modern photographic reproduction at his command, he has made an uncommonly pleasing volume. It is not easy to see in what way the illustrations could have been improved. They are very telling and are beautifully printed. The text in some places is unnecessarily obscure. For instance, p. 36, we read "Fungi, or Fungus. Of the known species none is excessively destructive as regards its ravages upon the food of man." Unquestionably the author alludes here to the fungi which produce gall-like distensions of vegetable tissues; but as the statement stands, it is incorrect, for it leaves out of account the many blights, mildews, rusts, smuts, and the like, which constantly threaten the plants yielding human food, and refers only to the few fungi which injure the fruits of our plums, and so on. But in a non-scientific book such statements are not likely to lead the reader astray; he can make use of the charming plates for purposes of identification of the gall-like objects gathered in a stroll.

Galls present many points of extreme interest, and well repay the trouble of examination. Take, for instance, the commonest case of all: an insect pierces the tissues of a twig or leaf, and there deposits an egg. The effrontery of the procedure is beyond words. The plant is helpless and can make no resistance at all. It has had thrust upon it a foreign object, with which it has nothing in common, either in structure or in mode of life. Now what the plant undertakes to do is to treasure the egg or eggs in a most unselfish fashion. It freely contributes of its substance material to construct a temporary lodging-place for the foundling, whereas the foundling cannot, either in its early or its later stages, contribute anything to the plant. Instead of being of any use to the plant, so far as is known, the presence of the egg and of the hatched egg is a disturbance of no small degree in the life of the attacked twig or leaf. Some of the gall-homes, as they have been called, are of great complexity, and in not a few instances they may be fairly regarded as beautiful, both inside and out.

It is to be hoped sincerely that Mr. Connold's charming plates of the more common of the British galls may lead to a wider popular interest in the galls of our own trees and shrubs. Certainly those who are inclined to collect and study them can, with this book in hand, have no excuse for not understanding how to collect and how to photograph them. In fact, the directions err perhaps a trifle on the side of being too explicit, if this is ever possible. For example, there are photographs of "a long strip of black cloth . . . serving the purpose of a pincushion," and of "the padding of cloth upon which specimens are to be pinned," and of "string, useful in numerous ways," and of "three ordinary wooden broom-handles fastened to a five-inch triangular platform," and also of "a two-foot length of broom-handle which slides up or down through the top platform."

Romance of the Renaissance Châteaux. By Elizabeth W. Champney. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Two winters ago we had from Mrs. Champney the 'Romance of the Feudal Châteaux,' and now there comes to us the second series, whose title is given above. Each book contains a number of full-page illustrations—the present one, six photogravures and about thirty half-tones; the subjects of each class being partly architectural and partly the reproduction of paintings, either portraits or modern pictures of history or legend. The latter will be, of course, well known to most visitors. They are such as Lenhardt's "Michelangelo at the Death-bed of Vittoria Colonna," Delaroche's "Assassination of the Duc de Guise," and the frontispiece, Comte's "Meeting of Henry III. and the Duc de Guise" at the foot of the staircase at Blois, with the scowling partisans on either side contrasting with the smiling ceremonial of the two chief actors. As for the architectural views, to a person who has made a study of such things the greater number will be fairly well known, but perhaps not all.

Though the book pretends to have to do with châteaux, it has little to say of them, dealing exclusively with fantastical legends of the curious epoch during which the Renaissance châteaux were built. Whether the telling of the tales is left to an imaginary Jean Goujon, the sculptor, or is ascribed directly to some modern housekeeper who opens an old mansion for the authoress, the stories are equally devoid of historical truth. The same remoteness from it which makes it possible to speak of the two great cardinals whose statues kneel in Rouen Cathedral as if they had "Amboise" for their family name, appears in every page of the book. There is no illusion; and if that be undesirable, then there is no historical accent. One thing or the other: we should either be transported to the sixteenth century, and believe that the story is being told us by the contemporary who seems to be telling it, or else it should be told from the point of view of the modern who looks with some admiration, but with more critical disapproval, upon the daring and artistic, but cruel and treacherous, nobility with whom these legends deal. The whole effort here is to make the stories seem ancient, to seem of the sixteenth century indeed; and a singular effort at antique simplicity of language in the English is used to correspond in a way with the supposed French of the time—but nothing could be less convincing. The stories can be read by one who will have romance at any price; otherwise the book can be disregarded except for the illustrations as above.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abernethy, J. W. American Literature. Maynard, Merrill & Co. $1.10.
Bacon, B. W. The Sermon on the Mount. Macmillan. $1.
Ballagh, J. C. A History of Slavery in Virginia. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Bridge, Norman. The Rewards of Taste, and Other Essays. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Bruce, W. S. The Formation of Christian Character. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Burnet, Joannes. Platonis Res Publica. Henry Frowde. $1.25.
Campbell, D. H. A University Text-Book of Botany. Macmillan. $4.
Carmichael, Montgomery. The Lady Poverty. London: John Murray; New York: Tennant & Ward.
Catalogues des Tableaux de Maitres Anciens et Modernes, Composant la Collection de Feu M. Edmond Huybrechts. Anvers: F. Delehaye & Fils; New York: Arthur Tooth & Sons.
Clodd, Edward. Thomas Henry Huxley. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Colcock, Annie T. Margaret Tudor. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.
Comments of a Countess. John Lane.
Condict, Alice B. Old Glory and the Gospel in the Philippines. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Darwin, Charles. On the Origin of Species. Unit Library. 11d.
Davidson, A. B. The Book of the Prophet Isaiah. (Temple Bible.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Davidson, Augusta M. C. Translations from Lucian. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Deveron, Hugh. Songs of the Sahkohnagas. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Eldridge, J. L. What Think Ye of Christ? Abbey Press. $1.
Elwell, J. B. Bridge: Its Principles and Rules of Play. Scribners. $1.25.
Emerson, R. W. English Traits. Unit Library. 5d.
Emerson, Edwin, jr. A History of the Nineteenth Century Year by Year. 3 vols. P. F. Collier & Son.
Fitch, Clyde. Capt. Jinks of the Horse Marines. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Flagg, Isaac. A Writer of Attic Prose. American Book Co. $1.
Forsyth, P. T. Religion in Recent Art. Edwin S. Gorham. $3.
Four-Place Logarithmic Tables. H. Holt & Co.
Fowler, W. W. More Tales of the Birds. Macmillan. $1.
Fragments from Fénelon concerning Education. Edwin S. Gorham. 50 cents.
Gauss, K. F. General Investigations of Curved Surfaces of 1827 and 1825. (Translated by J. C. Morehead and A. M. Hiltebeitel.) Princeton (N. J.): The Princeton University Library. $1.75.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Unit Library. 9½d.
Grafton, C. C. Pusey and the Church Revival. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co.
Greenleaf, Sue. Liquid from the Sun's Rays. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Grove, Lady. Seventy-one Days' Camping in Morocco. Longmans, Green & Co.
Hale, E. E. The Man without a Country. (Birthday edition.) The Outlook Co. $1.
Hastings, Gilbert. Siena: Its Architecture and Art. London: The De la More Press. 3s. 6d.
Helps, Arthur. The Spanish Conquest in America. Vol. II. John Lane. 3s. 6d.
Hempel, Walther. Methods of Gas Analysis. (Translated by L. M. Denis.) Macmillan. $2.25.
Hill, F. T. The Minority. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Hope, Laurence. India's Love Lyrics. London: William Heinemann; New York: John Lane.
Hulbert, W. D. Forest Neighbors. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Jeremias, Alfred. The Babylonian Conception of Heaven and Hell. London: David Nutt. 1s.
Judd, D. H. That Old Kitchen Stove. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
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Poynter, E. Frances. Michael Ferrier. Macmillan. $1.50.
Reed, Edwin. Bacon and Shake-speare Parallelisms. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.50.
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Schröer, Arnold. Chr. Fr. Grieb's Dictionary of the English and German Languages. Vol. I. Henry Frowde.
Shackleton, Robert. Many Waters. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Sheppard, Edgar. The Old Royal Palace of Whitehall. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 1, 1902.

The Week.

A Commander-in-Chief who has to send orders to his subordinates 11,000 miles away is bound to fall into awkward situations; and President Roosevelt is more to be pitied than blamed for the miscarriage of his wisely conceived purpose to prevent the punitive expedition against the Moros of Mindanao. His telegraphic correspondence with Gen. Chaffee amounts to this:

Gen. Chaffee: "I propose to send a column of 1,200 men to Lake Lanao."

President Roosevelt: "That would be a mistake. Don't let the men leave the coast."

Gen. Chaffee: "But the men have already started.

President Roosevelt: "Very well, let them go."

As we say, that has a most embarrassing look for the Commander-in-Chief, but we see no help for it. He is bound to take the word of his division commander when the latter is on the spot, and the spot is half-way round the globe. That is the military moral. The political moral is simply the old Philippine puzzle—what on earth are we doing in that Moro galley, anyhow?

The mere fact that President Roosevelt countermanded the punitive expedition shows that we have learned something in our three bitter years of schooling in the Philippines. We are not so terribly anxious now to uphold our prestige in the archipelago, if it means a needless and bloody war. If such orders had been issued to Otis as were sent to Chaffee—though so unfortunately late—there would have been no war in Luzon. That there may be now a general war in Mindanao is only too likely. If there is, it will be the result of a perfectly insensate proceeding on Gen. Chaffee's part. As a mere piece of skilful management, the settlement with the Moros by the tactful diplomacy of Gen. Bates was by far the most creditable thing we have done in the Philippines. The policy pursued was to let the chiefs alone, provided only that they would acknowledge our flag. They are polygamists, but we kept a blind eye for that. They have slaves, but we looked the other way. We paid them a subsidy to keep still and not bother us, and thought ourselves, as we were, lucky to get off so easily. Now comes Gen. Chaffee with the rough soldier's idea of showing the heathen who is boss, and threatens to bring on a general war with the wildest and most formidable inhabitants of the archipelago. The reason assigned is that two native murderers have not been produced, and that the dattos would not keep their appointments with the American General. We can wink at polygamy, can stomach slavery, and can pay over our tribute like any Spaniard of them all; but if it comes to treating us with personal disrespect, why, blood must flow.

"Hell-Roaring Jake," so Mr. Stephen Bonsal informs us, is the name by which Gen. Smith is known among his army intimates. If his private conversation is more gruesome than the military orders which, it is now undisputed, he gave in Samar, he fully deserves the sobriquet. Indiscriminate slaughter of non-combatants and the laying of the whole island waste—that is what the counsel of an American general admits to a court-martial that he ordered. He may yet offer the defence, as Major Waller did, that he was only executing bloody instructions which came to him from his superior officers. If, however, Gen. Smith can be shown to have been guilty without orders of these frightful violations of the laws of war, these clear infractions of the "Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field" (known as General Orders, No. 100), these unspeakably fiendish barbarities, then we say that he ought to be shot. Military law would justify such a punishment for such crimes; and unless our national conscience is seared with a hot iron, it will cry aloud for the sternest justice upon an officer who has outdone Spanish savagery. Suppose that, four years ago, on the eve of the Spanish war, a dispatch from Havana had even hinted at practices by a Spanish general so atrocious as those now coolly admitted by an American general—why, we should have rent the skies with our indignation. Yet the moral law has not changed in the meantime, and God still requires innocent blood at the hands of murderers, be they men or nations.

The letter of instruction sent by Gen. Chaffee to "Hell-Roaring Jake" when the latter was put in command of the brigade operating in Samar will be relied upon as a part of the defence in the court-martial of the latter. One paragraph especially is quoted as a justification of the orders given by Smith to Waller. Chaffee said:

> "I have all the time thought that we do not appreciate the fact that we are dealing with a people whose character is deceitful, who are absolutely hostile to the white race, and who regard life as of little value, and, finally, who will not submit to our control until absolutely defeated and whipped into such a condition. It is to our interest to disarm these people, and to keep them disarmed, and any means to that end is advisable."

This is an instruction from a superior to a subordinate officer, not merely to deal severely with enemies in arms, but to exterminate a people because they are "deceitful"—that is, they will not disclose to invaders the places where they keep their arms. In order to get their arms away from them, Gen. Chaffee says any means is not only admissible, but advisable. Of course "killing everything over ten" is one such means, and Gen. Smith will be prepared to show that it is the very best means to the end. Gen. Chaffee may himself be brought before a court-martial for giving such bloody instructions. If so, he may point to the fact that the contents of his letter to Smith was known to the War Department, and was at least tacitly approved. One of the dreadful sayings of "Hell-Roaring Jake," which was known at the War Department for more than a year, and was never questioned, was that "neutrality must not be tolerated on the part of any native. The time has now arrived when all natives in this brigade who are not openly for us must be regarded as against us." This means, Suspect everybody, and kill everybody whom you suspect.

President Roosevelt's military right to order Gen. Funston to die with all his Philippine music in him is doubtless beyond dispute, unless it could be held that silence, in the case of a man like Funston, is one of those cruel and unusual punishments forbidden by the Constitution. The Kansan Brigadier had been having such a good time losing his temper and loosing his tongue about the Philippines. But he ought to take the President's rebuke as a really necessary step in his somewhat neglected military education. Taciturnity is a characteristic trait of great soldiers. Moltke was silent in seven languages, and Funston can begin by being speechless in one. So we hope he will wear his gag gracefully. We do not see that his military glory, such as it is, will be dimmed by his reprimand. The Duke of Wellington was once twitted in Parliament with "never yet having entered into a contest with Englishmen in which he was not beaten." Funston's case is similar. He simply did not know how the moral sense of the country and of the President would be shocked by his insolent attack upon Senator Hoar as a man with "a superheated conscience." Now he knows.

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effective peace insurance. The cost of building and maintaining such a navy represents the very lightest premium for insuring peace which the nation can possibly pay." Thus spoke President Roosevelt, in his message of last December, and Monday the naval committee of the House brought in their little "peace-insurance" bill of $77,659,000. The additions to the navy proposed are two first-class battle-ships, two first-class armored cruisers, and two gunboats. These are to be added to the 138 vessels already built or building, at a cost of $235,000,000. Such are the burdens of an armed peace, which, as the Pope recently declared in his encyclical, are rapidly becoming as grievous as those of war itself.

The rowdyism of certain officers of the United States navy and marine corps in a public place in the city of Venice has drawn upon themselves the attention of the police, and upon the United States that of other nations. Is it possible that this outbreak is one of the signs of our newly acquired dignity and standing as a World Power? However that may be, it is gratifying to know that we have a gentleman at the head of the Navy Department. Secretary Long says that, if these men have committed an infraction of the law in Venice, they must suffer the consequences of their acts. They have been sentenced to prison for no very long period, but sufficiently to put a stigma upon them, and after they have "served time" they will be liable to court-martial at home. The penalty visited upon them by the Venetian tribunal is mild by comparison with the summary method of punishing Italians for infractions of local law in Louisiana. Our civilized and enlightened method is to promptly lynch the offenders and any others found in the neighborhood. Then, when the Italian Government demands satisfaction, we assure the Ambassador of the aggrieved nation that we treat his countrymen as well as we do our own. How could he ask more?

We gravely apprehend that President Roosevelt is defeated in his Cuban policy, and that Congress will pass no bill in aid of Cuba before the date for setting up the native government, May 20. This seems to us the unmistakable inference from the situation at Washington. The Senate was pictured for months as feverishly eager to enact an adequate measure of Cuban relief. It could hardly wait for the House to pass even a mangled bill. Well, such a bill passed the House a fortnight ago, and the Senate Committee has only provided for further and indefinite delays. Senator Teller's resolution to investigate the holdings of Cuban sugar by the Sugar Trust was distinctly understood by Administration organs to be offered as an obstructionist and dilatory move, yet it has been adopted by the Committee, and the faint "hope" is now expressed by Senator Platt that he may be ready to report a bill in three weeks or so. This is a square defeat for the Administration, and we fear that it will produce alarm and dejection in Cuba, with consequences that will be bad, both politically and financially. The worst of it is that the President has so procrastinated, through being imposed upon by the assurances of leading Republicans in Congress, that he cannot now make a public appeal for generous treatment of Cuba with any effect. Protection and prejudice have been too subtle and too strong for him; and in spite of the noble words of his message about what we were bound in "honor" to do for Cuba, we are going to do just nothing at all for the fledgling republic.

Attorney-General Knox is rapidly becoming a mighty hunter before the Lord, his principal game being Trusts. Of course, he is doing but his simple duty under the law in ordering proceedings against the Beef Trust, since the statute expressly directs him to proceed as he has done; but his activity is all the more noteworthy because it was unexpected. Mr. Knox had been set down —very unjustly, it is now evident—as the special friend and representative in the Cabinet of unscrupulous corporations. His confirmation in office, it will not be forgotten, was stoutly opposed on the ground that he had been an attorney for the Steel Trust and other large concerns. This weighs little now, except as it perhaps yields one reason for his unusual skill in drawing complaints against illegal combinations. Granting that a lawyer has employed his talents in advising corporations how close to the Anti-Trust Law they may sail, he would be just the man, if so minded, to detect and punish those which had imprudently gone over the line. Certainly Mr. Knox's success in at least frightening the corporations, and spiking the guns of the Democrats, illustrates the power of specially trained wits in meeting specially trained wits.

Dear food in America, caused whether by Trusts or taxes, comes by a strange coincidence at the same time that the new tax on bread in Great Britain is causing an outcry. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has already been proved a false prophet as to the effect of his duty on wheat and flour. Despite his predictions to the contrary, the millers and bakers have promptly raised their prices. They may have done so unnecessarily, and the grumbling which is certain to come may be uncalled for, but important political results will follow, nevertheless. That the new tax is unpopular in Parliament may be inferred from the falling off of the Government's majority in the Commons. It sank about fifty below the normal when the vote on the second reading of the corn duties was taken. The Liberals are taking up the new issue with avidity, and there is even talk of reviving the Anti-Corn Law League. This will probably not be done, unless the war should go on and the corn duties go higher. Then, indeed, the old battle might have to be fought over again, and of some future Prime Minister it might be said, as it was said of Sir Robert Peel, that he "gave his fellow-countrymen abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened by a sense of injustice."

A study of the platform adopted by the Republican organization in Indiana shows the difficulty which politicians now encounter in formulating issues and in drawing lines between the parties on such issues. The Indiana Republicans are "gratified that Cuba will soon pass to the control of her own people"—although Senator Beveridge, who "sounded the keynote," took pains to point out that this control amounts to little, in view of our "suzerainty" over the island. The Indiana Republicans also "favor just and liberal reciprocal relations between the United States and the republic of Cuba"—but they refuse to tell what would be "just and liberal." The House recently passed a bill for a petty 20 per cent. reduction of duties. Does this meet the demand, or should the rate be 40 or 50 per cent.? As to the Philippines, the Indiana Republicans hold that American sovereignty must be respected; favor the establishment of absolute peace, and the erection of civil government, and "insist that the people of the islands shall be given increased participation in the administration of their domestic affairs, as they shall demonstrate intelligence and capacity for self-government." Of course, they are "opposed to all Trusts or combinations of capital whose purpose or effect is to restrict business or control prices," and, of course, they "especially denounce those whose tendency it is to increase the cost of living and the necessaries of life." They favor "legislation to prevent such abuses," but they do not point out what new laws are needed. They "adhere to the policy of protection," but they favor "such modifications of tariff schedules as, from time to time, are required by changing conditions," and they are ready to accept "carefully guarded reciprocity arrangements" with other countries wherever such arrangements can be made "without interrupting our home production." But whether at the present time any modification of tariff schedules is required, or whether the reciprocity treaties now pending before the Senate are "carefully guarded" and

would not "interrupt our home production," they refuse to say.

We doubt if there was ever a case where the first important State convention of the dominant party under a new Administration presented so colorless a statement of party faith. Liberal pensions, Chinese exclusion, the keeping out of undesirable immigrants, the suppression of anarchy, opposition to combinations which increase the cost of living, justice and liberality toward Cuba, peace in the Philippines—what opposition party could make an issue on such vague deliverances as these? The difficulty rather is to arouse any enthusiasm in the dominant party over a programme so indefinite. There is one feature of the Indiana platform, however, which affords ground for rejoicing—the plank on the sectional issue which is not there. Representative Crumpacker has been for years the chief advocate of the scheme for cutting down the representation of the Southern States in Congress and the electoral college because the negroes are not allowed to vote, and he was urgent for the endorsement of the idea by this convention. But the managers refused him the slightest encouragement, and kept all reference to the South out of the platform. This may be considered the formal rejection of the attempt to revive the sectional issue, and its worldly wisdom is past question.

The attention of all New Yorkers has been so largely concentrated upon some defects in the Police Department, and two or three "breaks" in other branches of the Government, that people have overlooked the excellent work which is being done almost everywhere by the Low Administration. The most important thing of all is the fact that we have honest men at the heads of the various departments, and that as a rule their honesty is supplemented by ability. They are saving money, and they are accomplishing greater results with smaller expenditures. Efficiency is being restored in branches of the service which had become demoralized—notably the Street-Cleaning Department. In the Water Department the new Commissioner has discovered a system of fraud in meter-inspection, and has instituted a reform by which he estimates that $600,000 a year will be added to the city's revenues from supplying water. The Building Department in the Borough of Manhattan has practically been revolutionized, as an agency for securing protection to life through a fair enforcement of the law. Equally commendable are the host of minor reforms which have already been introduced in the Charities and Health Departments. Each of these great departments has to do with the well-being of a host of people who had been shamefully neglected and abused under Tammany. The conditions in the various institutions under the Charities Department were shocking when Mr. Folks took charge, and the list of changes for the better already made means an immense gain in public decency and in the comfort of helpless wards of the city. The Health Department has been equally zealous in work for the protection of the public at large. In short, the spirit of civilization now governs in the conduct of the city Government, and the beneficent effects are becoming more plain every week. It is already clear that New York is to profit immensely from the Low Administration.

Corporation Counsel Rives's revised opinion on the advertising ordinance now before the Board of Aldermen shows a change of mind as gratifying as it is sudden. There seems, in fact, to have been a lack of clearness in his earlier opinion, owing to the confusion of restrictive with prohibitive legislation. Mr. Rives now holds that to limit sky-signs to a height of ten feet and to prescribe their material and construction would not exceed the charter powers of the Board of Aldermen. It is to be hoped, then, that the Ware ordinance now under consideration may soon become law. The Corporation Counsel's second opinion maintains that restrictive legislation concerning bill-boards and similar structures finds its justification only under the ordinary police powers of the city—that is, all hoardings which are not proved to be prejudicial to the public health, safety, or morals have a right to existence, and are not fairly amenable to restrictive legislation. This view at least is conservative, and it still leaves considerable play for reform. It is wholly consistent, too, with the very elaborate and well-considered report of the Chicago Master in Chancery on the bill-posting ordinance of January, 1901.

That the French elections would result in a substantial vindication for the Ministry was a foregone conclusion. If on the reballoting the Government does as well in the 173 arrondissements in which there were no choices on Sunday, as it has done in those in which Deputies received their majority, M. Waldeck-Rousseau will bring to the Palais Bourbon a majority of certainly a hundred. Let it be remembered that, when he became Premier, three years ago, he could hardly command a majority of a score, and the measure of his present success is fairly shown. Yet the mere fact that there was nearly a third of "no-choices" shows that the Progressists and other Republican factions very generally failed to rally to the Ministry. Paris is traditionally hostile to the Government, and the failure to elect, on the first ballot, a single Ministerial Deputy in the capital city is rather an annoyance than a serious check. The Government will still have to deal with that nondescript and brawling faction which has rallied under the banner of Nationalism, and, with reduced political power, retains possibilities for mischief-making. The solidarity of the country districts in favor of the Government is the most gratifying feature of the elections, for it shows that nothing like a real monarchical feeling survives in France, and that the Royalists and Imperialists are just about as important in France to-day as the followers of "Charles the Martyr" are in England.

Ominous or promising, according to point of view, are the repeated reports of industrial disturbances in Russia. Not so long ago a strike would have been out of the question, and manufacturing enterprises were of the most primitive character. In 1885 there were in European Russia, excluding Poland and Finland, 62,801 manufacturing, mining, and industrial establishments of all sorts, with a laboring force of 994,787, and an annual output valued at 1,121,040,270 rubles. In 1893 the establishments, under the influence of incorporation and consolidation, were 39,029, but the people employed had increased to 2,098,262—more than double—and the output had risen to 2,839,144,000 rubles. Meanwhile the growth of the textile industries has made manufacturing centres of Moscow and other ancient cities. When the peasant becomes a mill-hand, he is perforce aroused from his century-long stupor, and he faces the stern facts of modern industrial life. The mere bringing together of masses of people about the mills means the accumulation of inflammable material. The powers that be have nothing so much to fear as an enlightened and restless prolétariat, and such a class is actually forming in Russia, if slowly. Even more alarming are symptoms of political discontent among the peasantry. The Moscow correspondent of the London *Times* writes that the bread riots in Little Russia are of a political nature, and not, as has been supposed, a simple expression of agrarian distress. It is said that educated Russians have been spreading the Socialist propaganda widely among the peasantry. Though it is too early to estimate the importance of the movement, it is clear that its very existence constitutes a menace to the present order of things in Russia. The strength of the empire is the ignorance and loyalty of the peasants. When these peasants demand political rights, the empire will be put to the test, and it will be seen whether Nicholas II. has that personal force and that ability to see beyond the influences of the court which characterized his grandfather.

FINANCIAL SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

A survey of the financial situation, at this time, reveals a singularly interesting state of things. Abroad, the Boer war, for nearly three years a millstone on the neck of British industry, is apparently about to end. The production of Transvaal gold, cut down from $9,000,000 per month in 1899 to almost nothing in 1901, has risen already to two million dollars monthly, and will reach its figures of three years ago when the Cape railway is no longer clogged with Government transportation. The Continent, in advance of these new supplies of gold, is slowly recovering from its trade prostration.

In the United States, industrial prosperity continues at a rate hardly anticipated even in the hopeful forecasts contributed to the *Evening Post* on the 31st of last December. The basic iron market is in a state of unparalleled activity, with production at much the highest rate in history; the monthly output, by the last returns, running some 200,000 tons, or not less than 15 per cent., beyond the same period in 1901. Railway earnings, as now coming to hand, average fully 7 per cent. above last year, with an increase of barely 2 per cent. in mileage. Trade payments through the clearing-houses of interior cities are running 15 to 20 per cent. beyond 1901, and 30 to 40 per cent. beyond 1900, and their decrease in the East is wholly attributable to the relatively smaller stock speculation. The first of the harvests, winter wheat, will possibly be deficient, owing to the drought; but the loss may easily be repaired with good luck in corn and by the spring wheat acreage. The currency seems to be secure; the revenue is abundant, and evils arising from such sudden expansion in the Treasury surplus as tightens the money markets, are in a fair way to be corrected by an intelligent revenue-reduction law.

On the surface, then, almost all indications would appear to point to continued prosperity and industrial happiness. How does it happen, this being so, that many of the most careful and experienced watchers have expressed misgiving over the situation, and are looking, from time to time, for signs of a possible coming storm?

Such misgivings, we imagine, whether well or ill founded, base themselves wholly on the current experiments with capital. We are not among those who discourage the bold and aggressive use of capital at a time of trade prosperity. It is an axiom of sound finance that such a period, when credit is easy, capital ready for investment, and the profits of industry substantial, is the hour for bringing to a head plans for further developing the country's industrial capacity and power. If it were not done then, it would never be done. But if the structure is to stand in all its parts, it must be soundly built. Its foundations must be laid on solid rock, which will not give way in days of trade reverses, harvest failures, and hard times. The first question asked by those who scan with the eye of experience a movement of prosperity is, To what extent has fixed capital been adjusted to the emergencies of the future?

Examination of the present position, from this point of view, discloses some reasons for legitimate disquiet. A glance at the industrial prospect shows a capitalization of existing prosperity so enormous as to create grave doubts as to the ability to sustain its full obligations in the future. With scarcely an exception, the country's industries have been reorganized in corporate form with liabilities on an absolutely unheard-of scale. It is not pretended that the issues of stocks and bonds, poured into Wall Street during the short span of five years since the last depression, have been limited by the mere ratio of increased profits. Immense as that increase has unquestionably been, the ratio of increase in capitalization has trebled and quadrupled it. Vast possibilities of further expansion may reasonably be assumed for the still more distant future. But the liabilities of scores of corporations have been adjusted, not merely to what is actually earned to-day, but to the full expectation of what the next decade may further yield. The suggestion that disappointments may occur before this goal is reached, is rather commonly received with incredulity. The way in which this "discounting" process is being managed is also somewhat striking. Share capital can bridge an interval of reaction, or even calamity; but the characteristic symptom of the past twelve months has been the increase by hundreds of millions in that part of capital which must pay its regular fixed charges if the company is to weather insolvency.

We have stated, we believe, in moderate language a condition which every intelligent man with his eyes open knows to exist. There is no one in the community who cannot add some pertinent fact to the recital. We mention further only this—the scattering of the money of corporations on so lavish a scale that it fairly staggers the observer's mind. Sums which would have equipped a great corporation a dozen years ago, and which might do so again, are, month by month, disbursed outright to syndicates for the mere service of guaranteeing the sales of new securities. To some extent, this may be prudent and necessary finance; but it is calculated to make old-fashioned spectators stop and wonder who is to foot the bill.

How far these huge sums of money, poured out with so free a hand, have themselves been raised by credit operations, is another question suggested by the returns. The answer is not altogether easy to find. The expansion of loans at credit institutions may mean a dozen different things, according to the collateral that lies behind them. Taken by themselves, the figures show that in two years the loans of the New York city banks have been enlarged by $119,000,000, and those of the trust companies in this State by $223,000,000. This is an increase of no less than 30 per cent. We believe this expansion, in a single community and in so brief a period, to be not only utterly unparalleled in history, but wholly unexplainable, except on the theory that the capitalization of our huge new corporations still rests for the most part on the support of bank credits.

We are writing in neither a pessimistic nor an alarmist vein, and with full understanding of the strong points of the situation. But the signs of the times to which we have called attention are sufficiently striking, in our judgment, to demand the most careful watching by people who have the interests of the community at heart. One quite reasonable conclusion from an examination of this sort is that our banks ought to take very early measures for the better adjustment of their reserve resources to their deposit funds. For weeks, our clearing-house institutions have averaged only a trifling fraction over the 25 per cent. minimum assigned by the National Banking Law. This is scarcely wise when the deposits of these institutions, in addition to the funds of individuals, savings banks, and interior banks that keep a cash reserve at home, now include $100,000,000 or thereabouts from the trust companies, which is the only cash reserve maintained by those companies against their own $792,000,000 deposit liabilities. It is also our opinion that so novel and perplexing a situation makes it imperative that the trust companies should, like the banks, publish their weekly statements, and let the financial public know the state of their credit fund. The time for application of prudent reforms in such directions is a time like the present—when the industrial skies are clear, the country's business hopeful and prosperous, and the credit system untouched by the breath of doubt.

BENEVOLENT GRABBING.

Senator Lodge complains of his unhappy lot in being compelled to sit out the Senate debate on the Philippine bill. As chairman of the committee having the measure in charge, he is obliged to be present at its dissection by Democrats. The Republican plan is, of course, to pass the bill on the good old principle of addition, division, and silence. They can vote for it, but they cannot defend it; for it is, in truth, an elaborate and complicated plan to do what Gov. Taft told the Philippine Com-

mittee would be absolutely fatal to American rule in the archipelago—namely, to "exploit the islands."

To refresh our memories, and to show the original professions from which the Philippine bill so widely wanders, we will reprint the so-called Spooner amendment to the Army Bill of 1901. This is a record of our intention expressed in law. We would not attempt to pin Imperialists down to unctuous phrases about "benevolent assimilation," which may mean little or much—probably nothing. But here is the actual legislation, the intention enshrined in a statute, which we were told last year was to be the noble charter of our government in the Philippines:

> "Provided, That no sale or lease or other disposition of the public lands [in the Philippines], or the timber thereon, or the mining rights thereon, shall be made; and provided, further, that no franchise shall be granted which is not approved by the President of the United States, and is not, in his judgment, clearly necessary for the immediate government of the islands and indispensable for the interest of the people thereof."

All this was expressly set down as the great principle by which we were to be guided in our Philippine Administration "until the establishment of *permanent* civil government." Yet the Senate bill of to-day, which dares allege no more than that it is "temporarily" for the government of the Philippine Islands, does completely and in every respect what Congress declared a year ago should not be done. Who does not remember the virtuous complacency with which the Spooner resolution was pointed to as an evidence of our disinterestedness? All property in the archipelago, with all franchises, we were to hold as a sacred trust for the inhabitants. American concessionaires were to be unknown in the whole archipelago. Let the unblushing English promoters swarm to their New Jerusalem in Johannesburg; we would show to the world a purer example and loftier motives. That was what we said; now what do we propose to do?

Read the Senate bill, which the Republicans do not wish to discuss at all (and no wonder), and find an answer. It is a bill to allow American exploiters to take everything in sight, and many things out of sight, in the Philippines. After some meaningless preliminaries about a possible future government of the islands, which there is no pretence of setting up for a long time to come, the bill gets down to business, and with minute particularity arranges for squeezing every drop out of the Philippine orange. Sections 11-16 provide for "the lease, sale, or other disposition of public lands other than timber or mineral lands." Timber lands are looked after in section 16, where, under ostensible leave only to "issue licenses to cut timber," and to "cut timber sufficient for a mill site," or to "cut timber to get access to the lands where timber-cutting is authorized," the exploiter's axe is lifted up against the Philippine forests which we promised should be reserved for the natives. Next the bill takes up "mineral lands," and proposes to enact an entire mining code, sufficient to extract all the coal and precious metals in the archipelago without so much as a polite bow to the natives. "Franchises, privileges and concessions" are thoroughly attended to in section 76 *et seq.*, and if any Senator, in the course of the debate, can think of any bit of Philippine property which might possibly escape grabbing under the bill, we do not doubt that Senator Lodge would graciously accept an amendment to prevent the inhabitants from doing what they will with anything that is their own.

The whole thing is a shameless surrender to the exploiters. This Senate bill of 1902 bolts the Spooner resolution of 1901 whole. If Congress was honest in passing that, it cannot be honest in enacting the present measure. Either we were hypocrites a year ago, or are swallowers of our own words now. Nor is it simply a question of consistency and sincerity. The bill is fraught with danger. It ought to be, like the Spooner resolution, attached to the Army Bill, for if it becomes law, it will undoubtedly require the raising of additional troops to keep the Philippines in subjection. This was, as we have said, a point on which Gov. Taft expressed strong convictions to the Philippine Committee. How well grounded were his warnings against the military peril of exploiting the islands, we may see in our recent troubles in Mindanao. There is evidence that they are due, in part at least, to an "American invasion" of exploiters. In the orders issued by Gen. Davis on March 4, he said: "In some extensive regions it is said that the inhabitants wish to remain isolated and to exclude visits from Americans. It is the military policy to endeavor to overcome and counteract this idea, and thoroughly to explore the country." Yes, and the "punitive expedition" necessarily follows. Unless President Roosevelt succeeds in checking these attempts to exploit even the Moros, he will soon have to be calling on Congress for a larger army. Imperialism has now thrown off its mask, as regards the Philippines; and it will be plain henceforth that if there is more fighting in the islands, it will be for the purpose of aiding those who are there, not for the good, but for the goods, of the inhabitants.

THE ADAMS DOCTRINE.

It has long been known, of course, that the so-called Monroe Doctrine really had its birth in the brain of John Quincy Adams. President Monroe had neither the mind to conceive it nor the courage to promulgate it, apart from his illustrious Secretary of State. Ever since the publication of the Adams Memoirs this has been understood by historical students. The English writer, Mr. W. F. Reddaway, for example, whose little book on the Monroe Doctrine was published in 1898, gives it as the result of his researches that "the peculiar form of the Message of 1823 was due to John Quincy Adams"; and adds that "he, and he alone, logically applied it in politics." This is a commonplace with American historians.

None the less, peculiar interest and importance attach to the recent delvings by Mr. Worthington C. Ford in the archives at Quincy and at Washington. His findings he gives us in his brochure, just published, on the connection of John Quincy Adams with the Monroe Doctrine. He has unearthed documents from the Adams manuscripts, and brought out for the first time dispatches from the records in the State Department, which elevate inference to certainty, and which show us the Monroe Doctrine in the act ual making, with a clearness never before attainable. We see now with absolute distinctness what American statesman it was who perceived in the advances of Canning and the communications of the Russian Minister the great opportunity to formulate and announce the principle of the free and independent Americas. It was Adams who asserted the exemption of the New World from political meddling by the Old, and who frankly accepted the logical corollary, that America should keep its hands off Europe. Monroe had so dim a conception of the way in which these two parts of his Doctrine hang together that, in the very message proclaiming it, he was proposing to reproach France for invading Spain, and to recognize the Greeks as an independent nation. This, as Adams protested, would have been a plain interference in questions purely European, and would have been a strangling of the Monroe Doctrine in the cradle by its reputed father. What the prescient Secretary wanted to do was "to make an American cause and adhere inflexibly to that." He, at least, saw how essential to such a cause it was to "disclaim all interference on our part with Europe." The difficulties and mortifications which he experienced in bringing over the timid and easy-going Monroe to his point of view, are minutely explained and illuminated by the writings which Mr. Ford has brought to light.

Behind the Monroe Doctrine lies a political philosophy which it did not formulate. To affirm our desire and intention to maintain a political system on this continent free from any foreign influence, might be only an assertion of brute force, if we had not had some strong and guiding principle determining our ac-

tion. But we had, and by no pen was it laid down more clearly and forcibly than by that of John Quincy Adams. His opening was given him by the Russian Minister, who informed our Government of the purpose of Russia not to recognize the independence of any of the South American republics, and, at the same time, improved the occasion to refer to the "political principles" which the Czar deemed applicable to the case. In this Adams saw both a challenge and an opportunity. "If Alexander could exploit his political principles—those of a brutal, repressive policy—the United States could show that another system of government . . . could give rise to a new and more active political principle." Accordingly, the Secretary of State prepared a draft of "Observations on the Communications Recently Received from the Minister of Russia." It was a paper which underwent much mutilation before the President would allow it to be read to Baron de Tuyl, the Russian Minister. Yet, taken as a whole, it is a powerful statement of the moral and political principles which not merely justify the Monroe Doctrine, but which underlie our very existence as a nation.

One of the omitted parts, now first reproduced by Mr. Ford, is so telling an epitome of our historic polity, and so pertinent a reminder of the paths from which our feet have strayed, that it deserves the widest reprinting and discussion. Here are the words in which the Adams Doctrine, that alone gives life and vigor to the Monroe Doctrine, was set down by that early American statesman who had as vast a hope for the continental expansion of his country as Jefferson, yet who could as little as he think of the flag flying over soil where the truths for which the flag stands are denied:

> "The Institution of Government, to be lawful, must be pacific, that is, founded upon the consent and by the agreement of those who are governed; and each Nation is exclusively the judge of the Government best suited to itself, and no other Nation can justly interfere by force to impose a different Government upon it. The first of these principles may be designated as the principle of *Liberty*—the second as the principle of National *Independence*—They are both Principles of *Peace* and of Good Will to Men."

That utterance is strong enough for all the latter-day sneerers at Anti-Imperialism to break their eye-teeth upon. There spoke the man of mighty ambitions for his native land. There spoke one of the most assertive Americans that ever lived. He would have our rule extend from sea to sea; he would have Cuba come under our flag, but only as her people freely consented; yet our modern expansionists, with their doctrine of brute force, their resort to cruelty and oppression, their disregard of the Constitution and of the maxims which lie at the foundation of it, would clearly have been abhorrent to his soul. It is perfectly certain that if "the old man eloquent" were to return to the floor of Congress, and to be told what the United States is doing in the Philippines, he would make the ears of all who heard him tingle. In his Diary he once wrote: "My speech of this day stung the slaveocracy to madness." If he were alive and speaking to-day, it would be the madness of his Imperialist opponents which he would have to record.

THE OPEN DOOR.

In a speech on the Cuban Reciprocity Bill in the House, a few days since, Congressman Douglas of this city alluded to a matter of great importance in our trade relations with our insular possessions and with foreign countries, which has hitherto received scarcely any attention. It involves the whole policy of the "open door" upon which we have laid so much stress in the adjustment of affairs in the Far East. The subject was touched upon incidentally by Mr. Douglas in these words:

> "We are to-day, as a nation, so far as I can see, most inconsistent, and are doing many things which will likely be prejudicial to our future good and welfare. We have shut the door of Porto Rico to other nations. We have also closed the door in the Hawaiian Islands. We have closed it partly in the Philippine Islands, and propose to do so entirely before long. And now Cuba comes in very likely for the same treatment, and we expect to shut others out; and yet all the time we are talking very loudly about the open door in other directions, as China, Japan, India, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, etc., and we had better pause and consider. We have also extended (or proposed to do so, although we have no ships to carry the cargo) our coastal laws to all of the possessions mentioned, even to the Philippine Islands, 10,000 miles away, after 1904. The commercial bodies of other nations are giving these matters careful attention."

Almost simultaneously with the utterance of this warning, a colloquy took place in the House of Commons between Mr. Markham of Nottingham and Viscount Cranborne on the subject of exports of hemp from the Philippines. The former asked whether the Foreign Office had any information to the effect that the United States Government had passed an act in relation to exports of hemp from the Philippines whereby a preferential rate had been enacted in favor of America; and, if so, whether, in view of the effects on the rope and other trades of such preferential rates, the Ministry purposed making any friendly representation to the United States Government. Lord Cranborne replied that no preference was given in the Philippine Islands in respect of the duty on hemp exported to the United States, but on the following day he was obliged to correct an error into which he had fallen by assuming that all hemp is dutiable under the United States tariff at a uniform rate.

He said in his corrected statement that Manila hemp is free of duty in the United States, while other hemp is subject to a duty of $20 per ton. The export duty on hemp established by the Philippine Tariff Commission is $7.50 per ton, but under our special Philippine tariff act it is provided that this export duty shall not be charged upon hemp sent to the United States "for use and consumption in the United States." The net result of this arrangement, said Lord Cranborne, is that "the American manufacturer has, in his own market, an advantage of $7.50 per ton over his British competitor." That the American manufacturer's advantage extends to other markets would seem to follow from the fact that we have no machinery for detecting the presence of Manila hemp in cordage, twine, bagging, or any other article of export. Even if it could be detected, the Constitution prohibits duties on exports.

So it appears that by a juggle, which was not generally understood at the time, we have humiliated ourselves before the world, and thrown away all claim to stand as a representative of the "open-door" policy in the Orient or anywhere. The wise arrangements made by Secretary Hay in his correspondence with the Powers in reference to trade in China depend upon the exercise of good faith on our own part. Great Britain was one of the Powers with which the correspondence was exchanged, and now we have been the first one to violate it. We have "put up a game," by which we get an advantage over other nations of $7.50 per ton in the hemp trade of the Philippines and in the industries dependent upon it. The contrivance is rather ingenious. It looks a sharp Yankee trick, and it would be interesting to know who devised it. Of course, the same Congress which passed this Philippine Tariff Bill ought to amend it by striking out the discriminating paragraph, but Congress has so many things to do, and so many blunders to correct, that we can hardly hope for any such action until the trouble becomes menacing. One way to overcome the difficulty, or, speaking more plainly, to checkmate the fraud, would be for the Philippine Commission to repeal the export duty on hemp. Then all buyers would stand on an equal footing.

In the colloquy referred to, Lord Cranborne said that at the time when the Philippines were annexed to the United States, the British Government had sought an assurance that no preferential rates of duty should be imposed which would be detrimental to any old established trades between Great Britain and the Philippines. He did not say what response had been received, but it is within the recollection of American citizens that Secretary Hay and President McKinley expressed their intention to maintain the open door in the Philippines in the same spirit in which they expected and desired that it should be maintained in China. Of course, they did

not assume to bind their successors in office or the Congress of the United States.

When we turn our eyes from the East Indies to the West, we find a similar situation, and one which is already producing anxiety in Great Britain. We have admitted the products of Porto Rico free of duty, while we impose taxes on those of the neighboring islands. These islands produce sugar, which comes mostly to the United States in exchange for our agricultural and manufactured goods. As Porto Rico is a small island, and its production of sugar is relatively limited, the harm that can be inflicted upon our trade with the English and French Antilles, by preferential treatment in favor of Porto Rico, is perhaps not appreciable. But the case is very different with Cuba. The latter is capable of producing all the sugar that the United States now consumes, so that, in course of time, if we should establish and continue reciprocal trade with Cuba and not offer the same treatment to those islands, our imports from the latter would cease. In that case the island governments would probably retaliate by giving preferential rates to Canada, which would be able to supply most of the agricultural products, meats, and fish wanted by them, and to England, which would then supply even a larger proportion of their manufactured goods than she now sends to them. It was in view of this contingency that treaties of reciprocity with those countries were framed and sent to the Senate during President McKinley's Administration. The reason why these treaties were shelved is well known. They should be ratified simultaneously with the proposed treaty with Cuba.

It is not too soon for the commercial bodies of the United States to look seriously at the questions outlined in Congressman Douglas's speech. If we do not observe the open-door policy as regards our new possessions, we cannot expect that other nations will observe it in their dealings with us. We must bear in mind that Great Britain has power to put serious obstacles in the way of our trade with Australia, India, Egypt, South Africa, and many other continents and islands. In China, too, her coöperation with us is necessary in order to keep open the door which Russia is all the time trying to close. Everything points to the need of fair play on our part if we wish to reap the advantages in foreign trade to which our resources, skill, and capital entitle us. We cannot demand the open door unless we maintain it. Our motto should be *do ut des.*

THE RICH AND THE OLD-BOOK MARKET.

The prices at the Lefferts sale recently held in this city were of a kind to sadden the collector whose memory runs back over a score of years. It required two columns in the newspapers merely to record the titles of the books (some sixty out of four hundred sold) which brought more than fifty dollars at the first night of the sale. No one could quarrel with the record price of $700 for Bunyan's 'Holy War,' 1682, for this little volume, like most of the Bunyans, was almost thumbed out of existence by the pious, during the evangelist's lifetime. Some of the really scarce items were even cheap; the 'Songes and Sonnettes' of the Earl of Surrey, 1567, was absurdly low at $1,100, being of the highest rarity. It is not these larger prices, but the fact that book after book in the recent sale brought quite as many dollars as it was worth shillings a few years ago, that gives the collector pause. Why should books often of no especial rarity bring in the auction room twice and three times the prices at which they may still be bought in foreign book-shops, simply because they are sold in New York?

To the confirmed collector there is more than mere chagrin involved in this matter. He regrets less the happier days when he still cut a modest figure at the sales than he deplores the lack of discrimination which pays for books more than they are worth. An Oriental merchant is deeply offended at the ignorant Occidental who pays him his first price. Such an abridgment of the transaction not only is a discourtesy to himself, but argues a lack of interest in his goods. Similarly the wealthy collector who writes to his agent, "Buy No. —," shows an attitude towards books which is precisely that of a housekeeper *de luxe*, who writes down on her December tablets, "Strawberries for luncheon to-day."

If the booksellers about town would submit their marked sales-catalogues for inspection, the number of unlimited or discretionary orders which are registered thereon would plunge all true collectors into still deeper gloom than is caused by the bare facts of the sales. Now it should not be necessary to say that, whatever his wealth, the true collector is never regardless of price. To get the coveted object only at its fair price is his simple duty, to get it far below the price is his most refined pleasure and ultimate triumph. To all these sweetest emotions of the collector, the man who lodges discretionary orders and unlimited bids is oblivious. What wonder, then, that the collector eschews him?—admits him to be a conqueror, a very Tamerlane of the auctions, but insists that he is, after all, a barbarian.

Naturally, dealers look with complacency upon their many clients who bring unlimited zeal and money with very little knowledge to their collecting; for the millionaire to whom a library of rarities is, like a steam yacht, merely an appanage of great wealth, will scrutinize more closely his builders' contracts than his booksellers' bills. But it is a question if this half speculative increase in book values is really in anybody's interest. In the stock market it would be called roundly "dangerous inflation." The dealers are tempted to follow the example of the more careless bidders, to pay more than books are worth or are sure to bring again. Then the fact that book-buying becomes a matter of lavish expenditure attaches it too closely to the general course of prosperity. It certainly is an indignity that books, as has happened, should fail to bring their real value, like wines of the rarer vintages, simply because stocks are sluggish.

But there is a still finer point of ethics involved. Suppose several agents find themselves at a book auction, each with an unlimited bid for a book of no great rarity. The case is not an imaginary one; under these conditions the strangest things have happened. Mr. Bullen's charming "Muses Library" has, while still in print, sold for several times its published price, and the commoner issues of the Roycroft Press have been carried up out of all reason. This is a case where the literal execution of an unlimited order comes perilously near to playing upon a customer's ignorance. In a sense, the agent is bound only to execute the order; in another sense he has a duty, a somewhat delicate one, to enlighten the bibliographical darkness in which a valuable patron is well content to live.

True collectors must extract what comfort they may from a sufficiently painful situation. Many of these books which are captured in humiliating fashion, by the brute force of money, afterwards gain reinstatement through passing to the public libraries, where they serve the general good. Then the more optimistic indulge the hope that these millionaire collectors are not wholly ineducable. Many in the past and many in the present have the finesse of the genuine collector, and merely add to knowledge of books and diligence in searching for them that proper audacity, grounded upon both knowledge and wealth, which every one must applaud. Meanwhile it is the duty of all whom it may concern to bring home to *parvenu* collectors the errors of their ways. To send in an unlimited bid on an object of average rarity is not merely an immoral act. In the eyes of the *cognoscenti* it is much worse than that; it is a capital impropriety—a gross breach of the finer traditions of collecting.

Correspondence.

"THE STATES."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When referring to this country, our English cousins generally employ one of

two designations — "America" or "the States." The former lacks precision, and savors of arrogance, in restricting to part of one continent a name which belongs to two continents. The latter, though such was not formerly the case, is now applied to no other country than our own, and is at once concise and precise. Moreover, so convenient is it that we Americans, when travelling among British subjects, readily fall to using it. And yet the American who should employ it at home would, by his fellow-countrymen, be looked upon as guilty of using a foreign phrase, of affectation, and of Anglomania. If, however, it can be shown that the expression was first employed not in England, but among ourselves, then the objection to its use by us, based on its supposed British origin, falls to the ground.

That the word "State," in the sense of "body politic," was in common use in this country throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries could be abundantly proved, were it necessary. For a few years even before the Declaration of Independence, though no single colony was individually called a State, the colonies collectively were occasionally referred to as "the American States" or "the States of America." When, therefore, on July 4, 1776, the thirteen colonies ceased to be colonies and were formed into a union of States, it was inevitable that each should individually be called a State, and that collectively they should be called "the United States of America," or "the States of America," or "the American States," or "the United States," or simply "the States." This last term, it need scarcely be pointed out, had long been employed to designate the States of Holland. Thus there was nothing novel in the term itself; indeed, in the correspondence of Franklin and of others, where "the States" are spoken of, it is often only by the context that one can tell whether the reference is to the United States of Holland or to the United States of America.

The following extracts illustrate the three phases through which the term under discussion has gone among ourselves: first, it was applied to the United States collectively; secondly, after the acquisition of Louisiana, it was used to designate the States in distinction from the Territories; and, thirdly, it was again applied to the United States as a whole, but merely as a reflection of British use. The last of the extracts seems to indicate that the term has entered upon a new phase.

"It is true that the king being the head of the American states, and at the same time under the control of the two houses of parliament here [England], a virtual control arises to them from thence over his conduct in America." 1773, June 11, A. Lee, in *Life* (1829), i. 231.

"The following is a Copy of an *infamous Thing* handed about here last Tuesday Evening, and now reprinted to satisfy the Curiosity of the Public. As it is replete with consummate Impudence, the most abominable Lies, and stuffed with daring Expressions of Tyranny, as well as Rebellion against the established, constitutional Authority, both of GREAT-BRITAIN and of the AMERICAN STATES, no one will hesitate in pronounsing it to be the *genuine* Production of that perfidious, petty Tyrant, *Thomas Gage*." 1775, June 8-15, *New England Chronicle*, No. 359, p. 2\1.

"The resolutions being read aloud to the army, the following toasts were given, . . . 1. The American Independent States. . . . The Union Flag of the American states waved upon the capitol [at Williamsburg] during the whole of this ceremony." 1776, May 17, in Wirt's *Life of Patrick Henry* (1818), p. 195.

"Sir:—The Congress having yesterday been pleased to promote you to the rank of Brigadier-General in the Army of the American States, I do myself the pleasure to enclose your commission, and wish you happy." 1776, Aug. 10, President of Congress to A. St. Clair, in *St. Clair Papers*, i. 372.

"St. Patrick's day, multitudes of Irishmen in the streets with green in their hats. Went into the city [London] & called at the N E Coffee house, where I heard that the states had elected Genl. Washington, *Lord protector*." 1777, March 17, E. Oxnard, in *N. E. Hist. & Gen. Register*, xxvi. 225.

"I am just now also transiently told that he [Franklin] had been received in the public character of a plenipotentiary from the American States." 1777, March 20, A. Hamilton, *Works* (1886), vii. 478.

"The Congress of the United States of America have seen with concern in the public newspapers an edict of the late King of Portugal, dated at the Palace of Ajuda the 4th of July, 1776, wherein the States are spoken of in terms of contumely." 1777, April 26, B. Franklin, *Works* (1888), vi. 91.

"Billy and Sam C—— and Bob Schaw will be obliged to leave Carolina for not taking the oaths to the states, and so must several Scotch, for the like crime." 1777, June 21, James Murray, *Letters* (1901), p. 266.

"The Committee . . . are also to take the Names of all Refugees & other disaffected Persons & take the Names of all Towns & States, from whence such persons come, who are justly suspected of being inimical to the States of America." 1777, March, *Boston Records*, xviii. 277.

"Mr. John Pidgeon . . . brings fresh news of our Success against ye Enemy in recovering ye Fort on Hudson's River, which they had lately taken from ye States, & fortified more Strongly, which is called Stoney Point, near King's Ferry." 1779, July 21, Rev. E. Parkman, *Diary* (1899), p. 148.

"I immediately wrote to the Inhabitants in general, Informing them where I was and what I determined to do desireing the Friends to the States to keep close to their Houses and those in the British Interest to repair to the fort and fight for their King." 1779, Nov. 9, G. R. Clark, *Campaign in the Illinois* (1869), p. 68.

"Capt. Derby, in a large ship of his brother's, is now at Nanz, to return in a month; which is encouraging to all not under the ban of the States." 1783, Feb. 14, S. Curwen, *Journal & Letters* (1864), p. 404.

"But I hope your forgiveness for saying that the assiduity of the British Commanders to restrain the Indians from hostilities still wanted the visit which by your command I have made to them, to satisfy the Indians that they had nothing to fear from the enmity of the States." 1783, Aug. 18, E. Douglass, in *Penn. Archives*, x. 90.

"In a visit I lately made by the North river to the lakes, in the necessity I was under of returning thro' Canada to the States, I was informed of some of the measures adopted by the British Government in that province." 1784, Oct. 30, J. Monroe, *Writings* (1898), i. 39.

"They feel the consequences of trade and commerce with America too sensibly to pursue such mistaken policy as that which lost not only this commerce but the subjection of the States." 1784, Nov. 26, J. Tyler, in *William & Mary Coll. Quart.*, i. 37.

"The Spaniards, the French, the English, and the States of America, have had many and painful proofs of their address and prowess in this method [of Indian warfare]." 1794, S. Williams, *Hist. Vermont*, p. 148.

"Washington [County] . . . ought to be extended to the St. Croix, or what the natives called the Magacadava, but the English have crouded in on the states as far as the Cobscook." 1795, J. Sullivan, *Hist. Maine*, p. 396.

"Colonel Allen and Major Lunno met at the same place [Isle aux Noix, Canada], and the Major requested Colonel Allen to put down in writing the most important matters for the consideration of the Commander in Chief . . . . Colonel Allen declined writing anything on the subject, lest his writings should be exposed (which would be dangerous to him in the States, and destroy his influence there)." 1798, I. Allen, *Hist. Vermont*, p. 165.

"Our principal communication from Lower Canada to the States, is by way of Lake Champlain and St. Johns." 1799, *A Tour through Upper & Lower Canada*. By a Citizen of the U. S., p. 5.

"Yesterday captain Lewis while hunting killed a bird not common in the states: it is like a magpie and is a bird of prey." 1804, P. Gass, *Journal* (1807), p. 40.

"Caught a curious little animal on the prairie, which my Frenchman termed a *prairie mole*, but it is very different from the mole of the States." 1804, Z. M. Pike, *Sources of the Mississippi* (1810), p. 31.

"In the states, those who follow the plough, are scattered over the country; while the mechanics, and retailers of merchandise, gather in a cluster. Hence the difference in the appearance of the towns or villages of this country, from those of the states." 1814, H. M. Brackenridge, *Views of Louisiana*, p. 119.

"She had seen [at New Madrid, Missouri] families of fashion and opulence, from 'the states,' as they call them, and from old France settled there." 1826, T. Flint, *Recollections of the Last Ten Years*, p. 228.

"After the death of Pe-shau-ba, I wished to have made another attempt to come to the States; but Waw-zhe-kah-maish-koon prevented me." 1830, J. Tanner, *Narr. of Captivity*, p. 177.

"The inhabitants were uneducated French people, who . . . expressed much surprise when I told them the ground they lived upon was in dispute between Great Britain and 'the States.'" 1838, J. T. Hodge in C. T. Jackson's *Second Report on the Geol. of the Public Lands*, p. 62.

"Molly proved unfaithful to her first husband, and eloped with her two children, in order to enjoy the society of Joe in the States." 1841, G. Powers, *Hist. Sketches of Coos*, p. 182.

"The banks of the Purgatory, where this stream debouches, begin to assume something of a mountain aspect, different from scenery in the States." 1846, Lt. W. H. Emory, *Notes of a Mil. Reconnaissance* (1848), p. 17.

"I thought of 'caching' everything, and walking into the States; but what was to be done with the sick man?" 1847, Lt. J. W. Abert, *ibid.*, p. 534.

"In spite of this, however, and in spite of narrow and dirty streets, the city [Montreal] has a *finished* air, which distinguishes it from all towns of equal size in the States." 1854, B. Taylor, *At Home & Abroad* (1860), p. 169.

"The newspapers in 'the States,' the title by which the islanders [of Porto Rico] distinguish the home country from its new possessions, have just recorded certain experiments made in Connecticut." 1902, Feb. 6, *Nation*, lxxiv. 107\2.

The history of the term thus proves to be curious. First used by ourselves, frequently employed for a few years, it gradually fell into disuse in this country, was adopted in England, and is now so completely obsolete in the land of its birth as to be regarded by us as of British origin. It is, then, a question not of introducing a foreign term, but of readopting one of our own discarded expressions.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, April 1, 1902.

"AS FIT AS A FIDDLE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The colloquial phrase "as fit as a fiddle" (= in good "form," or condition)

seems to be quoted in Dr. Murray's New English Dictionary only from the years 1882 and 1889. For an earlier use—apparently with a different meaning—see Beaumont and Fletcher, "Women Pleased," iv. 3:

Bart. Am I come fit, Penurio?
Pen. As fit as a fiddle;
My master's now abroad about his business.

W. P. M.

HAVERFORD, PA., April 24, 1902.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I rectify a misunderstanding which seems to be involved in one or two of the statements (in the report of the meeting of the National Academy of Sciences) on page 323 of your last issue? The theory of compressible atoms is not advanced to explain the law of gas volumes discovered by Gay-Lussac and Humboldt; that law is already adequately covered by older hypotheses. The new theory is rather suggested in order to explain plausibly the anomalies exhibited by the structure and contraction of *solids* and *liquids*, as well as the inexactness of the equation of Van der Waals.—Yours faithfully,

THEODORE W. RICHARDS.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 28, 1902.

Notes.

Prominent among Doubleday, Page & Co.'s forthcoming publications is Dr. John Henry Clewell's 'The History of Wachovia'—an account of the Moravian Church in North Carolina during a century and a half, 1752-1902.

Volumes v. and vi. of Captain Brinkley's monumental work on Japan and China (Boston: The J. B. Millet Co.) will be issued next month, completing the numbers allotted to history, literature, manners, and customs. Volumes vii. and viii. will treat pictorial and keramic art respectively. The remaining four will be devoted to China. The set will be complete with the year.

A new edition of Clive Holland's 'My Japanese Wife,' with illustrations by Genjiro Yeto, is in the press of the F. A. Stokes Company, who also announce for the fall an important collection of 'Bismarck Letters,' in two volumes.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will offer to vegetarians and others interested Mr. Sidney Beard's 'Guide-Book to Natural, Hygienic and Humane Diet.'

We receive, through the courtesy of Messrs. M. Knoedler & Co., the catalogue, in folio, of the 'Collection Edmond Huybrechts,' which is to be sold at auction in Antwerp, May 12-15. The volume is sumptuous even for its expensive kind, and abounds in heliogravure reproductions of the rarer pictures. These we cannot enumerate at this time, but it may be remarked in passing that the older Dutch and Flemish schools are fully represented—by Rubens, Van Dyck, the elder Brueghel, two admirable Terburg portraits, and a Wouvermans snow scene, among others; the modern Belgian schools claim Baron Leys (fifteen examples), and an interesting series of Van Beerses and Alfred Stevenses. The chiefs of the Barbizon school—Troyon, Rousseau, Corot, and Diaz—are well represented, while a fine Géricault may be named among the older pictures of the French school. Scattering pictures, Italian and Spanish, many of indefinite attribution, complete the assortment. A tiny panel, "The Virgin with Angels," by the rarest of old French masters, Jean Fouquet, is the gem of the collection. One could wish that some turn of good fortune might bring it to the Metropolitan Museum. It is of the loveliest quality. The catalogue may be obtained through the Knoedlers or other of the prominent local dealers.

A wife's devotion and inexperience excuse the bulk and disorder of 'Men and Memories: Personal Reminiscences,' by John Russell Young, edited by May D. Russell Young (New York: F. Tennyson Neely). The book is unreadable connectedly, and the late Mr. Young's journalistic style had no charm to make literature of his collected articles. That on Lincoln, designed to form part of an original work having some coherency and plan, exemplifies the merits and defects of the writer. As reporter of the Gettysburg speech, he has something really significant to tell us of the total want of effect produced in the brief delivery from a single sheet of paper. One who has patience may find a similar reward in running through these scrappy jottings about Forney, Bayard Taylor, Grant, Edwin Forrest, Whitman, Bennett, Greeley, Raymond, Jennings, Curtis, Phillips, Lowell, Dickens, Henry George, etc., etc. Not a few letters to Mr. Young from notabilities are to be encountered in this medley.

Mr. David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., sends us Parts vi. and vii. of his 'Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some Related Families of Adjoining Towns and of York County, Maine,' which usher in his second volume. They are mostly derived from eighteenth-century records of Salisbury and Amesbury churches now in private hands. The compiler-publisher is continuing the work at a loss, and its prolongation and size must depend on the support of those interested.

An attempt to establish a Kentish connection of the New Jersey Woodruffs is made in a brochure of thirty-eight pages by Francis E. Woodruff of Morristown. Copies are for sale by the New Jersey Historical Society, in Newark.

From the Unit Library, Limited (London and New York), come the first four numbers of its new series of reprints: 'The Vicar of Wakefield,' Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' and Emerson's 'English Traits.' These books are of a size for the pocket, and are neatly bound in red paper, cloth, or leather, according to price. The paper is poor, and the letter-press only tolerable. The editors, however, offer the inducement of an excellent choice of texts, fidelity to good editions, and brief bibliographical notes. The originality of the enterprise lies in the fact that these reprints are sold according to number of pages—that is, roughly, by cost of production. The "unit" is twenty-five pages, for which, and every fraction thereof, ½d. is paid. Covers are paid for separately, 1d. for paper, 5d. for cloth, 1s. for leather. This makes the first issues cost, in paper: 'The Vicar,' 5½d.; 'The Sentimental Journey,' 4d.; the 'Origin of Species,' 11d.; 'English Traits,' 5d. It will be seen that these prices compare favorably with that of "Morley's Universal Library," or of the Cassells' still cheaper series of pocket reprints in paper, while the Unit Library engages that all texts chosen shall be reproduced in their integrity. The "unit" plan, it may be said, in passing, is merely a refinement upon that of the admirable "Reclam-Bibliothek." To follow the present issues are Hamilton's Memoirs of Count Gramont, Goethe's "Faust" (Anster's translation), Burney's 'Buccaneers of America,' Browning's 'Poems' (1833-'58). The quality of the proof-reading remains to be determined.

As already announced, the second 'Year Book of the Pennsylvania Society of New York' does more than report the second annual festival of that body. It abridges a number of articles of the twelvemonth which relate to Pennsylvania, like Mr. S. W. Pennypacker's comparison of the Quaker to the Puritan commonwealth, to the disadvantage of Massachusetts; and has papers on Revolutionary parks, monuments, and memorials, 1901; memorial portraits, 1901; historic anniversaries and celebrations; historical buildings, etc., as well as reviews of new Pennsylvania books, a long list. The illustrations are numerous, diversified, and often curious in the extreme—from a sketch-map of Fort Duquesne to a view of Valley Forge, and from Pennsylvania Quaker silhouettes to the map of a preliminary survey for Mason and Dixon's line. The 'Year Book' may be had of the Secretary, Mr. Barr Ferree.

The fifteenth bound volume of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's *Land of Sunshine*, the last to bear that name, which passes into *Out West*, reaches us from Los Angeles, Cal. The usual rich variety is spread before us, and on the material and social side we select for mention papers on how to colonize the Pacific Coast, on Rochdale Coöperation in California, on State and national irrigation policies and the struggle for water. The editor contributes two more authentic translations of sources of early Western history, of which Perea's report on New Mexico, in 1632-33, will be included in the sumptuous edition of Benavides's Memorial now in press under Mr. Lummis's direction.

Decided interest attaches to the January-March number of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Macmillan) by reason of Prof. R. B. Richardson's description, with illustrations, of the series of colossal statues at Corinth uncovered by the American School at Athens, of which he is the director. Neither the statuary nor the architectural ornamentation, being Roman work of the second century A.D., is intrinsically beautiful, but there is considerable novelty in adaptation and in the pseudo-Caryatid construction.

"Who Burned Columbia?" is asked and answered, with probability if not conclusively, by Mr. James Ford Rhodes in the *American Historical Review* for April. The origin of fires, whether accidental or incendiary, is too frequently indeterminable in ordinary times to make the debatability of a war-time conflagration unnatural. Southern authorities early and fiercely fixed the sole blame on Sherman, as having deliberately ordered the wiping out of Columbia. This would make the story of the event a peace tract. Mr. Rhodes's inclination is to make of it rather a temperance tract. A jail delivery of Union prisoners as well as convicts threw upon the town, deprived of all civic control, elements bent on reprisal or

plunder. The first Union troops to arrive "were at once supplied by citizens and negroes with large quantities of intoxicating liquor, brought to them in cups, bottles, demijohns, and buckets." This made them unmanageable and prevented their use as guards in preserving public and private property. After dark the sack of the city was accompanied by the firing of buildings. "Some fiend" began it; but who was he? The Union generals who arrived on the spot before Sherman, did their best to stay the flames, but almost in vain. The next morning, February 18, 1865, the Third Brigade killed 2 men, wounded 30, and arrested 370 in restoring order.

The latest form of Count Gubernatis's activity is visible in the International Hellene-Latin Society of his recent founding at Rome. The constitution of this society is given in the first number of its fortnightly organ, the *Cronache della Civiltà Elleno-Latina* (Rome: Corso Umberto I., Palazzo Bernini, No. 151), in the production of which he has had the laboring oar. From his pen are long articles on Victor Hugo, General Stephen Türr, Sully-Prudhomme and Mistral and Gaston Paris, and the Goethe statue at Rome; and his are the greater part of the book reviews. The *Cronache* is a fair quarto of 32 pages, in which one may expect to meet and to understand Italian, French, or Spanish, into one of which languages will be concurrently translated any article in another tongue that may be admitted. Not one word of Greek appears in this first issue, except in the title. There are several illustrations, chiefly portraits. We will call attention further to a private letter from the Uruguayan Minister, Dr. Daniel Muñoz, on the changes which Castilian has undergone on the American continent. This movement of Count Gubernatis's smacks somewhat of a response to pan-Teutonic assumption of world-superiority.

Count Gubernatis's 'Su le Orme di Dante' receives notice in the April number of the *Zeitschrift für Bucherfreunde*, beginning its sixth volume (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The number is, however, essentially a monograph on the British Museum, with many illustrations of the building and its literary treasures, by H. A. L. Degener of Oxford. The editor, Fedor von Zobeltitz, and his publishers have to confess that this admirable periodical, a pioneer, has not yet made the meat to feed on and prosper. Accordingly a rise in the subscription price has been resolved on—to nine marks the quarter-year.

A Spanish weekly journal *Vida Nueva* (New Life), which numbers among its contributors many of the best Spanish authors, has recently published some startling revelations concerning the application of torture to accused persons in order to extort confessions of their guilt. A workman on a railroad was charged with stealing a piece of freight, arrested by the police, and thrown into a subterranean dungeon, where he was subjected to cruel torture by means of thumb-screws, which crushed his hands. He proved to be innocent of the alleged crime and was released. Although threatened with severe punishment if he should reveal what had occurred, he went to several physicians, as well as to the editors of different papers, showed the condition of his hands, and made a full statement of the case. The *Vida Nueva* took the matter up and found, as the result of further investigations, that judicial torture is still practised in Spain, and that instruments employed by the Inquisition for inflicting pain are still in use. In this instance the inquisitors (two in number) were tried and sentenced to six months' imprisonment for "exceeding their powers" and showing "excess of zeal in the exercise of their office." On their release they might find congenial occupation in the Philippines.

Dr. J. C. Kapteyn of Groningen, Holland, continues the publications from his astronomical laboratory; No. 5 being a mathematical discussion of the distribution of cosmic velocities, prepared with the collaboration of his brother, W. Kapteyn, professor at Utrecht. It forms an important contribution to stellar theories, in that it is an attempt to deduce from the observations a so-called "law of the velocities"—that is, the law which defines the number of stars having a linear velocity equal to a third, a half, double, or perhaps triple that of the solar system in space. Or it may be stated as the law in accord with which the frequency of a linear velocity is expressible as a function of its magnitude. The investigation may be regarded as in a sense tentative, and the time is fast approaching, in consequence of the able work of Campbell at the Lick and Frost at the Yerkes Observatory, when its results will in great part be superseded by those deducible from spectroscopic methods whose accuracy is independent of distance. Another paper by J. C. Kapteyn (No. 8) embraces a discussion of the average distance of stars whose magnitude and proper motion have been ascertained. His conclusions suffice for the deduction of certain generalizations on the distribution of the stars throughout space, and the frequency of different degrees of absolute brightness in the stellar universe.

The letter of Levi Woodbury, among the historical manuscripts published in the April Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, recalls an almost forgotten episode in our history, the Congress of American Nations at Panama in 1826. The heated controversy as to whether the United States should take part in it led to the bloodless duel between Randolph and Clay, about which this query is raised: "How far will the retention of Mr. Clay in the Cabinet after this be an approbation of the duel?" Woodbury's comments on the manner in which J. Q. Adams spent a part of an appropriation for furniture for the White House is interesting as showing the feeling about amusements in many prominent men of that day. "It has been a subject of mortification here to his friends, and must have astonished you, I think, that *'a billiard table* $50,' *'billiard balls* $6,' *'chess men* $23,' etc., etc., should compose a part of the articles purchased by him with this public fund and should go down to our posterity as a part of the furniture for the *President's use*—in this virtuous stage of our country's growth and history. The newspapers have, to my joy, been very silent about this, and I hope yet that some explanation can be given, but none has been attempted up to this time here." A passage in one of Gen. Henry Dearborn's letters, referring to the Presidential campaign of 1823 and the "small chance for an election by the people, . . . which would be a great misfortune," gives expression to a fear which there has been small opportunity to justify. "No other circumstance will, in my opinion, so much tend to a disunion of the Confederacy as contested elections of President by Congress."

—Those who fear lest the Japanese hand should lose its cunning in artistic industry may be reassured by reading the circular of information just issued by the Higher Technological School of Tokio, which was established in May, 1881, for the instruction of artisans, in pursuance of an act of the Department of Education. By an imperial ordinance of last year the school has taken its present name. It is under the direct control of the Minister of State for Education. Its edifices and grounds, occupying more than 15,000 square yards, are on the river Sumida, facing the broad way leading to the great Asakusa public gardens, which almost every foreign visitor in Tokio visits. Two canals afford special facilities for transportation to the furnaces, experimental shops, and laboratories. The departments are the Higher Technological School, the Annex School of Industrial Apprentices, the Training Department of Industrial Teachers, and the Annex School of Industrial Supplementary Education. The arts taught are dyeing, weaving, keramics, applied chemistry, mechanical engineering, electricity, industrial designing, work in metal and wood, lacquer, etc. In the twenty-one years of its history, the school has graduated 974 persons, who are now serving as engineers, foremen of factories, and teachers in industrial schools, while others are pursuing their studies in Europe or America. Thirty-seven are in military service under the conscript law, and only 2 per cent. are unknown to the School authorities or to public fame. The term of each course extends over a period of three years, and the work prescribed is both theoretic and technical. The school hours in the higher school are thirty-nine per week, and the year of work is from September 11 to July 10. The age limit for entrance is under twenty-five in the higher school, and, besides the vernacular, the applicant must know English, sciences, and mathematics—in other words, have an education equivalent to that of the Middle School. After graduation, at least one year must be spent under the supervision of the School, in practical work in factory or workshop. Provision is made for eclectic students, and certificates are granted. The Annex School for Industrial Apprentices holds from April 1 to March 31, or the entire year, the school hours per week being from thirty-five to forty-four; and graduates must serve two years under supervision for training in practical work. The Annex School of Industrial Supplementary Education is, for the most part, a night school. As matter of fact, it is not possible, amid the absorbing demands of modern work and fashion, to get work done like that, for example, at the World's Exposition in Chicago, or recently in Paris, where the architecture and decorations of the middle and early ages were reproduced, except through these graduates of the high Technical School in Tokio. The value of such education has been demonstrated beyond cavil.

—Louisa Evelyn Denison has edited, and E. P. Dutton & Co. have published, 'Fifty Years at East Brent: The Letters of

George Anthony Denison, Archdeacon of Taunton.' Hardly could there be a more representative biography contributory to the ecclesiastical history of England during the last half of the nineteenth century. During that period, "the god of things as they are," the established order and belief, had no protagonist more mettlesome than Archdeacon Denison. Born in 1805 and dying in 1896, he was about five years younger than Newman, and outlived him about five years. They had much in common; much in difference. Denison's was a much more conservative mind than Newman's, as fixed as Newman's was restless; the ancient landmarks counted for much more in his reverence and affection. Hence he remained an Anglican in spite of storm and stress. He was a High Churchman of the type that anticipated the Oxford Movement, and at a time (before 1830) when Newman was still evangelical. This beautiful book, with its charming head-piece illustrations and excellent portraits, compresses the first forty years of the Archdeacon's life into a brief preface, and opens the long series of his letters at 1845, the year of Newman's Roman submission. Thereafter Archdeacon Denison was foremost in the assault on every new form of liberal thought or usage, every new concession to the liberal spirit. The Gorham decision, which gave Manning's Anglicanism its quietus, first invited his opposition; then 'Essays and Reviews'; next "the many and mighty errors" of 'Ecce Homo'; while Temple's appointment to the Exeter bishopric, the assault on the Athanasian Creed, the Church Schools Bill, the Burials Bills, and finally 'Lux Mundi,' each of them found him a resolute opponent of innovation. 'Lux Mundi' he denounced as the most deadly blow *ab intra* that the Church had ever received. "The unfettered exercise of the right of private judgment" was for him England's "dishonor and her sin," and "the use and application of intellect simply that of confirming ourselves and others in the implicit acceptance of what has been revealed." There is something very interesting in the consistency of a mind untroubled by a single doubt of the traditional forms of worship and belief.

—Villemain, writing of Edward Young in 1864, declared that the power of the author of 'Night Thoughts' was not yet exhausted; but a subsequent generation that responds indifferently to the profounder *Weltschmerz* of Chateaubriand and Byron has little predilection for the diluted melancholy of the eighteenth-century clergyman. It is very probably for this reason that the elaborate monograph by Dr. W. Thomas (Paris: Hachette), entitled 'Edward Young: Étude sur sa Vie et ses Œuvres,' has succeeded in fulfilling the demands of contemporary literary study by showing no obvious bias. This voluminous work of six hundred pages may claim a place on the same shelf with Dr. Angellier's monumental 'Burns' and Dr. Léon Morel's 'Thomson.' (One may well ask, in parenthesis, why English scholars have allowed such lacunæ to be filled by French pens.) Of the two principal divisions, the second, treating of the character and influence of Young's work, is the more valuable and interesting, for in the preceding biographical chapters the noteworthy features are merely the rectification of dates, and the attempt at vindicating Young from charges so often made concerning his self-seeking worldliness. But Dr. Thomas's examination of Young's critical ideas and of the rôle played by the 'Night Thoughts' in the history of literary relations between England and the Continent practically exhausts the subject. An occasional exaggeration in detail may be noted. There is, for instance, no ground for tracing Byron's "Sorrow is knowledge" to Young's "Knowing is suffering" (p. 497), seeing that both poets must have been familiar with Eccl. i, 18. Young certainly did not invent the verb *uncreate*, which occurs in the famous peroration of 'The Dunciad'; and who but a foreign critic would imagine that in the following verse Young intended the word *because* to be accented on the first syllable?

"Shall Truth be silent because Folly frowns?"

—Mr. A. G. Bradley, who has already published a life of Wolfe, returns to the subject of the Seven Years' War in 'The Fight with France for North America' (Dutton). The volume before us either represents a second impression, or else the book has been slow in reaching this country, for the English edition appeared last year. We mention this fact because Mr. Bradley writes specially and avowedly for English readers. It is a source of regret to him that there should be no general knowledge in England of the events whereby the French were driven from their possessions on the St. Lawrence and in the West. "Every schoolboy knows, or is popularly (or probably very erroneously) supposed to know, the details of the Plains of Abraham, but I will undertake to say that there are many thousands of schoolmasters who have never so much as even heard of the still bloodier battle of St. Foy, fought upon the same ground, within six months, by the same troops." The modest purpose of this volume is to lighten such darkness. Mr. Bradley, by drawing from Warburton, Kingsford, and Parkman, succeeds in getting together such information regarding the war as is most essential, but in important respects this book leaves much to be desired. For example, the character of the Old Régime in New France is not well grasped, or Mr. Bradley would never have written this passage: "They [the French Canadians] had been, in fact, slaves —slaves to the *corvées* and unpaid military service—debarred from education and crammed with gross fictions and superstitions as an aid to their docility and their value as food for powder." While we have no desire to write an apology either of seigniorial tenure or of the ecclesiastical system, we must protest that these words are greatly exaggerated. If Mr. Bradley will examine, for example, the actual obligations of the *censitaires*, he will find that the Canadian tenantry were far from being slaves. In short, he has prepared his narrative without much reference to the large body of literature on the subject which exists in French. Considering the professed limitations of his purpose, this may not be a fatal omission, but the larger interests of historical writing suffer by such neglect. "I make no attempt in these pages to address the serious student of this war, if, indeed, there be any such on this side the Atlantic. I have few incidents to relate that have not been told with greater elaboration elsewhere; indeed, I am writing more especially for those to whom nearly the whole story will be new." Mr. Bradley shows much fondness for his theme, and he is not unlikely to gain readers among those who constitute his chosen audience, but his book has been loosely put together, and will be less useful here than in England, where little notice has yet been paid to the details of the contest.

—The 'Review of Historical Publications Relating to Canada' continues to be edited each year by Prof. G. M. Wrong and Mr. H. H. Langton (The University of Toronto: Published by the Librarian). Volume vi. contains few long articles, but during the past twelvemonth there has been no dearth of books and articles which suggest minor notice. The history of Canada as a whole seems to be attracting more attention than that of the separate provinces. Of the other departments here represented, "Archæology, Ethnology, and Folk-Lore" comes first, with "Geography, Economics, and Statistics" next. Dr. A. F. Chamberlain of Clark University has made himself the *cheval de bataille* for this number of the 'Review,' since no less than forty-seven titles are credited to his share. Col. Cruikshank and Mr. J. S. Carstairs have also been active contributors. The only other signed articles are by Professor Davidson and Mr. Angus MacMurchy, so that, on the whole, the reviewing continues to be largely anonymous. The longest single article is devoted to the life, works, and autobiography of Sir J. W. Dawson. Among other interesting reviews we may mention Mr. Carstairs's criticism of the 'Military Life of Field-Marshal George, first Marquis Townshend.' This is a misleading book on an important subject—the conduct, namely, of operations before Quebec, and the character of Wolfe as a commander in the campaign which has given him abiding reputation. Col. Townshend, the author of the biography, has gone wrong in a multitude of details, plagiarized openly from Warburton, and taken up the cause of his ancestor against Wolfe with more vehemence than knowledge or discretion. We should point out that this work is not historical in the sense of excluding from its pages reference to contemporary life and progress in Canada. In examining each new 'Review,' we are impressed by the care which is taken to secure completeness in this respect. This year, there is a good deal about Imperialism, the Canadian troops in South Africa, the present status of Newfoundland, the development of coal and steel industries in Cape Breton, and the geographical exploration of the Northwest. Another point ought also to be emphasized. The present work has a rather peculiar bibliographical value. That is to say, the literature relating to Canada that appears each year is not so vast that it cannot be kept in hand by two vigorous editors. As a result, few items of any importance are omitted, and the reader at a distance may use this 'Review' with the feeling that he has before him a conspectus of current writing upon the Dominion and its provinces, which is practically complete.

HARRISSE'S DISCOVERY OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

Découverte et Evolution Cartographique de Terre-Neuve et des Pays Circonvoisins, 1497-1501-1769. Par Henry Harrisse. London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles. 4to, pp. 420, with 26 plates.

Mr. Harrisse, having set forth his theo-

ries regarding the course of cartographic development during the sixteenth century in his great work on 'The Discovery of North America,' published in 1892, has now gone on to show how these theories stand the test of an exhaustive detailed study of a single well-defined locality. Newfoundland provides an admirable subject, in every way suited to his purpose, by its early and continuous prominence on the maps, and because of Mr. Harrisse's especial familiarity with the history of the region. It does not appear that he has ever visited the northeastern American coast, but for thirty years his studies have repeatedly led him in that direction. The Cabots, Corte Real, the printed and manuscript sources for the history of New France, the discovery of the Mississippi, have provided subjects for books and essays from his pen, very nearly equalling in amount his voluminous writings about Columbus. High expectations were aroused by the announcement of this latest work by the master student of the period of discovery, and it is a pleasure to report that the two handsome quarto volumes amply justify the anticipations of those who were most familiar with his previous works.

Mr. Harrisse presents these volumes as a study in cartographic method, as an attempt to find out what maps have to offer towards increasing the stock of knowledge of the history of the world. If his results are not, on the whole, very striking, if no very considerable additions are made to what was before known regarding the course of events, the fault is not with the method nor with the way in which it has been applied. The investigator must perforce be content with what his material contains, and Mr. Harrisse has undoubtedly extracted well-nigh all that was to be got from the maps of Newfoundland. When a student goes beyond the usual sources of information, each new scrap of detail, however insignificant in itself, affords valuable means of verifying and substantiating the general mass of information already made familiar. Data secured from other than the ordinary written narratives have a peculiar importance in checking the documentary material. Mr. Harrisse's 'Terre-Neuve' has thus a value for historical students much greater than its contribution to their knowledge of the geographical history of eastern Canada and Newfoundland, because it reveals most clearly how many things there are which ought to be known before the early history of that region—and of every other—can be understood completely. By his analyses of the maps, Mr. Harrisse shows repeatedly that voyages were made, coasts visited, explorations undertaken, many years before the earliest expeditions to the places in question which are recorded in the surviving written documents.

There are two distinct divisions, not always distinguished, and perhaps not clearly appreciated, by Mr. Harrisse, in the study of the way in which geographers have arrived at what is now supposed to be an exact representation of Newfoundland. The first traces the way in which the coast line was put down, fragmentarily, on the sailing-charts of successive voyagers, and then coördinated and verified upon the mariners' maps at the home ports. The mid-Atlantic forelands visited by the Corte Reales and by the fishermen of Western Europe little by little attached and detached themselves to and from the neighboring coasts; slowly, but on the whole regularly, progressing toward an accurate portrayal of the triangular mass of headlands and inlets which make up Newfoundland. The fishermen and sailing-masters, familiar with the ways of seacoasts, understood how little reliance can safely be placed upon maps, even those of one's own making, and so they had little trouble off-shore or on the high seas. They took the land as they found it, charted it for future guidance, and fixed its relative location as best they could to match with the other shores they and their friends had visited. The few examples of their handiwork which are still in existence prove that these sailing-charts hit upon the real facts with surprising exactness. The reason is obvious; the makers were under no inducement to delineate anything of coast or continent beyond what they personally knew about. Troubles began when these charts reached the workrooms of the professional map-makers, whose business it was to portray the whole world, with all its component parts.

The second division of Mr. Harrisse's subject introduces us to the men who made a business of geography, and who, having, like some of their successors, seen very little of the outlying parts of the globe, tried to find out how they ought to represent the lands beyond the North Atlantic fishing-banks. What should they do, for example, with a chart giving a roughly drawn representation of the curious quadripartite peninsula of Avalon, in from Cape Race? Other charts, quite as correctly, because drawn by men who had sailed around the cape from St. John's to St. Mary's, showed this same tract as a rectangular promontory. How was the geographer to tell which was correct, with no common scale of measurements and no clue by which to harmonize the contradictions? Each geographer of necessity based his ideas and his maps upon those of his predecessors, with nothing to show where personal observation ceased and scientific guessing began. Ruysch, who had visited the Newfoundland waters, published a remarkably correct representation of the Avalon peninsula at Rome in 1508; but those who used his map, at some far-away German seat of learning, had no means of knowing that this was the one single detail which must not be altered, and that all the rest was drawn in accordance with sound general principles, subject to amendment upon specific information from actual observation. Mr. Harrisse supplies abundant material for studying these phases of his subject, but without hinting at their interest or their real significance. For him, everything centres around the "schools" whose existence and relationship he first described in his 'Discovery' of 1892. His groupings by nationalities, localities, and derivative adaptations are most suggestive, but he would surely be the first to explain how much still remains to be found out before his conclusions may safely be accepted as the complete explanation of the divergencies and the anomalies of early American cartography. As yet there is no one fully competent to traverse Mr. Harrisse's opinions on matters of American discovery, the field in which he has for so long been pre-eminent. No one else has his intimate familiarity with the whole course of the history of this period, or his exhaustive acquaintance with the documentary and cartographic literature. Whatever corrections may be made hereafter in the details of his work, to Henry Harrisse will always be due the credit of outlining the subject, and of showing how cartographic history should be studied.

Whenever Mr. Harrisse's chapters deal with matters of fact or opinion which are subject to independent verification, a careful examination shows that, as we have pointed out more than once on former occasions, his practice does not always conform to the rigid and unexceptionable rules of exactness which he so frequently lays down for the guidance of historical investigators when dealing with the lapses of those he differs from. Indeed, his pet aversion, the Spanish Academicians who failed to make him one of their number, and whose sins are many, never issued a volume containing more aggravating slips of the pen and of the attention than occur in Mr. Harisse's 'Terre-Neuve.' The watchful reader will presumably not be misled by the remark that in 1500 "huit *mois* s'étaient écoulés depuis la découverte de l'Amérique" (p. 10), or by a quotation from "Thomas Jefferson, *alors* secrétaire d'État, au Congrès des États-Unis en *1761*" (p. xxxix). The statements on page 214 that the coast line on La Cosa's chart runs "de l'Ouest à l'Est, ou du Sud-*Est* au Nord-*Est* (suivant l'orientation réelle . . . de Terre-Neuve)," and on page 37 that the Corte Reales "commencèrent à se tourner vers le Nord-Ouest et l'*Est*," are too palpable slips to worry the reader, were it not that they are typical of faulty orientation in the author's mind. The last quotation may, as a matter of fact, be quite correct, for the sixteenth-century chroniclers wrote of voyages across the Atlantic from Europe "going eastward" so often that there is a strong presumption that they used the phrase to signify that the voyage was on the route for the Orient. Mr. Harrisse, however, long ago committed himself to the correction of East into West in each of these passages, and he does not easily alter a decision once made. His difficulty in keeping the compass clearly in mind is distinctly shown on page 249, where he observes that a map which omits "une grande partie du littoral Ouest" of the island resembles another, "tout en omettant aussi la côte orientale." Somewhat more exasperating is the account of the Paris Gilt or De Bure globe, where the text states that the Avalon region is represented as two large islands, while the accompanying sketch of the configuration on the globe shows one of these islands—the one whereon hangs the argument of this particular paragraph—clearly attached to the main body of Newfoundland. Of ordinary misprints, such as careful proof-reading would have obviated, *e. g.*, "Alfonse part de la Rochelle le 16 *août* 1542 (après *Pâques* qui tomba le 9 de ce mois)," on page 156—there is no lack, as appears from a list of more than 50 errata, not including those mentioned above, printed at the end of the work. It is doubly a nuisance to have to be on guard at every statement to see if the text correctly expresses the author's obvious meaning, in such a work as this, where the nature of the subject and the method of treatment alike require for profitable reading the constant exercise of the keenest critical attention.

It would be unfair to close this notice without mentioning the admirable phototype plates additional to the 165 sketches and outlines drawn by Mr. Harrisse to illustrate the arguments of the text. Although they represent only the field of Mr. Harrisse's studies, which includes the entire St. Lawrence basin and much of the New England coast, this is usually sufficient to exhibit the typical characteristics of the maps, so that students of other sections of the coast can infer where to look for desired information. In nearly every case the plates are copied directly from manuscript maps not previously reproduced, or at best known only through sketch drawings.

LADY SARAH LENNOX.

The Life and Letters of Lady Sarah Lennox, 1745-1826. Edited by the Countess of Ilchester and Lord Stavordale. With numerous photogravure portraits. Two vols. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

George II., who made Kensington Palace his chief place of residence, used frequently to walk in Kensington Gardens. One day, in 1750, as he was taking his usual promenade, a little girl who had just broken away from her Swiss governess ran up to him and said with a laugh: "Comment vous portez-vous, Monsieur le Roi, vous avez une grande et belle maison ici, n'est pas?" What spasm seized the nurse, history does not record, but the King was much pleased with the child and asked that she might be brought often to see him. On the occasion of one of these visits "he suddenly snatched her up in his arms, and, after depositing her in a large china jar, shut down the cover to prove her courage; but soon released her when he found that the only effect was to make her, with a merry voice, begin singing the French song of 'Malbruc,' with which he was quite delighted." Curiously enough, this girl of five was a descendant of the Stuarts. She was Lady Sarah Lennox, fourth daughter of Charles, second Duke of Richmond, and therefore a great-granddaughter of Charles II.

Few Englishwomen of the eighteenth century had a more striking or romantic career than Lady Sarah Lennox. George II. romped with her, George III. wished to marry her, and she ended by becoming the mother of the three famous Napiers. Nor at this distance of time can there be any harshness in referring to another celebrated fact in her life, the liaison with Lord William Gordon, which led to her divorce from Sir Charles Bunbury, and adds one more element of the unusual to a most exceptional experience. Strangest of all, she retained the affection of her family and her closest friends in spite of the escapade which she calls her "fault." In Col. Napier she found a distinguished and devoted husband, while her brilliant sons worshipped, with the chivalry of their strong natures, the beauty, the sweetness, and the unselfishness of their "beloved mother."

The action of Lady Sarah's life properly begins in 1760, when she was fifteen years old. Regarding her attractiveness at this time there can be no question. Horace Walpole is often cited as bearing witness to her beauty, but one of the principal points in his statement about her is often omitted from such quotations. He distinctly says, in a letter to the Hon. H. S. Conway (September 9, 1761), that she has "neither features nor air." On the other hand, she was the "chief angel" among the numerous bridesmaids of the Princess Charlotte, and saw George III. marry this princess from Mecklenburg with no apparent disappointment at her own failure to become a queen. She was doubtless beautiful, but she had charm and animation as well, besides a kindness of heart which made her grieve more for her squirrel's death than over the political necessity which led George III. to select his wife in Germany rather than among his own subjects.

As might be expected, this incident is a prominent one in the memoirs, and we can at length see just what the advances were which the young King made. The whole story is too long to tell here, but it seems clear that Lady Sarah, though only sixteen, acted with perfect dignity while the addresses were being paid, and showed no petty resentment after the Duchess of Brunswick and Lord Bute had succeeded in directing his Majesty's glances elsewhere. There is every reason to believe that the keenest mortification was felt in other quarters. The Duke of Richmond is supposed never to have forgiven George III. for the slight paid his sister, while Henry Fox, first Lord Holland, felt all the grief of a disappointed politician. Lady Ilchester publishes for the first time the memoir which Lord Holland drew up "on the events attending the death of George II. and the accession of George III." To him a match between Lady Sarah Lennox and the King might conceivably mean a good deal, as she was his sister-in-law, and through her he might hope to reach a higher post in the state than his cleverness and nimble conscience had yet brought him. It is not our desire to turn aside from Lady Sarah for the sake of noticing Fox's innuendos against Pitt, or any other obvious features of his memoirs. None the less, it is a document with which the future historian of English politics during the Seven Years' War must be familiar.

At Holland House, Lady Sarah Lennox met her closest and most enduring friend, Lady Susan Strangways. She was the daughter of Lord Holland's elder brother, Lord Ilchester, and an own cousin of Charles James Fox. Romance entered her life through an Irish actor, William O'Brien, whom she married in defiance of parental opposition and lived happily with in spite of poverty. As the O'Briens went to America in 1764, and remained there for seven years, the horizon of Lady Sarah's correspondence expanded, and she herself began to take a keen interest in American affairs. During the Revolution she had many friends in the war, which she looked upon with abhorrence. Apropos of Bunker Hill, she writes: "Since I began this I've heard the news of the action near Boston. O Lord! how it makes one's blood run cold to think of *any action*, much more such a bloody one, and among one's own people almost."

Lady Susan O'Brien has been specially mentioned because these two volumes consist almost entirely of the letters which were written to her by the subject of the memoir. That Lady Sarah Lennox did not permit herself to be deeply disturbed by the King's marriage to another may be inferred from the fact that, a few months later, she was married to the most celebrated racing man of his day, Sir Charles Bunbury, whose horse "Diomed" won the first Derby. She was only a little more than twenty-three when she went away with her cousin, Lord William Gordon, and thus caused a scandal which could not be overlooked. By the intervention of both families the two were separated, and Lady Sarah entered upon a strict seclusion, from which she did not emerge until the end of twelve years. Having been divorced in 1776, she married in 1781 the Hon. George Napier, a remarkably handsome man, and one of the few heroes of the American war. Three of their sons—Sir Charles, the conqueror of Scinde; Sir George, the Governor of Cape Colony; and Sir William, the historian of the Peninsular War—were among the most eminent Englishmen of the next generation.

These remarkable incidents of Lady Sarah's history are not recited because they are unknown, but because her character, as it is discovered by her letters, cannot be fully understood unless one bears them constantly in mind. The social atmosphere of London in the era of Henry Fox and the elder Pitt was not conducive to moral exhilaration, and we need feel no deep surprise that Lady Sarah yielded so unreservedly to her natural impulses. The remarkable thing is that, once she had taken a false step, she did so much to redeem the past. She neither followed the familiar advice of Goldsmith which is applicable to such cases, nor did she permanently lose her self-respect. She had unbounded kindness and good humor, she loved her friends sincerely, and she called forth the adoration of her sons. The strong humanitarian sympathy, for example, of Sir Charles Napier seems directly traceable to her. It is to be seen first in her fondness for animals and her willingness to nurse them when ill; afterwards, in her girlish affection for Lady Susan Strangways; and, finally, in the sacrifices which she made to secure the proper education of her eight children. The depth of her family affection, combined with her feeling of admiration for generous aspirations, may be clearly seen in the letter which she wrote about her nephew, Lord Edward Fitzgerald, six weeks after his death from wounds in Dublin jail:

"If he had met with as fair dealings as his own he would have lived to have been as thoroughly known and consequently admired as he deserved to be by all good and honest men—men now blinded by the mysterious jugglings of a wicked set, who have availed themselves of the strong engine of *fear*, and worked on the passions of mankind till they have blinded some of the best. But yet wickedness cannot *always* thrive, and *truth* will force itself into light. To *time* and God I trust! That God, in whose presence that dear angel is, who judges his failings with mercy and his merits with an all-seeing power that rewards them justly!"

Lady Sarah Lennox was not an intellectual woman, nor was she at all points a model. At the same time one cannot help feeling that she had a sound heart, and that she possessed in abundance the qualities which command respect. Her son Henry, the historian of Florence, wrote a short account of her early life which is included in these memoirs. In it he refers to the "truth, single-mindedness, and natural unsuspiciousness of her character." Beneath the gayety of her early days and

the trials of her prime, one can see the traits which are thus emphasized by one of her own family, and they add its chief charm to her correspondence. The gossip, whether social or political, is interesting enough, but of greater interest still is the woman.

We may say in conclusion that these volumes are very handsomely printed and illustrated. They have also been well edited. The biographical notes are full, and every effort has been made to render the letters easily intelligible to their readers.

The History of Mary I., Queen of England. By J. M. Stone. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

At the Cambridge Local Examinations a question was once asked regarding the character of Mary I. In answering it, a candidate whose upbringing had been rigidly Protestant, kindled anew the Smithfield fires and justified the use of that dreadful epithet, "Bloody." But, with an unexpected leaning towards mercy, he concluded his indictment thus: "After all, we should not blame Mary too much, for it must be remembered that she had five stepmothers."

Mr. Stone goes far beyond such extenuation as this. His position is not that Mary's delinquencies are accounted for and pardoned by the unfortunate surroundings of her early days. He sees in her nothing less than a royal heroine whose virtues present a shining contrast to the vices of Elizabeth. In an age of moral corruption, she was exemplary, she kept a kind heart for her friends, and showed herself merciful towards her enemies; she was a devoted wife and a religious woman. Even the persecutions of the reign (natural enough though they were, at a time when Melanchthon and Beza applauded the execution of Servetus) need not be ascribed to the vindictiveness of the Queen, but must be placed largely upon the shoulders of Parliament.

> "The persecution was a movement of expediency, set on foot by the Council as a means of coping with the disturbances. . . . But Parliament willed it, and 'it was not therefore,' says an authority on English law [Reeves], 'the policy of the Church but of the crown, and not merely of the crown but of the state.' It was the act of the crown with the authority of Parliament and the assent of the council."

Mary undoubtedly has been much maligned, and it is not undesirable that there should be a statement of everything that can be urged on her behalf. Besides Foxe, Strype, Burnet, Fuller, and Collier, modern historians have more often than not depicted her as morose and implacable. A passage which represents the current view of educated Protestants may be found in Dr. Bright's 'History of England' (vol. ii., p. 455). It begins in the following terms: "Philip's departure left the Queen miserable and almost mad. She roamed wildly about her palace, and sat grovelling on the floor in the twilight, with her knees drawn up to her face. She betook herself to the gloomy satisfaction of religious persecution, and in the three dioceses of Canterbury, Rochester, and London there was but little cessation of sacrifices at the stake." The trouble is that a traditional view is repeated over and over again by those who only look for the confirmation of it in Foxe, if they even look for it there. Mr. Stone goes somewhat too far in the other direction; but his personal estimate of Mary comes much nearer the truth than that which is furnished by the average historian of Protestant sympathies. The most candid and convincing account of her career is the article by Mr. Sidney Lee in the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' Mr. Stone gives fuller details, but as a critic he is less satisfactory.

Like other Tudors, Mary had a hasty temper, and Mr. Stone rather tends to minimize the effect which was produced upon her disposition by all the trials of her troubled life. Nevertheless, where kindness of heart is concerned, she at least appears to advantage in comparison with her father and sister. When dealing with the persecutions, Mr. Stone quotes quite properly from the 'Summa Theologica' the famous passage wherein St. Thomas Aquinas states that, considering the crime of heresy in itself, "heretics deserve not only to be cut off from the Church by excommunication, but to be cut off from the world by death. They are more guilty than those who coin false money, for it is more grave to corrupt the faith which is the life of the soul than to falsify coin, by which that of the body is supported; and thus they are justly put to death like other malefactors." The Church must never condemn the heretic at first, but may only consign him to the secular arm after he has proved obstinate and she despairs of his salvation.

Here, at least, is a general principle and one which Gibbon had in mind when he said, "I am more deeply scandalized at the single execution of Servetus than at the hecatombs which have blazed in the auto-da-fés of Spain and Portugal." Mary was not a philosopher, but a humble child of the Church, indoctrinated with its ideas from the first, and confirmed in them by the wrongs which her mother had suffered. She was willing to use mildness so long as there was any chance that it would succeed, but, according to fundamental conception, her one duty was to redeem England from the grasp of the heretics. However great the folly of her marriage with Philip, and however inhuman the principles of the Roman Church, it is unjust to say that she "betook herself to the gloomy satisfaction of religious persecution." After a most unhappy girlhood, during which she showed both dignity and good feeling, she made many sacrifices as Queen for her convictions. The political effects of the reign are one thing. On the other hand, a faithful biographer is bound to observe that Mary was more disinterested than Henry VIII. or Elizabeth. Nor in feeling was she unpatriotic.

Mr. Stone, who looks at English history from the Romanist standpoint, has a hard chapter to write when he reaches "the martyrs"—that is to say, it is difficult for him to preserve, in speaking of Cranmer and the other victims of the persecution, the tone of studied moderation which marks the volume as a whole. It is an easy matter to hold up the weaknesses of Cranmer, with his six or seven recantations in addition to the time-serving which had marked his course in the two preceding reigns. It is easy to ridicule the fervid eloquence of Latimer and the breaking of pews when he preached. It is also easy to disparage Ridley by quoting that old sarcasm: "Latimer leaneth to Cranmer, Cranmer leaneth to Ridley, and Ridley to the singularity of his own wit." But this kind of detraction, when supplemented alone by an apology for Bonner and Gardiner, does not give a correct impression of the whole episode. Something, indeed a good deal, remains to be said about Rowland Taylor, William Hunter, and the intrepidity which was so widely shown. Mr. Stone at this point becomes too openly the advocate, and his chapter is not above criticism even when looked at as a forensic utterance. For example, he challenges the accuracy of Foxe's "Three Hundred Martyrs," placing the number at two hundred. The reasons for the reduction should surely be given in detail, especially since S. R. Maitland, who worked the statistics out case by case, places the total at 277 ('Essays on Subjects Connected with the Reformation in England,' p. 449). Mr. Stone is glad to quote Maitland in extenuation of Bonner; what is his authority for questioning the correctness of Maitland's list?

However, in spite of some signs of party feeling, this book is both useful and meritorious.

Reminiscences of Francis J. Lippitt. Written for his family, his near relatives, and intimate friends. Providence, R. I.: Preston & Rounds Co. 1902. Pp. 122.

This little book has no preface, nor does it seem to need one. It is a frank, outspoken story of a life spent in many places, widely distant from each other, by a man of energy and of no inconsiderable talent—a lawyer, a soldier, something of a statesman, a bit of an author and musician. The pages are interesting from cover to cover. The "Reminiscences" open thus: "I am a descendant of the Puritan, John Lippitt, who, in 1636, was a coadjutor of Roger Williams in establishing the first Government of Rhode Island. I was born in Providence on July 19, 1812"; and end as follows: "I now find myself a senior graduate of Brown University, and also the sole survivor of those persons that stood by Lafayette's grave at his burial; his grandson, the Marquis de Lasteyrie, having died some years since at La Grange."

The writer is happy in describing his childhood. The text reads as though the narrator were talking by the fireside, so simple and direct is the style. His fourteenth year was spent with an uncle, a professor in the Episcopal Seminary at Alexandria, Va. One of the students took the boy to the President's levee on New Year's day. "All I remember about it is that I was introduced to the President—John Quincy Adams—whose hand was very large and icy cold." After graduation, at the age of eighteen, Lippitt visited Washington, and was taken by Mrs. Commodore Stewart, on New Year's day, to the White House to meet President Jackson. "Contrary to my expectation, I found him to be a man of an elegant figure, whose manner was a model of graceful courtesy. I saw this particularly displayed when he stooped down and picked up a little three-year-old girl, introduced to him by her mother, and kissed her." This testimony to Jackson's kindly manner is only cumulative. The youngster heard Clay in a speech that lasted for two days. He was carried away by Clay's eloquence "in spite of his tall ungainly form,

and a mouth stretching almost from ear to ear." Years afterward, upon reading the speech, he tells us that he "could find little or no trace of those sentences which had seemed to come from a demigod."

Writing without the help of any notes or diary kept at the time, Gen. Lippitt has failed to detect a slip in his memory with regard to Edmund Randolph. "One day," he says (p. 10), "while I stood on the steps of the Capitol, my uncle pointed him out to me. He was a large and portly man, a splendid specimen of a Virginia gentleman of the old school; tall, of a robust frame, looking not to be over fifty, and clad in a blue coat with brass buttons." Of course, this imposing personage could not have been Edmund Randolph, who died in 1813, the year after Lippitt was born. He may have been Peyton Randolph, son of Edmund, and for a long time clerk of the Supreme Court of Virginia; and at that date about forty-seven years of age.

The Secretary of the Navy appointed young Lippitt as schoolmaster, to sail on the *Constellation* for a three years' cruise up the Mediterranean. On his way from Washington by steamer to Norfolk, a friend of his family, Mrs. Thomas, introduced him to her uncle, Chief Justice Marshall. "I had the pleasure of talking with him the whole way down the river. I recognized in him his well-known characteristics—a kindly nature and perfect simplicity of manner." The *Constellation* had over six hundred men. The schoolroom was "a small space between two starboard aft guns on the main deck, shut in by a canvas curtain." Capt. George C. Reed was in command. Lippitt's description of his adventures, touching at Madeira, Lisbon, and Gibraltar, is entertaining. He found it desirable, however, to bring the cruise to a sudden end, and he left the ship in a hurry at Port Mahon. Here the problem was to get to Paris. His funds gave out at Marseilles, and, starting to walk, he actually accomplished a good part of the journey on foot. His chapter af adventures would go far to furnish forth a modern novel. Like other heroes in similar straits, he reached his journey's end, it seems, without having tasted food for twenty-four hours, and with but a single sou in his pocket. He pawned his flute, and resorted to other expedients to keep alive, like a second Oliver Goldsmith. Using letters to friends of his family, he soon got on his feet again, and we find him making a call in grand fashion upon Lafayette at La Grange. The description of a dinner with Lafayette and his daughter and granddaughters is admirable. One finds it difficult to realize that a gentleman is still living with us, hale and hearty, who once sat at table with Lafayette, and was most hospitably entertained by that hero. "I arose as I saw the General coming towards us. He put one arm around my neck, and, with his other arm around the neck of his granddaughter, Mademoiselle de Maubourg, he marched us through the entire length of the salon, where he seated us together in a corner, saying on the way that I must consider myself as his grandson" (p. 29).

A good deal is told of Lippitt's life in Paris, where he spent several years, picking up here and there a bit of work, translating and writing for newspapers, and the like. He helped De Tocqueville in the preparation of his work, 'Democracy in America.' He paid assiduous attention to the theatre and opera; and, comparing at this day Rachel and Bernhardt, he ventures to think the latter superior. Being treated by Mr. Livingston, our Minister, as a sort of semi-official attaché, young Lippitt was invited to return with the Minister and his family in the *Constitution* (Commodore Elliott), which he did. Arriving in New York, he began studying for admission to the bar, and spent seven years in New York city, not at all successful in his profession. Much of this time was devoted to military matters. He was in some capacity connected with the stirring events of the Dorr Rebellion; was a teacher in a collegiate school, at a small salary; and a lawyer on the lookout for clients that seldom came. When war was declared against Mexico, we see him eager to go to the front. He got off at last in a regiment that went around Cape Horn to California, where he landed in '49. From this time on, there is much about the early history of California, in which Lippitt took a prominent part. He was a chairman of the Constitutional Convention, and, some years later, an active member of the Vigilance Committee. At one time he went to Virginia City and opened a law office, but got no clients. At another period we find that he had retired from practice with quite a large fortune, which he went to Europe to enjoy. He was compelled to race back across the Atlantic in order to save his property from the hands of an agent in California, who had betrayed his trust.

During the war for the Union, Lippitt was in active service on the Pacific Coast. He was sent to take care of some Indians who had been misbehaving themselves. At the close of the war he was brevetted brigadier-general. Afterwards, he drifted back to his native city, Providence, and thence came to Washington, where he held office under the Hayes Administration as an assistant counsel in the Court of Claims. He is now living in Washington, active and alert for a man of ninety.

The chief value of this little book consists in the simplicity and frankness with which the writer tells of his varied adventures, keeping nothing back, and talking of himself in a style egotistic, it is true, but never offensively so. He touches upon many matters that are considered beneath the dignity of history, or even of biography, and yet are of acknowledged interest, and of some worth for completing one's view of the recent past. The book has one serious fault—there is no index. A portrait of Gen. Lippitt shows in his face qualities of energy and activity which the attentive reader is likely to discern early in the narrative of these unusual experiences.

Le Théâtre hors de France. 3e série, Le Théâtre en Italie; 4e série, Pulcinella & C. Par Henry Lyonnet. Paris: Société d'Éditions Littéraires et Artistiques. 1901.

That French dramatists and theatrical managers, while remembering that their own productions are superior to all others, can still derive benefit from increased familiarity with the drama of other countries, is the opinion expressed by Gustave Larroumet in his preface to the fourth volume of M. Lyonnet's 'Théâtre hors de France.' Having studied Portugal and Spain, M. Lyonnet devotes his third and fourth volumes to Italy. In pleasing but unpretentious style, and not without some superfluous detail, he presents much interesting and sometimes valuable information on the Italian drama of to-day. Since Italy has no dramatic centre, theatrical companies have no fixed homes, but travel from city to city. Since, moreover, the prices of admission are very modest, the scenery and costumes are usually simple, often shabby. The acting, on the other hand, is of a high order, and yet entirely different in style from any that can be seen outside Italy. When an Italian company came to Paris, French actors and critics said, "This is another art." But, while the players are thoroughly national, the plays are not. Our author occasionally saw a comedy by Goldoni, or some other Italian play; but the immense majority of plays, like so many of the novels now printed in Italy, were translations from the French, English, German, Norwegian, or what not. It is amusing to read his long descriptions of plays once familiar here, like "Niobe" and "My Official Wife." In 1899 the Eleonora Duse and Ermete Zacconi Company undertook to give a season chiefly of D'Annunzio's plays. His "Gloria" failed, and was given but once; his "Gioconda," admired as a literary work, was found lacking dramatically; and for more than half of their performances the company had to fall back on Dumas. M. Lyonnet describes this company's performances, and gives an interesting account of many other actors and actresses only less admired than these, while he also speaks of several plays recently produced by Italian writers.

The fourth volume is entirely devoted to the Neapolitan drama with masks—in particular, to the origin, history, and present condition of Pulcinella. This personage, an incarnation of Neapolitan character, is distinct from the English Punch and the French Polichinelle, although they may owe their origin to him. He has figured in Neapolitan plays since the sixteenth century, always dressed in his loose white blouse and trousers, white pointed cap, and black mask, with hooked nose. At first he was a character in the *commedia dell' arte*, or improvised comedy, in which the playwright provides merely an outline of the action. It is frequently stated that Goldoni overthrew the masked comedy in Italy. What he really did was to put out of fashion the improvisation: he himself used masked characters in many of his plays, and they are met with in popular Italian theatres to the present day, as M. Lyonnet tells us. The masks, Pulcinella for Naples, Arlecchino for Bergamo, Pantalone for Venice, and the rest, spoke their own dialects, wore their own costumes, and preserved their own characteristics, in whatever play they appeared; and so they do still when they appear, while the other actors, travelling all over Italy, speak the national language. Of all the masks, however, Pulcinella seems to be the only one with much vitality, and Naples the only city which has permanent dramatic companies. While accepting the view of Croce and Scherillo that Pulcinella first appeared in his proper person in the theatre of one Silvio Fiorillo, an actor of the sixteenth century, M. Lyonnet also agrees with Maurice Sand in tracing his ancestry back to the ancient Maccus. No direct connection has been demonstrated, but the entire loss

of a form of amusement so popular among the ancient Italians would surely be more difficult to assume than this line of descent. At any rate, Pulcinella, after a long life at the Teatro San Carlino (an humble neighbor of the great San Carlo), now makes his home at the Teatro Nuovo. He has rivals, imitators, and hosts of admirers.

These books are of value in many ways —most of all as documents for theatrical history, present and past. They will instruct any reader; it is safe to say that few Italians out of Naples know what 'Pulcinella & C.' will tell them. There are about a hundred portraits and other illustrations.

Imperium et Libertas: A Study in History and Politics. By Bernard Holland. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901.

During the last hundred and fifty years, in Mr. Holland's opinion, the most important political question for the English people has been no longer the demarcation of the frontiers between royal power and that of the body of the nation, or even that between the State and individual liberty, but that between imperial power and national liberty. The problem is to maintain dominion over remote regions and subject peoples without overtasking the dominant nation, which, as Augustine said of Rome, may break itself by its own greatness. In 1777 Burke wrote: "I am and ever have been deeply sensible of the difficulty of reconciling the strong presiding power that is so useful towards the conservation of a vast, disconnected, and infinitely diversified empire, with that liberty and safety of the provinces which they must enjoy (in opinion and practice, at least), or they will not be provinces at all." In other words, there must be empire, but it must be maintained with the least possible sacrifice of liberty.

Mr. Holland does not inquire whether empire is, after all, necessary, further than to suggest, in the phrase of Louis Napoleon, "L'empire c'est la paix." If the English colonies were not protected by England, they would be attacked by other Powers, or would quarrel among themselves. At all events, there is no indication that England will withdraw from her present responsibilities, and the inquiry how she can discharge them is timely and important. For this inquiry Mr. Holland prepares a most elaborate foundation. He reviews the American Revolution, showing that the English crown could have retained its sovereignty if it had conceded self-government. He then summarizes the history of Canada, showing that sovereignty was retained because that concession was made. These inquiries are very well conceived, and are conducted in a praiseworthy spirit, but they are really unnecessary. The conclusions have long been sufficiently established.

Much the same may be said of the consideration of the Irish question, which occupies most of the remaining space in the book. Mr. Holland favors applying the Canadian precedent to the case. He proposes to set up legislative assemblies for England, Scotland, Ireland, and perhaps Wales, which bodies should regulate the affairs of the respective provinces; imperial affairs to be directed as now by Parliament. But it is obvious that Canada furnishes no precedent for such a dismemberment of the United Kingdom, nor is it easy to find a comfortable precedent in history. Mr. Holland's solution may some time be adopted, but the prospect is not hopeful. As to the relations between the United Kingdom and the colonies, Mr. Holland makes some rather vague proposals for colonial representation and contribution, accepting the guidance of that distinguished statesman Cecil Rhodes. Cecil Rhodes, however, saw that the first step to be taken in creating the new empire was for England to give up free trade, from which Mr. Holland shrinks. After all his elaborate argumentation, he is at last brought to the rather humiliating conclusion that the colonies cannot be represented in the present Parliament, while a federal Parliament for the whole empire is impossible. Nothing remains but to accept Mr. Chamberlain's plan for a grand imperial council, possessing all the magnificent attributes of a parliament, but without its powers. But no body limited to the function of giving advice has hitherto exercised much influence on the world's affairs. The best that can be said for the plan is, that it may serve to amuse those uneasy souls who are continually fretting themselves over the possibilities of attack by foreign nations, while it will not impede the continuance of the good relations which now exist between England and her colonies.

John Chinaman, and a Few Others. By E. H. Parker. E. P. Dutton & Co.

To find out what kind of a man a Chinaman is, Mr. Parker began in 1867 to study his language and get his ideas. After this, he spent twenty-five years in his country, and then, for comparison, travelled in many lands on four continents. From the first, he acted on the principle that "the lowly are just as interesting company as the mighty." He is a hearty lover of his fellow-man, and a despiser of everything in the shape of a sham. His most healthful way of enjoying reality has enabled this ex-consul, and now professor of Chinese at Manchester and Liverpool, to give us what is perhaps the best picture extant of the actual Chinaman. Having written on family law, history, diplomacy, commerce, and travel in China, besides laying open the truth about the thousand years of Tartar rule, he now introduces us without ceremony to the average man of the queue. Under sixteen chapters, with many pictorial illustrations and a thousand modern instances, this realist brings before us in action every sort and condition of Chinese man. As he has, literally, seen them all, he tells of births, marriages, and deaths, of the Chinese innocents abroad, of kings, popes, premiers, and philosophers, of missionary and other "rows," of piracies and murders, and of ways that are dark and tricks that are vain. In short, he draws from his actual experiences with Chinese of every grade. While revealing with how little wisdom the world is governed, he shows also with how much excellence obscure persons are often endowed. He has, indeed, a vocabulary and literary method of his own, being utterly unconventional, and therefore very charming, for to him belong ability, common sense, and the fine art of being interesting. To those who personally or by near reputation were acquainted with the foreigners mentioned on his pages, Baber, Wade, Parkes, Hennessy, there is delight in reading about these old friends. The Chinese names, whether Teng or Ting, Yeh or Li, become far more distinct, and delightfully human, when we find how heartily their possessors can laugh, respond quickly to a little "chaff," yield gracefully when the game is all up, and are full of that varied nature one touch of which makes the whole world akin. For the Chinaman's religion, his worth and usefulness as a man, and his value in the scale of humanity, Mr. Parker has such hearty appreciation that he does not on a single page sacrifice truth. His book is realistic from cover to cover.

To come very close home, he tells of his student experiences in London with Minister Wu (of Washington, whom he correlates with the famous Howqua family of Canton), when, queueless in London, he was looking forward "to an English rather than to a Chinese career." At the same table with the future barristers of the Middle Temple, sat Mr. Hoshi Toru, later of Washington and Tokio, who responded in Chinese, handsomely, but with taciturnity and the pen, to the challenge as to his scholarship in the classics. The young Japanese then, perhaps, little supposed that, a quarter of a century later, in the plenitude of power and fame, he should be assassinated by a conservative fellow-countryman, reader of the books of Mencius, which justify the assassination of unpopular ministers. The London incident (evidently written by Mr. Parker before the late Cabinet Minister was slain) is in a context which shows that, in all probability, a European student could receive a Chinese degree if he went through the usual curriculum. Even aborigines from among the hill tribes, who yield a measure of conformity, can receive degrees and offices.

A curious literary illustration of "the principle of *tabu,* which has always had a wide extension in China," is stated on page 211. The mysterious combination which, in the ancient odes, means "how the Dolichos [plant] creeps," is always avoided by scholars who know foreigners, because the words *Kot tam yu* have sounds very similar to what so often proceeds from British mouths, being heard even in the consulate. Indeed, "Kot tam" is believed to be the name of an English deity, "whose wrath is called down upon the heads of luckless Chinamen on the slightest provocation." This is a curious reminder of the "god-damn hommes" of fifteenth-century France, and the dammurize-hito of the Yokohama dialect. Chinese swearing is retrospective. It has a twist towards genealogy, as becomes the age of the nation, for the objurgation smites ancestors even to the eighteenth degree.

It would be hard, in Mr. Parker's wonderful scrap-book of examples, to tell what phase of Chinese human nature he has not illustrated—from the trusted Chinese physician for whom American and English ladies and children would loosen their dress, and who was deeply mourned when he died, to ordinary "boys" or servant men whose virtues and failings are alike pronounced. The author also met many Koreans during his stay as Consul in their country. Of Japanese doctors, he says that they are patient and do not guess at ailments, but always try to get to the bot-

tom of everything. He tells also of peninsular Asiatics of various sorts, and of Mongols and Tartars. We consider this book equal in sociological value to about one thousand of the average missionary reports, and, just because of its realism—whether we call it coarse or clever—rich in cheer to those who, piercing the crusts of fashion and tradition, see in the Chinaman a genuine human being. Appropriately has the Chinese character, *fuku*, been stamped on the back of the book indicative of the sunny cheer within. There is an index and a valuable glossary.

Washington the Capital City, and its Part in the History of the Nation. By Rufus Rockwell Wilson. Two vols., illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902.

The national capital has had its full share of attention from writers of books and magazine articles. The rude beginning, the magnificence of the plan and the slow response to its demands, and then the sudden awakening into new life after the war for the Union had brought Northern ideas of progress into play at Washington—all these combined have furnished a theme for a large force of busy writers. We take up a new book upon this topic with some misgivings. It is something, however, to tell the story anew and tell it well. This feat Mr. Wilson has accomplished. He is an entertaining writer, the master of a pleasing style, and an author who shows that he has a good sense of proportion. The volumes are printed in attractive page form, and the reader who opens one is likely to find himself so well satisfied as to journey through the entire book.

Washington is truly described as having been in 1799 "a straggling settlement." The close of 1900 found it a city in reality, unsurpassed for its broad avenues, handsome streets, and delightful parks. The genius of L'Enfant at last stands revealed to even the dullest onlooker. One may not say that Washington is the United States, in the sense that Paris is France; but there are few American citizens who are indifferent to a knowledge of their capital, while many regard it in their affections as second only to their own place of residence. The people take a pride in the capital, and view with favor every reasonable plan for its improvement and adornment. The great work now fairly begun under the charge of the Park Commission is but one mode of expressing this deep-seated desire. There is no danger, therefore, that a well-written book about Washington will lack for readers. The only requisite is that the workman, in handling old material, shall show ingenuity and deftness.

Somebody said once of a gentleman who, with no love of reading, had enjoyed the advantage of extensive travel both in his own country and abroad, that he possessed a mind "nourished upon guide-books." The present work is not constructed on the guide-book plan, although from its opening pages one might anticipate that such were the fact. It is rather a narrative of the doings of public officials than a description of localities with which they have been identified. Mr. Wilson's pages present a rapid survey of men of distinction who have acted their part at Washington from the days of President John Adams down to the close of Grant's second term. The book is not exactly a history in disguise. It is a collection of light touches, anecdotes, and brief comments, all readable because of the writer's animated style. At times one is reminded of Blaine's 'Twenty Years,' save that Mr. Wilson has so many personages to deal with that he is enabled only in a few instances to bring out the character into full light. It is surprising how apt the author shows himself to be in his use of adjectives. Every member of the Cabinet, almost every Senator, together with all the more prominent Representatives, are mentioned. Usually, what is known as a thumb-nail sketch is presented. Where only a word or two is allotted to a person, Mr. Wilson displays no little art in the selection of the proper word. The Presidents in turn, as might be expected, come in for extended notice. Much space is devoted to Andrew Jackson; while the reader will encounter some facts in regard to Mr. Lincoln of which he has probably never heard before. The tone of moderation which pervades the book is its best feature. The volumes are to be commended to one who desires to take a brief survey of our political history, without caring to go deeper and learn something of the philosophy of it. Not designed to be studied, they are well calculated for the passing of a pleasant hour.

A work of this description can scarcely avoid the reproach of omissions. Nothing, for example, is said of Hamilton Fish, whose services to his country deserve at least as much praise as that accorded to more than one statesman of an earlier date. Moreover, the older residents of Washington, no less than those who are familiar with local traditions, will miss such characters as Beau Hickman, or that leader in the "third House" and prince of entertainers, Sam Ward. Errors, too, are to be expected when so large a field is covered. One of the earliest, which is most likely to arrest attention, is that of putting Chief Justice Parsons of Massachusetts in the Cabinet of John Adams as his Attorney-General (i., p. 47). But there is a much more serious instance. There are those yet living who can recall how bitter was the disappointment of the Whigs at the result of the election of 1844. They came near electing their idol, Henry Clay. The change of a few votes in New York and Michigan would have carried Clay into the Presidency. Out of this disappointment sprang the usual crop of post-election stories, explanations, and criminations. A charge that seems to have enjoyed more vitality than almost any other, was levelled against James G. Birney, the candidate of the Liberal party. We quote from Mr. Wilson's first volume (p. 404):

"Clay, in some way, had given serious offence to James G. Birney. The exact cause of this hostility had never been revealed, nor did Clay himself, so he asserted, ever understand it. Birney, however, made no secret of it. He was an active abolitionist, and there was, as had been shown in the preceding campaign, some trifling strength in the so-called Abolition party in the North. Its members met in convention and nominated Birney for President, as they had done in 1840. Birney did not want to run again, but saw in his candidacy a chance to repay Clay for the slight, or whatever it was, which had caused the personal enmity. He therefore ran, and had such revenge as caused the Whig party to lose the Presidency."

Had the writer of these words taken a little more pains to get at the truth, he would have discovered that the story, ridiculous as it is on its face, is nothing more nor less than pure fabrication. Carl Schurz, in his not unfriendly biography of Clay, disposes of a similar aspersion in short order. Of Mr. Birney he remarks: "He has been charged with committing an act of personal faithlessness in opposing Clay in 1844. The charge was utterly unjust."

Insect Life: Souvenirs of a Naturalist, J. H. Fabre. Translated from the French by the Author of 'Mademoiselle Mori.' With illustrations by M. Prendergast Parker. Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. 320, 16 plate figures.

This is an altogether delightful book, in which the author gives, in a few chapters, the results of observations extending over many years. Not many insects are mentioned, and all are from southern France, where, as incidentally appears, the author found it a difficult task, early in his career as a teacher, to secure recognition for natural science of any kind. Two chapters are devoted to the "sacred beetle," in which, incidentally, we get much information concerning the habits of dung beetles, or "tumble-bugs," in general. We also learn that the pellets they are so commonly seen rolling on country roads are not intended as the homes of the early stages, as was usually supposed, but as food supplies for the beetles themselves. The remainder of the book is devoted to the habits of certain predatory digging wasps and mason bees. Elaborate accounts are given of the manner in which the cells, burrows, and other structures are built, and of the way in which the prey is captured and prepared to serve as food for the larva—all based on original, long-continued, personal observations.

The author's style and attitude toward his subjects are excellently shown in the following extract:

"Beauteous Sphegidæ, hatched under my eyes and brought up by my hand; . . . you whose transformations I have followed step by step, waking up with a start at night for fear of missing the moment when the nymph breaks through her swaddling-bands and the wings issue from their cases; you have taught me so many things, learning nothing yourselves, knowing without teachers all that you need to know. Oh, my beautiful Sphegidæ! fly away without fear of my tubes, my phials, and all my boxes and cages, and all my prisons for you. . . . Depart in peace, hollow out your burrows, stab your crickets scientifically, and continue your race, so as to afford to others what you have afforded to me—some of the few moments of happiness in my life."

Though absolutely accurate in detail and even prolix, the author is neither tiresome nor technical; indeed, the systematist comes in for a number of digs: "An insect is caught, transfixed with a long pin, fastened in a box with a cork bottom; a ticket with a Latin name is put under its feet, and all is said. This way of looking at entomological history does not satisfy me." And so he makes a plea for "real observation, and not to let entomology consist in rows of impaled insects." Though he has the most intense interest in all their habits, our author does not unreservedly admire all the doings of his pets. After describing how Philanthus captures and

crushes honey bees to get at the gathered sweets, he adds:

"This profanation of a dying creature, squeezed by its murderer to empty its body and enjoy the contents, has something so hideous that I should call it a crime if a Philanthus could be held responsible. In the midst of this horrible banquet, I have seen both murderer and prey seized by the Mantis; the robber was plundered by a second robber. Horrible to relate, while the Mantis held it transpierced by the points of the double saw, and was already gnawing the under parts, the Philanthus went on licking the honey, unable to abandon the delicious food even in the throes of death. Let us cast a veil over these horrors."

The author has no sympathy for those who see evidences of intelligent action in anything done by the insects under observation. He sees in it nothing but an instinct—wonderful, indeed, and in many points beyond our comprehension; nevertheless, an instinct only, which impels the doing of certain acts as a necessary consequence to definite stimulation. It is an impulse that is obeyed without question, in definite order, and without regard to conditions. To prove this point, we have an interesting series of experiments, which certainly do show that it is easy to disconcert an insect, and to get beyond the boundaries of its inherited experience. Whether the experiments have been sufficient or entirely fair in the problems presented is perhaps a question.

All the facts contained in the book could be sufficiently stated in 30 pages; that in spreading them over 300 the author has not become wearisome is due to the literary quality of the work and to the generally interesting character of the excursions and discussions. It is rare to have so true a tale so well told, for the occasionally extravagant style is not allowed to interfere with accuracy.

The illustrations are half-tones, from wash-drawings, and, as a whole, are good. But the artist has not seen the specimens as the author has; and some of them look unnatural. It is also a question whether the attempt to unite landscape with full-sized insects in the foreground has been entirely successful. The bookmaker's work has been well done; the print is bold and easily read.

Practical Talks by an Astronomer. By Harold Jacoby. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

There is little occasion for aught but praise of Prof. Jacoby's 'Talks,' which are not designed as a systematic treatise on astronomy, but are concerned with subjects that admit of detached treatment and are withal of wide general interest. They are presented in a not unpleasing style, in language in large part free from technicalities, and all have, in fact, been printed in periodicals before. But this collection of disconnected essays is well worth the more permanent form, and why should we not be able to purchase light scientific books of this character at the news-stands and on the trains as well as 'The Crisis,' 'David Harum,' and 'Two Bad Brown Eyes'?

Professor Jacoby begins with 'Navigation at Sea,' and he relates a story of the old days, how,

"upon a certain voyage from England to Rio, the old captain could remember the following odd method of navigation: The ship was steered by compass to the southward and westward, more or less, until the skipper's antique quadrant showed that they had about reached the latitude of Rio. Then they swung her on a course due west by compass, and away she went for Rio, relying on the lookout man forward to keep the ship from running ashore. For, after a certain lapse of time, being ignorant of the longitude, they could not know whether they would 'raise' the land within an hour or in six weeks."

Not a little curious is it that Professor Jacoby, with his intimate knowledge of astronomy, should seem to perpetuate the too widely prevalent error that the captain of a vessel is able to determine the error of his chronometer—in other words, to get his time and longitude—merely by watching at noon "until he discovers that the sun is just beginning to descend." We wonder whether Professor Jacoby knew any ship captain who relied upon a chronometer error found in this quite impossible and most inaccurate fashion. In point of fact, the method would be about as available for the captain of an Atlantic liner who desired to make the port of New York, as was the ancient skipper's manner of chancing it for Rio. And the "lookout man forward" would even more be in need of keeping both his eyes peeled.

Professor Jacoby's choice of subjects is quite happy, giving his book an up-to-date appearance that ought to enhance its present appreciation. The polestar and Campbell's discovery of its ternary character, the new star in Perseus, the little planet Eros so recently approaching close to the earth, the wanderings of the terrestrial poles, the late Professor Keeler's demonstration of the meteoritic constitution of Saturn's rings—these are a few of the more attractive and timely titles. The story of the Moon Hoax, too, is well told, and perhaps the era never will dawn when that would be untimely.

Galileo, ever a fresh and picturesque character, is selected for one of the essays, and a few witty paragraphs are quoted from his 'Dialogue on the Systems,' citing the contemporary English translation of Salisbury, printed in London by Leybourne in 1661. Two of the three *dialogi personæ*, it will be remembered, are Salviati, advocate of the Copernican system, and the humorous and neutral Sagredus, finally convinced of the Ptolemaic error.

"Salviati refers to the argument, then well known, that the earth cannot rotate on its axis, 'because of the impossibility of its moving long without wearinesse.' Sagredus replies: 'There are some kinds of animals which refresh themselves after wearinesse by rowling on the earth; and that therefore there is no need to fear that the Terrestrial Globe should tire, nay, it may be reasonably affirmed that it enjoyeth a perpetual and most tranquil repose, keeping itself in an eternal rowling.' Salviati's comment on this sally is, 'You are tart and satyrical, Sagredus.' "

The epoch-making research of the late Lewis Rutherfurd in astronomical photography, in which Professor Jacoby has himself been actively engaged, is brought to the front with well-deserved prominence; and equally the significant work of Sir David Gill, his Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, who, twenty years ago, laid firmly the foundations of sidereal photography by turning towards the starlit heavens a simple portrait camera belonging to a local photographer. To be sure, a comet was all he sought to catch, but the myriad stars that also flecked his plate pointed directly to charting the whole heavens by photography, and became the immediate forerunner of all the astrographic congresses that have met in Paris during the past fifteen years.

Professor Jacoby's 'Practical Talks,' while in no sense a contribution to science, nor so intended, is yet a distinct aid to better popular understanding and appreciation of things astronomical, and hence is sure to perform a service worth the while. The publishers have put it in an attractive dress, so far as types and paper are concerned, the few full-page illustrations are excellent, a copious index is helpful; but instead of belittling by a cover-design of a nebulous whorl or doubtful "what is it?" the book merits rather the simple dignity of an undecorated cover.

The Roentgen Rays in Medicine and Surgery, as an Aid in Diagnosis and as a Therapeutic Agent. By Francis H. Williams, M.D. Macmillan. 1901. 8vo, pp. xxx, 658. Illustrated.

The employment in surgical diagnosis of the remarkable qualities belonging to the radiation from electrical discharges in a vacuum tube began immediately upon the publication in 1895 of Professor Roentgen's discovery, and the literature of the subject is already very voluminous. As is well known, the radiograph represents the shadow of an object opaque to these rays, and it was soon found that there was no sharp demarcation between the permeable and the impermeable. As nearly as made out, the law of absorption of the Roentgen ray is substantially this: (1.) Rays are absorbed by different substances of equal thickness in a degree nearly proportional to their specific gravities or densities. (2.) The same substance in different thicknesses absorbs with a percentage increasing with the thickness, but not proportional to it. (3.) The more opaque the object is to the ray, the more rapidly does the influence of the thickness increase. It follows that, other conditions being equal, the shadows of different tissues vary with their chemical composition, and therefore the respective normal organs have individual distinctness, and also that changes, permanent or temporary, are demonstrable. Such observations are a useful check upon those made in the more common way, and sometimes are themselves more valuable. That is to say, medical as well as surgical diagnosis is under deep obligations to the X-ray.

But, unexpectedly, therapeutics also has become its debtor. Superfluous hair has been removed for cosmetic reasons; birthmarks have been diminished or cleared away; various skin affections, chiefly serious and intractable, have certainly been cured; and, more remarkable, superficial malignant disease has been healed. Affections which are deeper-seated have not yielded to its touch; and whether the various forms of external cancer and its allies will remain healed can be determined only after the lapse of considerable time. At the worst, however, the treatment may be renewed. In surgery the radiograph has a well-established place for the elucidation of obscure conditions. The grave original objection that, as the photograph after all

only represented a shadow, a great deal of accidental misrepresentation might occur from the relation of the plate to the object, is done away by taking stereoscopic views. This is particularly required where joints are involved.

Where the field is so new and such unanticipated observations have followed experiment, it is natural that the influence of this radiance should be tried upon pathogenic bacteria. Different observers have attained somewhat contradictory results, but at present the general determination is negative. At most, as thus far observed, the growth of cultures outside the body may be checked, but developed colonies are not materially affected. In physiology proper, in the examination of foods and drugs for adulterants, and in veterinary medicine, the Roentgen rays have a growing value.

The volume before us explains at length the matters we have summarized. It contains nearly four hundred illustrations, all apposite; and, although sometimes unduly prolix, it fairly represents our present knowledge in this direction. The author has had exceptional facilities for mastering the apparatus and for observation upon patients, and of both he has taken full and intelligent advantage. More than one hundred pages are devoted to the equipment and its use. The only weak point we have observed is the inference that the static machine may be made sufficiently large and kept sufficiently dry always to work, as found in this sentence (p. 14): "During damp weather the leakage of electricity from the static machine is greater, and a smaller amount is generated, than in dry weather; therefore, the machine must be large enough to give out a sufficient amount of electricity even when the air is moist." This implies possibilities that do not always exist. In the tropics the atmosphere near the sea level is so charged with moisture as to make any static machine of practicable size unreliable. These objections do not have force against an inductive apparatus. Throughout the volume it is insisted that the interpretation of the observations requires special training, much as the meanings of chemical reactions require expert explanation. This does not lessen, perhaps it increases, the real value of the method.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armstrong, Le Roy. The Outlaws. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Austin, Alfred. A Tale of True Love, and Other Poems. Harpers. $1.20.
Baldwin, James. The Book Lover: A Guide to the Best Reading. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Barnard, F. P. Companion to English History. (Middle Ages.) Henry Frowde. $2.90.
Bourne, G. C. An Introduction to the Study of the Comparative Anatomy of Animals, Vol. II. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Boyle, Courtenay. Mary Boyle: Her Book. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Brandes, George. Main Currents in Nineteenth Century Literature, Vol. II.; The Romantic School in Germany. Macmillan. $2.75.
Brewer, D. J. American Citizenship. (Yale Lectures.) Scribners. 75 cents.
Brown, P. H. History of Scotland. Vol. II. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Brown, W. L. Helpful Thoughts from the Meditations of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Brown, W. G. Stephen Arnold Douglas. (Riverside Biographical Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 65 cents.
Brown, Abbie F. In the Days of Giants. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Burge, Marie L. Sylva, and Other Poems. Edwin S. Gorham.
Butler, C. H. The Treaty-Making Power of the United States, Vols. I. and II. The Banks Law Pub. Co.
Byrnes, H. W. Pictorial Bay Shore. Bay Shore (L. I.): H. W. Byrnes. 50 cents.
Carpenter, F. G. Europe (Carpenter's Geographical Reader). American Book Co. 70 cents.
Carter, Eva M. Gleanings from Nature. Abbey Press. $1.
Chamberlain, L. T. The Evolutionary Philosophy. The Baker & Taylor Co. 50 cents.
Charles, Frances. In the Country God Forgot. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Clark, A. When Bards Sing Out of Tune. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Clarke, Mary C. Letters to an Enthusiast. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. Margaret Vincent. Harpers. $1.50.
Coppée, François. Le Morceau de Pain et Autres Contes. W. R. Jenkins. 25 cents.
Crane, Walter. The Bases of Design. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Crockett, S. R. The Dark o' the Moon. Harpers. $1.50.
Crowley, Mary C. The Heroine of the Strait. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cullen, C. L. More Ex-Tank Tales. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Datchet, Charles. Morchester. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
Doughty, A. The Siege of Quebec and the Battle of the Plains of Abraham. 6 vols. Quebec: Dussault & Proulx. $40.
Doyle, A. C. The Hound of the Baskervilles. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Duff, E. M., and Allen, T. G. Psychic Research and Gospel Miracles. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Gibbes, Frances G. Poems. Washington: The Neale Pub. Co.
Gladden, Washington. Social Salvation. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Goodnight, A. L. Modern Association and Railroading. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Gray, Martha. Fortune's Wheel. Abbey Press. $1.
Griffin, A. P. C. A List of Books Relating to Trusts. New ed. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Guyse, Eleanor. A Movable Quartette. Abbey Press. $1.
Hall, A. C. Crime in its Relations to Social Progress. The Columbia University Press (Macmillan).
Hall, R. N., and Neal, W. G. The Ancient Ruins of Rhodesia. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $6.
Harte, Bret. Openings in the Old Trail. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Harry, T. E. Infans Amoris. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Henderson, C. H. Education and the Larger Life. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.30.
Hodge, C. F. Nature Study and Life. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Hough, Emerson. The Mississippi Bubble. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Howells, W. D. The Kentons. Harpers. $1.50.
Hyde, M. G. The Girl from Mexico, and Other Stories. Abbey Press. $1.
Jones, M. P. The Chiefs of Cambria. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Kane, H. H. Rêves et Cauchemars. The International Pub. Co.
Kelsey, Albert. The Architectural Annual. Philadelphia: The Architectural Annual.
Kern, Margaret. The Tale of a Cat. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Leroy, William. A Silken Snare. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Little Engravings: (1) Albrecht Altdorfer; (2) William Blake. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50 each.
Lockett, Mary F. Christopher. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Macmillan, Michael. The Works of Shakespeare: The Tragedy of Julius Cæsar. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Major, Charles. Dorothy Vernon of Haddon Hall. Macmillan. $1.50.
Martin, G. H. Civil Government in the United States. Rev. ed. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Marx, K., and Engels, F. Le Manifeste Communiste — II. Paris: Société Nouvelle de Librairie et d'Édition. 1 fr.
Mathes, J. H. General Forrest. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Mathews, F. S. Field Book of American Wild Flowers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Meyer, Edward. Sommermärchen von Rudolf Baumbach. H. Holt & Co.
Meyer, E. S. Der Traum, ein Leben: Dramatisches Märchen in vier Aufzügen von Franz Grillparzer. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 60 cents.
Molander, Anna. Scientific Sloyd. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50 cents.
Moore, F. F. A Damsel or Two. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Moore, T. E. My Lord Farquhar. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Newell, W. C. The Life Worth Living. Abbey Press. $1.
Pangborn, Georgia W. Roman Bizet. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Pascoe, C. E. The Pageant and Ceremony of the Coronation of Their Majesties King Edward VII. and Queen Alexandra. D. Appleton & Co. $1.40.
Putnam, Israel. Daniel Everton: A Romance of the Philippines. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.20.
Reid, Wemyss. William Black, Novelist. Harpers. $2.25.
Report of the Commissioners Representing the State of New York at the Universal Exposition at Paris, France, 1900. Brooklyn: Daily Eagle.
Richard, Margaret A. Darkey Ways in Dixie. Abbey Press. $1.
Riley, F. L. Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society, Vol. V. Oxford (Miss.): Published by the Society.
Sage, William. The Claybornes. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Santanelli. The Law of Suggestion. Lansing (Mich.): The Santanelli Pub. Co. $1.10.
Speer, R. E. The Principles of Jesus Applied to Some Questions of To-day. Fleming H. Revell Co. 80 cents.
Stevens, E. L. Business Education. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 15 cents.
Stowell, F. W. Ragtime Philosophy. San Francisco: The San Francisco News Co. 50 cents.
The Memoirs of François René Vicomte de Chateaubriand, Vols. III. and IV. (Translated by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos.) London: Freemantle & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
The Temple Bible: (1) Deuteronomy; (2) The First and Second Books of Samuel. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott. 60 cents each.
Van Vorst, Marie. Philip Longstreth. Harpers. $1.50.
Walpole, Spencer. Some Unpublished Letters of Horace Walpole. Longmans, Green & Co.

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The Week.

President Roosevelt was quoted, the other day, as saying to a friend that he was trying to qualify himself for making speeches "on his feet," without the necessity of any preparation. It appears to have been a speech of this sort which he delivered on Friday night at the banquet of the Sons of the American Revolution, after his run over to Annapolis, earlier in the day, to talk to the graduating class of naval cadets. Mr. Roosevelt was full of enthusiasm for the flag, and, once started on that subject, there was no telling where an impulsive man, making an offhand speech, would bring up. It is therefore scarcely surprising that, after an allusion to "the islands of the Eastern seas," he should have remarked that "the republic has put up its flag in those islands, and the flag will stay there"; and again, after he had received much applause, "I think you make it evident that you intend that the flag shall 'stay put.'" This sort of slap-dash oratory is very different from the calm discussion of the Philippine problem in the President's message last December, when he wrote that "we do not desire to do for the islanders merely what has elsewhere been done for tropic peoples by even the best foreign governments," but that "we hope to do for them what has never before been done for any people of the tropics—to make them fit for self-government after the fashion of the really free nations."

We know that the President, counselled by Gov. Taft, was fearful of the consequences of collisions with the Moros, and went so far as to countermand the recent punitive expedition to Mindanao—though, unfortunately, too late. And the history of Spanish troubles in Mindanao for two centuries is before us as an open book, in which to read a warning against our present course. Naturally, Gen. Davis is sure that the "blow" he has now struck will bring the Moros to their knees. Perhaps it will; but we cannot forget the miserable dashing of similar hopes and similar predictions for three years past. President Roosevelt could not help sending his thanks and congratulations for a fight which he himself believed should never have taken place, but how topsy-turvy he makes our military standards appear in the eyes of the world! Time was when an affair like this in Mindanao would have been called a mere skirmish by Americans; now it is a great "victory," with eight men killed and forty-one wounded. What would a survivor of the battles of the Wilderness think of that? The President should remember that there is a foreign opinion in this business which we have to consider. Other World Powers do not get so excited when a few of their soldiers at the ends of the earth are killed in a trifling action. That is part of the regular business of Imperialism.

Even if the condemnation of barbarous warfare in the Philippines by the Imperialist press is somewhat belated, we welcome it, as we welcome everything that compels Americans to give attention to a subject to which too many of them have become increasingly indifferent. Silence, we know, is consistent with shame, and may be one of the signs of its existence; and the fact that only a few of the more unblushing or foolish newspapers have defended Gen. Smith's policy of extermination, shows what the general sentiment is. To allege the provocation which our soldiers had, is to set up a defence which President Roosevelt brushed aside in advance. To fall back on the miserable sophistry that "war is hell," is only another way of making out those who engage in that kind of war to be fiends. It is, besides, to offer an excuse for ourselves which we did not tolerate for an instant in the case of Spanish atrocities. That is our present moral humiliation in the eyes of the world. We made war on Spain four years ago for doing the very things of which we are now guilty ourselves. As the Chicago *News* pointedly observes, we are giving Spain as good reason to interfere with us on the ground of humanity as we had to interfere with her. Doubtless she would interfere if she were strong enough, and thought she could acquire some islands in the virtuous act.

An interesting side-light on conditions in the Philippines was cast in the address of the Chairman at the annual meeting in London of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China. This institution has branches in the Philippines, and the stockholders were informed that the managers were "disappointed at the slow pacification of the Philippines, and consequent retardation in the revival of trade." The Chairman went on to observe that, "since the advent of the Americans, the volume of business has greatly shrunken." He had some hard things to say of the vacillation and bad management displayed by the United States in its Philippine possessions, and came to this conclusion: "In the absence of a national determination to retain and *exploit* the islands, we feel, as regards our branches there, that while there is so much uncertainty, we must be very circumspect, and endeavor to keep our funds as liquid as possible." Here is certainly a new and powerful argument for hurrying through the Republican bill to "exploit the islands." Gov. Taft says, to be sure, that it would be a bad thing to do, but English bankers are openly complaining that they cannot make any money unless we go on with our exploiting.

With the inauguration of the President of Cuba hardly two weeks off, none of our promises of tariff aid for the island are fulfilled, or seem likely to be. Washington dispatches represent the situation as almost completely deadlocked, with the Administration bill so tied up and delayed that, even if it ever passes in some mangled and ineffective form, it will be a practical defeat for the President, and a serious disappointment, if not a disaster, to the Cubans. The whole controversy would seem to have degenerated into a bitter quarrel between Havemeyer and Oxnard, with Congress simply standing by as a helpless spectator. The mortification of the President and Secretary Root must be extreme as they see their measure hung up and substantially abandoned. What is most depressing about the whole display is its exceeding pettiness. A Government complacently embarking on Imperial rule does not present an imposing figure when it finds itself at the mercy of men whose ideas are only those of a parish. Much of the official boasting we have already done about Cuba has been hollow enough, to the attentive ear; but if all our brave words and explicit pledges in connection with aiding the Cubans now fall to the ground, it will be impossible for even an unwinking Expansionist to glow with "honest pride" as he contemplates the spectacle.

The Senate Committee on Relations with Cuba had Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, President of the American Sugar Refining Company, or Trust, as a witness on Thursday, and obtained from him testimony on two entirely different questions, both of which are just now engaging general attention. The first and immediate subject embraced in the examination relates to the ownership of raw Cuban sugar by the Trust. The sole reason for having Mr. Havemeyer as a witness at all was to prove that the Trust owns, or has a mortgage on, the bulk of the crop now ready for shipment, so that any reduction of the duties would be a bonus to the Trust rather than to the Cubans. Mr. Havemeyer testified that, from January 1 to April 30, the total Cuban sugar purchased by the Trust had been 93,000 tons, of which about half had been

shipped and the remainder was stored in Cuba. Those 93,000 tons, he said, represented all the interest of the so-called Trust in Cuban sugars, directly or indirectly. The Trust had made no advances on sugar held in Cuba. As compared with the purchases of Cuban sugar by the company in former years, this year's purchases are small. In the same period of 1901 it had bought 155,000 tons. About 50,000 tons of the sugar bought by the Trust this year still remained in Cuba, and this was about ten days' supply for its refineries. Here we note a discrepancy between Mr. Havemeyer's statement of the holdings of sugar in Cuba and that given by Gen. Wood on the 2d of April. According to the latter authority, the amount so held then was only 3,285 tons, but it is quite possible that the bulk of the Trust's holdings were purchased after April 2. Mr. Havemeyer said also that the Trust did not own any sugar plantations or lands in Cuba. It had had the intention at one time of acquiring such lands, but had not carried the intention into effect. Mr. Havemeyer gave a list of his private holdings in sugar factories in Cuba and in sugar lands.

Mr. Havemeyer was asked whether he did not make a very low price for sugar in the Missouri valley last summer, and he replied that he did; he had reduced it from 4 1-10 cents to 3½ cents per pound, and kept it at that price "until we recovered our trade." His reason for doing this was that the beet-sugar makers had sought to control the market by contracts ahead, which he considered "in restraint of trade," and consequently he reduced the price till he had recovered the trade. Then Senator Teller, with great simplicity, asked where the beet-sugar men were to sell their product, to which the witness made the unfeeling answer:

> "I don't know. That is their business, and they won't tell me, because they know that if they did I would get at them again. I do not propose that they shall control the trade; it is all that I can do to take care of the American Company's interests."

He added that he had no intention of driving the beet-sugar industry out of the country, but that he should fight to hold his own trade as long as there was a dollar in his company's treasury. Now if competition is the life of trade, Mr. Havemeyer was giving the country, or at all events, the people in the Missouri valley, the benefit of it. If the Sugar Trust is a bad thing *per se*, it could scarcely have been regarded as such in the places where it was putting down the price of sugar to 3½ cents per pound. It may be said that if the Trust should succeed in stopping the production of beet-sugar altogether, then it would be a real monopoly, and could extort any prices it liked for sugar. That does not follow, however, since Congress could at any time admit sugar from abroad, both raw and refined, free of duty. So the dangers of a monopoly in sugar are wholly imaginary, and we have the unwonted spectacle of a great Trust fighting for its life, and giving the country the benefits of the most unbridled competition at a time when the public is more agitated on the subject of monopolies than ever before.

The reply of the Northern Securities Company to the Attorney-General's suit was filed in Minnesota on Monday. Briefly summed up, it alleges that the group of capitalists named in the Government's bill does not own a majority of Northern Securities stock; that there are 1,300 separate holders; that no agreement exists for voting the stock in harmony; that rates on the railroads controlled have been lowered since the company was formed; that, in fact, the two railroads themselves have no arbitrary power over interstate rates; and that the Northern Securities was organized "merely to purchase the stock of those who wished to sell." An important point of the answer is its reference to the purchases by other railways of the stock of competing companies since the Anti-Trust Law of 1890 was enacted. The brief declares:

> "During the eleven years since the passage of that act, in many instances the stock of a competing railway company has been acquired by its competitor, or the shareholders thereof; such acquisition including many of the principal railways doing business throughout the country. This has been done without objection from any branch of the Government of the United States, and has invariably proven beneficial to the railway companies concerned and to the public."

We say this point of the answer is important, because it raises a consideration which even courts of justice often recognize. The question, what would follow if the decision in this case were to upset the validity of important and long-standing investments by such companies as the Pennsylvania, the Union Pacific, and the Southern, is, in the minds of conservative financiers, the most serious of all. The Attorney-General, foreseeing this argument in the answer, undertook to forestall it by a technical allegation of bad faith. The Northern Securities, he alleged, "is a mere depository, custodian, holder, and trustee" of the stocks in question; it was "organized solely to incorporate the pooling of the stocks," and "no consideration whatever has existed, or will exist, for the transfer, . . . other than the issue of the stock of the Northern Securities Company . . . in exchange therefor." This part of the bill has been recognized by all lawyers as the strategic point of Mr. Knox's move. That a general denial would be made to it, in urgent language, was expected; what adds some novel interest, however, is the defendant's further answer, that

> "The Northern Securities Company has not paid for all the stock of the Great Northern Company and of the Northern Pacific Company acquired by it in shares of its own stock, but, on the contrary, has expended upwards of $40,000,000 cash in the making of such purchases."

This is the first appearance of the above mysterious $40,000,000 in the case, and, as no details appear to accompany the statement cited, it would be premature to attempt any explanation now. We may observe, however, that the answer indicates that this question of cash purchase is not unlikely to be the centre of the legal battle-line. How far the Minnesota brief covers the dictum of the Supreme Court in the trans-Missouri case, that "the necessary effect" of a railway combination or agreement of the sort "is to restrain trade and commerce, no matter what the intent was" on the part of its authors, is a broader question.

Whether there is a Beef Trust or not—whether there was a valid excuse for the recent advance in the price of beef or not—the sudden slackening in the public demand for the article has paralyzed the cattle trade all over the West. From all quarters we hear that there is no sale for cattle, hogs, or sheep, and that the buyers and packers are telegraphing to their agents not to send any more till the yards are cleared of stock on hand. This is the fitting answer to the beef combine. The people of the United States have simply controlled their appetite for beef. They have chosen a different diet for the time being. In the multitude and variety of things offered for human consumption, it is not difficult for a family to reduce its consumption of beef one-half without going hungry or suffering much inconvenience. The result of such a change in the habits of the community is to throw back upon the hands of the Trust one-half of all the meats in the markets and in the railroad cars, and upon the drovers and ranchmen one-half of all the cattle *en route* to the packers—in short, to produce the condition of glut which the dispatches tell us exists in Chicago, Omaha, Kansas City, and Denver to-day. This lesson will be more salutary to the beef monopolists than forty lawsuits under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. It may have the happier effect of teaching people to economize in the use of an expensive article of diet. It is said that a French family can live comfortably on the food that an American family wastes. While this is not universally true, there is a large substratum of fact in it.

Increases of wages in various trades during the past year have been shown in the reviews of the labor market on the 1st of May, published by newspapers in different parts of the country. Employment has also been much more nearly continuous than usual during the

past twelvemonth. This means that more men have had work than is generally the case, and that many of those at work have received more than the average rate of pay. This shows how the business activity affects the laboring classes. At least, it shows one way in which that activity affects them. Many men who formerly could not find employment can now earn wages, and these are, of course, much better off than they were. As to those who used to have work and now receive more pay for it than formerly, a different question arises—Does the increase in the cost of what they buy exceed their gain in wages? If it does, they were better off on the smaller pay, when food and clothing also cost them less. As regards the class of salaried men who have permanent employment at the same rate of pay, year after year, we suppose there can be no question that a "business boom" is a bad thing for them. Hard times are really good times for the college professor who is sure of his place, because his fixed income brings him more of the comforts of life in such periods than when prices are high all around.

Mr. Bryan has intimated more than once of late that he would not be a candidate for the Presidential nomination in 1904. If he designed these announcements as "feelers," to test the sentiment of the Democratic party, he must have been impressed with the plain manifestations of relief at the prospect of his withdrawal from leadership. At any rate, he has apparently decided that his best policy is to renounce ambition for another nomination, and gave public notice of it at a banquet in Birmingham, Ala., on Saturday night:

> "During his speech Mr. Bryan intimated that he would not again be a candidate for the Presidential nomination. In referring to the subject, he likened himself to Aaron, who, he said, assisted Moses in leading the children of Israel out of the wilderness by his public utterances. He said he was perfectly willing to let some other person take the part of Moses."

Where is the new Democratic Moses? That is the question which everybody naturally asks, and there would be no approach to agreement among those who should answer. It is worth while pointing out, however, that it has repeatedly happened that men have become national leaders who were hardly thought of as possible Presidential candidates two years and a half before the election. It is now May, 1902, and the next President will be chosen in November, 1904. In May, 1894, Mr. Bryan himself was serving his second term in the House of Representatives, but it is safe to say that not one human being, either in Congress or outside it, then dreamt of such a thing as his being the Democratic candidate for President in 1896, and becoming so much the master of the party organization that no other name than his would be mentioned in the convention of 1900.

The revised budget adopted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment last week is undoubtedly at first sight a disappointment to most people who contributed to the overthrow of Tammany last fall. The general impression was that there had been such extravagance under Mayor Van Wyck that a reform Administration might save millions without impairing the efficiency of the government. To find that the revised budget now adopted, after careful study, aggregates $98,619,600, against the $97,974,541 estimated by Tammany during the campaign last fall, is a shock to all except the small number of persons who have kept close track of developments in the various departments since the beginning of the year. The truth is, that the public expected too much. The estimates made by Tammany last fall constituted what may properly be called a "trick" budget, designed to deceive the people during the campaign, and involving the necessity of increases this spring, whoever might be in power. It is necessary to appropriate $500,000 now to meet deficiencies which existed last fall, but which were not provided for then. Moreover, Tammany had allowed such neglect and inefficiency in many departments that decent service involved heavy expenditures to put the plant in good condition, as in the cleaning of the streets, or to furnish proper food and care for the city's wards, as in the Department of Charities. That $100,000 more must be expended on supplies for this latter department than Tammany granted means simply that common humanity has supplanted brutal methods in the support of thousands of helpless people.

It is probably a relief to all concerned, including the Italians, that the King's pardon sends the imprisoned officers of the United States cruiser *Chicago* back to their ship. The Navy Department must feel that the proper response to this act of royal clemency is a court-martial of the offenders as prompt and thorough as may be. At this court-martial, whatever may be said in apology for commissioned officers who get into a drunken fight in a foreign city, will undoubtedly be brought forward. For the present we have to choose between dispatches which differ widely in their contents, but which all make out a case highly discreditable to officers wearing the uniform of the United States navy. We trust that the uglier features reported of this drunkard's progress in a friendly port—the more odious because among the Italians intoxication is almost unheard of—will turn out to be untrue; enough will remain, we may be sure, to bring exemplary punishment upon officers who so far forgot the traditions of the American navy. In this matter the navy, let us hope, will show that it is an efficient guardian of its own honor.

The Irish question is again thrust upon Parliament just at the time when the need of relieving that body from the petty details of local legislation is more keenly felt than ever. Mr. Balfour has at last got his amended rules through the Commons, but, even with their aid in expediting business, he cannot see his way to avoid that hated thing—an autumn session. Even leaving out controverted political measures, like the Education Bill, such an increasing mass of legislation for the constituent parts of the United Kingdom is pressed upon Parliament that there are fresh demands for some plan to get rid of it. "Devolution of Imperial powers" is the favorite name for the method of avoiding a congestion of business at Westminster. Lord Rosebery declared himself for that euphemism in the very speech in which he forswore Irish Home Rule. The latter may yet come, smelling as sweet, under some other name. One can easily imagine Mr. Balfour, or, with more difficulty, Mr. Chamberlain, consenting to do under the guise of "devolution" what they would bitterly oppose if dubbed Home Rule. In any case, it is universally agreed that something must soon be done to save Parliament from breaking down under the pressure of local business, which could be so much better attended to by the localities concerned.

The profound sympathy which is felt for the young Queen of Holland is heightened by many considerations—her gracious personality, her youth, and the too fleeting romance of her marriage to a German princeling. The fact that her untimely death would leave the succession to the throne of the Netherlands in grave doubt, gives also an unusual political significance to the desperate hazard of life and death in which she now lies. With her the Dutch line of Nassau is extinct, and the crown reverts to collateral heirs so distantly related to the royal line that they could arouse no enthusiasm among the Dutch. Furthermore, these distant claimants, all Germans, would surely be distasteful to the Netherlanders; for, first, Germany is suspected, not without cause, of ulterior designs upon Holland, and next, the Prince Consort has certainly, by his personal actions, rather heightened than lessened an already existing prejudice against the Germans. If it were fifty years earlier, the fixing of the succession would afford a very pretty chance for a quarrel among the Powers. As it is, Parliament is perfectly capable of choosing a king among the numerous remote claimants; in which case no Prussian would be likely to succeed.

"HYSTERIA" IN 1898 AND NOW.

Col. C. A. Woodruff, speaking on Saturday in defence of Gen. Smith before the court-martial in Manila, alluded to "the hysterical public opinion" which had brought about the trial of "this gray, wounded, victorious general." It was in evidence that the victorious general had given orders to take no prisoners, to kill "everything over ten," and to make Samar a howling wilderness; but to object to such measures was mere "sentiment," Col. Woodruff asserted, and he added that, though sentiment is an "excellent thing," there is "no place for it in war."

Now this may be sound military doctrine, on general principles. On such a defence Napoleon might have fallen back, or the Duke of Alva, or Gen. Weyler; but no American can possibly make use of it. Our mouths are stopped. As a nation we solemnly denied the validity of such a defence of cruelty in warfare, and appealed to the arbitrament of the sword in protest against it. We went to war with Spain for conducting war cruelly. We did not sneer at "sentiment" in 1897 and 1898, when stories of Spanish inhumanity and torture roused our indignation. Not for a moment did we admit that it was "hysteria" which set the country aflame with noble rage at the reported Spanish atrocities in Cuba and in the Philippines. No, that was the generous uprising of a humane people to put an end to unspeakable abominations. Talk not to us of military necessity. Urge no precedents. We would listen to none of them, but went to war calling men and angels to witness that our motives were of the purest, and that we resorted to arms only because our outraged natures could no longer endure the sight of miserable beings tortured and massacred by a ruthless soldiery.

It is this great fact, within the memory of all, which puts us out of court when we begin to philosophize about the necessary evils of war. We deliberately renounced any such defence for ourselves when we refused to accept it for those with whom we were in controversy. In demanding a better standard of others, we bound ourselves to abide by it. With what judgment we judged the Spaniards in 1898, it must be meted to us again in 1902. Not for us are the apologies to be drawn from that most comfortable apothegm, "War is hell"; we put them all aside; we would hearken to no palliation, and vowed to high heaven that the conduct we complained of had no justification except on the principles of the devil. This is what makes it so impossible for us to come into court to-day with clean hands. Our own plea we ourselves have derided in advance.

Those Republican newspapers which are slowly plucking up courage to excuse the inhumanities of our war in the Philippines, take much satisfaction in reproducing the worst orders ever issued by Northern generals in the civil war. They recall what Sheridan did in the Valley of the Shenandoah, what black ruin attended Sherman's march through Georgia, and quote with delight Gen. G. M. Dodge's saying of three counties in Tennessee that "I believe our policy is to burn up these counties," together with Gen. Halleck's announced determination to "punish all whom I can catch, although I have no doubt there will be a newspaper howl against me as a bloodthirsty monster." To all which, we have to say that it does not in the least break the force of our present self-condemnation. These very examples from our own civil war were cited in 1898 as a reason why we should not madly rush into conflict with Spain for similar bloody incidents of war, but no one would pay the slightest attention. All the citation of precedents, even out of our own history, was then furiously brushed aside. It will as little avail us now.

Furthermore, we find a strange fatuity, or an ironic stroke of fate, in this reopening of the wounds of the South. The Spanish war, we know, wrought one of its many blessings in reuniting the severed sections of our country. The blue and the gray side by side in Cuba made the past forgotten, and a true union of hearts resulted. After all that, there is something sardonic in this latest sequel of the Spanish war. Northern newspapers are admitting, even boasting, that the worst grievances of the South against the Federal armies were well founded. "Yes," they are saying, "we harried you and burned you and shot down combatants without distinction of sex, as Gen. Halleck put it. As Gen. Weyler treated the Cuban rebels, and as Gen. Arolas used fire and sword in the Philippines, so did our armies ravage the South." Thus has the providential Spanish war obliterated all ill feeling between North and South!

Above and beyond all this, we have, fortunately, in the official utterance of President Roosevelt a moral and military standard which discomfits all the apologists for cruelty. The President of the United States, Commander-in-Chief of all our armies, has declared that torture and massacre will not be tolerated under the American flag. No matter what the provocation, that offence will not go unpunished. This Executive deliverance is what clipped the periods of Senator Lodge's oratory on Monday. He undertook to tell the story of Filipino cruelty. That this has been extreme we do not doubt, though Lodge had nothing but the vaguest allegations to make. But this has nothing to do with the case, and all such limping defences as Lodge's are swept out of existence by the single broad assertion of the President: "Great as the provocation has been in dealing with foes who habitually resort to treachery, murder, and torture against our men, *nothing can justify or will be held to justify the use of torture or inhuman conduct of any kind* on the part of the American Army." Senator Lodge seemed to be dimly aware that his entire speech was snuffed out in advance by that one sentence. That is the reason, perhaps, why he made his oration a specimen of smoking flax so easy to quench.

THE PESKY ANTI-IMPERIALIST.

It is most provoking, we know, for Anti-Imperialists to pretend that they are still alive. They have been killed so often. After 1899 we were to hear no more of them. In 1900 they were again pronounced dead, although, like the obstinate Irishman, they continued to protest that, if they were dead, they were not conscious of it. Last year the slain were slaughtered once more, and that time buried as well, with all due ceremony. Yet the impudent creatures have resumed activity during the past few months just as if their epitaphs had not been composed again and again.

And the worst of it is that they seem to have acquired a strange power over the public and over Government. What the lonely and ridiculous Anti-Imperialist was whispering in the closet, a year ago, thousands are now shouting from the housetops. The impossible measures which the absurd fellow was demanding have been adopted by the President of the United States, and have even compelled the approval of Congress. When Gen. Funston, for example, began his blethering, it was the foolish Anti-Imperialists who said that the President ought to reprimand and silence him, and how the jeers arose! That was just like the silly old impracticables—attacking a popular hero. But presently the said hero had a gag forcibly inserted between his teeth by Executive order, just as if the Anti-Imperialists had been right about it from the beginning. It is not necessary to recall the triumphs of the mistaken beings in the whole matter of the Philippine investigation and of courts-martial for the implicated officers. Enough to say that, in the entire affair, the Administration and Congress have acted on the demand and as if by the advice of that handful of out-of-date and laughable persons, the Anti-Imperialists.

The phenomenon occasions much scratching of the Imperialist head. How to account for it? Imperialist editors and statesmen are puzzled. Their despised and helpless opponents are actually swaying the policy of the Government! It is absurd, of course, really quite preposterous, but there stands the fact. It is all very fine, and it's lots of fun, to make merry at the expense of

wrong-headed people who get in the way of national progress, and hope to turn back the hands on the dial of evolution, but how if they succeed? Prodigiously unreasonable, it goes without saying, and truly disgusting to the well-ordered mind of the Imperialist; but what is the explanation?

Very simple, cocksure brothers of the Empire, we assure you. All you have to do is to remember that Anti-Imperialism is only another name for old-fashioned Americanism, and all will be clear to you. An American who has a settled body of convictions, as to which he is ready to speak out at a moment's notice, and which he is ready to apply promptly and sharply to every fresh set of circumstances that turns up; who with his inherited ideas has an inherited courage, an inherited love of equality and of justice; who has also a sense of humor which cannot be imposed upon by Uncle Sam masquerading in Louis Quatorze garments—why, he is a natural born Anti-Imperialist, and it is simply his Americanism that makes him think and act as he does.

We have had some beautiful illustrations of this truth in the weeks last past. What is the true American way of dealing with a rampant military banqueteer like Funston? Or with news from the Philippines that makes the blood curdle? It is to say on the spot what you think, is it not? Well, that is exactly what the Anti-Imperialists did. It was the other sort who looked at each other in wild surmise, wondered if they dared say anything at all, kept still until shame finally drove them into mumbling speech, and acted in all ways as if they were the terrified and hunted minority afraid to say their souls were their own. Is that Imperialism? We do not know. We only know that it is not Americanism, and that in this case, as so many times before, the citizens who first found their voices, who first spoke out their honest indignation and made their righteous demands, were the ones to move public opinion and to influence official action, while the palterers and the apologizers had to come shamefacedly after.

And it is, too, the "ancient humor," as well as the elder stanchness, of true Americanism that has been coming to its own in the recent successes of the Anti-Imperialist cause. What are our anxious and solemn Imperialists thinking of when they imagine that Uncle Sam has forgotten how to take a joke? They gather about the old gentleman with attentive flatteries, and keep serious faces when he nervously asks them how his ermine hangs, and if his crown is on straight. All the while he would much prefer to have them laugh at him openly and tell him not to be a durn fool. Mark Twain is showing us to-day how true is his descent in the right line of American humor by his continued satires on the airs and graces of our Imperialists. He speaks in the very voice, if not in the numbers, of Hosea Biglow, and with all his sarcasm at the expense of the high and mighty ones who think to arrange all matters of statesmanship and of national policy without consulting the inquisitive democrat of field and shop—

"Wal, it's a marcy we've gut folks to tell us
The rights an' the wrongs o' these matters, I vow."

This, in a word, is what makes the Anti-Imperialist so pesky—he is American to the core. He has fed on his country's tradition. With him, as with Gov. Andrew and with Lincoln, justice does not depend upon the color of a man's skin. He cannot distinguish between the flag and the principles which first set the flag flying. With John Quincy Adams he believes that the Declaration of Independence is the very Alcoran of American political doctrine. And he does not in the least mind being in a minority. He remembers that the history of success is the history of minorities. Sneers and jeers are alike indifferent to him, and when the Red Slayer thinks to have made an end of him, he turns and passes and comes again. He is content to bide his time, knowing that the road of popular persuasion is a long one, though sure in the end, and that republics cannot march to their goal with "the decisiveness and consistency of despotism." Withal, he knows how to shoot a dart of ridicule at Imperialist folly as it flies, and derives amusement as well as hope from Uncle Sam's humorous appreciation of his present plight. This might well be caricatured to-day, as we have heard it suggested, by a picture of your Uncle ruefully contemplating his Philippine extremities, enormously swollen by ulcers and boils, and saying with whimsical melancholy, "And they call this expansion!"

REFORMERS AND APPEARANCES.

Another version of President Roosevelt's reason for giving an avowed spoilsman a lucrative Federal office is furnished in a Washington dispatch to the *Times*. It is that Mr. Roosevelt "liked" Clarkson. He made him Surveyor of the Port because "he knew him to be a big, strong man." It was not a case of yielding to "importunity"; the President "was as much pleased with the idea of making Clarkson Surveyor as were any of Clarkson's Iowa friends." This explanation sounds very probable. It puts the Clarkson appointment in line with that of Murray and Daniels—also men whom the President knew to be big and strong. Very likely, he is in the habit of calling the new Surveyor "Jim," just as he calls the others "Joe" and "Ben." He could not, of course, overlook the fact that Ben had omitted to mention that he was an ex-convict; but it would obviously be drawing it quite too fine for an admirer of big and strong men to refuse to appoint one of them to office on account of some miserable little technicality like having previously been denounced by Mr. Roosevelt himself as hostile to decent government.

Now we are quite ready to believe that President Roosevelt's intentions, in all this matter of the civil service, are of the best. We know that he has fought and is still fighting the spoilsmen of his party. His general standards of appointment are undoubtedly high. But what he seems to forget is the fact that good intentions cannot excuse a reformer for doing things which appear precisely like the acts of a spoilsman, and that to justify himself by giving exactly the explanation which a corruptionist would advance is only, as Disraeli said of a "vindication" offered by Sir Robert Peel, "an aggravated avowal of the offence of which he was accused."

Mr. Roosevelt did not, as Civil-Service Commissioner, fight with wild beasts at Ephesus without learning that one of the first excuses to leap to the lips of Senators or Representatives, urging unfit appointments, is that they "know" and "like" the candidates. Perhaps the big and strong men have not been, as such, so high in favor with valetudinarian Senators as they are with the athletic President; but if personal acquaintance and liking are sufficient, why, the worst ward-worker that Mr. Roosevelt ever barred from office was as warmly vouched for as Clarkson. Senator Hanna, for example, knows and likes Rathbone. The President cannot be more emphatic about Joe Murray than Hanna is about his Ohio lieutenant, temporarily in controversy with Cuban officers of justice. The very language used by Mr. Roosevelt about *his* man is employed by spoils-mongering Senators to describe the virtues of *their* men. "Why, I know Rathbone," says Hanna, "and a cracking good fellow he is." "I know Sayler," says Quay of his discredited Consul, "and a truer man never overcharged the State Treasury." No one would be swifter than the President to see the hollowness of such a reason for naming unfit men. But is not his own reason in the Clarkson and Murray cases practically the same? It will not do for him indignantly to assert his good intentions. Hanna and Quay would lay their hands on their hearts and profess only devotion to the public good. The one question is as to the merit and fitness of the nominee; and that can no more be settled by warm assurances from the White House than from the Senate chamber.

The sum of our complaint is, that there are well-settled principles and practices which reformers have contended for when spoilsmen were in office, and which cannot be waived without scandal by reformers when they themselves get into office. Take the appointment of Murray to succeed Commissioner Mc-

Sweeney. Saying nothing now about the propriety of removing the latter, why should the office have been at once taken from the competitive class? Apparently, it was in order to make it certain that Murray could get it. His ability to pass an examination was doubtful, and so the examination was abolished for his benefit. Is it any excuse for this to say that the President had summered and wintered with this man, and knew him to be a worthy fellow, even if illiterate? We think not. Imagine what Civil-Service Commissioner Roosevelt would have said of such a proceeding by President Cleveland. He would have asked what the rules were for, and why the classified service existed at all, if an executive order were to be allowed thus to break down the system for the sake of doing a personal favor.

It is a common temptation of reformers in office to take their own good character and excellent purposes as an excuse for doing what they would not for a moment tolerate in another. They forget the importance of appearances in such matters. They think that, being good men in office, they can override safeguards which were devised to stay the hands of bad officials. Thus their sole defence is, "The others were scoundrels, but we are virtuous." But that is a highly perilous defence. The public will not accept it. If the rules and the methods and the standards which have been loudly advocated in the name of reform, are suspended or abandoned by reformers as soon as they get office, people will say, and they cannot be blamed for saying, that reform stands convicted of being either impracticable or insincere. None of the reasons of state alleged will suffice with this out-of-door public. When it sees a President allowing in himself the thing that he condemned in another, and hears him speak of the considerations that have led him to change his opinion and vary his practice, it will ask with Junius, "My Lord, is this the wisdom of a great statesman, or the ominous oscillation of a pendulum?"

THE BANKS AND THE TRUST COMPANIES.

The New York Clearing-house last week made public certain resolutions to the effect that the trust companies, being direct competitors of the banks, ought to submit to some of the bank requirements in the matter of cash reserves. To understand this move, a bit of historical retrospect is needed. Every reader of financial news is aware that the organization of trust companies has been as characteristic an incident of the last five years as the formation of the industrial Trusts. Taking the State of New York alone, the official records show that on January 1, 1898, there were incorporated 44 trust companies, with total resources of $483,739,925. At the beginning of 1902, the number of these institutions had risen to 62, and their resources to $969,393,644. The name applied to these credit institutions describes their origin. The law of 1887, under which most of them are chartered, empowers them "to act as fiscal or transfer agent" of States, municipalities, or corporations; "to receive deposits of trust moneys"; "to accept trusts from and execute trusts" in behalf of married women with a separate property, of beneficiaries under bequests, and of lunatics and other incompetents. In other words, the trust company undertook to provide, through a corporation, the services heretofore rendered by individual executors and trustees. The law was wise and necessary; it met a very urgent need.

It was not contemplated by the authors of the law that these corporations should so utilize their powers as to engage in the business of deposit banks. This is one reason why the statute placed on them virtually none of the usual bank restrictions. They might lend on real estate, which a bank is not allowed to do; the reason being that mortgages may be very proper investments for executors or trustees. They were not required to keep any cash reserve, whereas the State or national bank must hold from 7 to 25 per cent. Here, too, the reason was that to require a portion of a trust fund to be kept in idleness would be folly. But the law, as it happened, was extremely broad. Not only, on the one hand, were the companies empowered "to loan money on real or personal securities," and "to purchase, invest in, and sell stocks, bills of exchange, bonds and mortgages, and other securities"; but they were authorized, on the other, "to take, accept, and execute any and all such trusts and powers, of whatever nature or description, as may be conferred" upon them. Clearly enough, the opening of a simple deposit account, subject to demand, was the conferring of a trust or power. On the basis of this clause the trust companies have built up their general banking business, which now occupies the greater part of their activities. The companies, having sources of profit not open to an ordinary deposit bank, not being hampered with reserve requirements, and falling on a period when the community was blessed with an abundant surplus, were quick to recognize their legitimate opportunity. They offered to depositors, to whom as a rule a bank paid nothing, 2 per cent. or more in interest on current accounts. As a perfectly natural result, the deposits of the New York companies, outside of simple trust accounts, rose from $198,229,029 in January, 1898, to $440,718,602 the opening of 1902.

The position of the banks, as reflected in the recent Clearing-house resolutions, directly raises two questions: First, whether, if the legal requirement of a cash reserve is right in the case of banks, the trust companies should be allowed to dispense with it; second, whether the banks are fairly treated by a law allowing competitors to do the business of banks without the bank restrictions. The resolutions, we should suppose, are tentative, and for the present will do little more than bring up the subject for practical discussion. No banker contemplates such a thing as the instant recall of $25,000,000 cash by the trust companies from the banks, to use as a trust company reserve. We regard it, nevertheless, as highly important that the question should have been raised in exactly this way. The existing situation has all along seemed to us anomalous. It is not that the trust companies have been misusing the opportunities of the law, but that no safe guarantee has been in force that they might not do so. It is well understood that the companies, though keeping virtually no cash in their vaults, still hold a reasonable sum deposited on demand in banks. But this precaution is purely voluntary. There is also a rather interesting question as to how far a reserve entirely redeposited in bank would meet the needs of a crisis such as that of July, 1893. Every one knows what figure was then cut by New York deposits owned by Western banks. Bankers are equally aware what would have happened then to deposits of savings-banks with Clearing-house institutions, but for the "sixty-day notice" privilege. There is, of course, not the slightest early possibility of another 1893, with its run on depository institutions. But in matters of this sort we should be building for the future.

The Clearing-house resolutions suggest a possible demand for the maintenance of sufficient reserves in the trust companies' own vaults. The only right to make such a demand, and the only power to enforce it, rests in the Clearing-house's grant of its own check-clearing facilities. To the trust companies these facilities are very essential. Possibly they could dispense with them if the banks were to make really unjust demands. If, then, the bank position is to be sustained, it can only be because of its reasonableness. At all events, a situation admittedly exists which needs reform, and the alternative to reform through the Clearing-house will probably be reform through Albany. We are aware that the matter is perplexing, and that a right position cannot be reached in a single day. We admit, also, that what the trust companies now do, in depositing all their cash reserve with the banks, is exactly what the joint-stock banks of London do with the Bank of England. But the Bank of England is a quasi-

public institution; it has some special privileges of its own, and it recognizes its peculiar responsibilities by maintaining in cash some 40 or 50 per cent. against deposits. The New York banks allege that they cannot afford to make any such provision, and that they cannot rightly be asked to do it when aggressive competitors would be the beneficiaries. This is a highly interesting problem, and one, we believe, quite novel for this country. Our hope is that the trust company managers, who are large-minded and competent financiers, will themselves lend a hand to its right solution.

THE FREE-LECTURE MOVEMENT.

The annual dinner on Thursday evening of those especially interested in the free lecture courses given in the various boroughs of New York, under the auspices of the Board of Education, calls attention to a movement for popular instruction and entertainment which is of the first importance to the city. So quietly has this enterprise been conducted, and so seldom has it challenged public attention, that few people understand the dimensions which it has reached or appreciate the significance of its work.

The schoolhouses used to be closed every evening in the week. In the neighborhood of every building live men and women who "have nothing to do evenings," and who might be attracted to meetings in the schoolhouses if no admission fee were charged. It was believed that people could be found who would be willing to give evening lectures in these buildings for nominal compensation, so that the expense need not be much more than the cost of lighting. Dr. Henry M. Leipziger persuaded the Board of Education to try the experiment in a modest way, thirteen years ago, and the hopes of its projectors were soon justified. From half a dozen schoolhouses, the first year, the scope of the movement has spread until during the past season there have been more than one hundred places—schoolrooms, rented rooms, and halls, the use of which was given by the owners without charge—where systematic courses were furnished, aggregating three thousand lectures, which were attended by more than 900,000 people. The experiment was begun in the old city of New York—the present Borough of Manhattan—but it has been extended so that now every part of Greater New York shares its advantages. The city Charter expressly confers upon the Board of Education the power "to maintain free lectures and courses of instruction for the people of the city of New York." Every year the sum appropriated for this purpose is increased, and no occasion for criticism upon its expenditure has arisen.

The movement is primarily for the education of adults. Children are admitted to these lectures, which are, however, designed chiefly to broaden the interests of those who are beyond the school age, and whose lives are given to monotonous labor. The aim is to bring such people into touch with the principles of science and its recent discoveries, with the results of travel, and with the delights of music, literature, and art. There are elementary courses, designed to give information in a pleasing way, and others whose sole purpose is to follow a definite line of study. Attention is paid to the tastes and preferences found to predominate in particular localities, and it has been found that instruction is desired as much as entertainment. Courses of lectures are arranged in many centres systematically: at one, for example, fifty lectures on history and literature; at another, every Saturday night a lecture on some subject in natural science; at a third, subjects relating to education. A course on political history draws audiences composed almost entirely of men; at one on music or art women usually predominate. Lecturers note the same faces among their hearers week after week, and each year there is an increasing number of those who show an earnest desire to study a subject thoroughly.

The interest of the audiences is shown not only by the steady increase in the attendance, but by the voluntary expressions of delight which are constantly received by those in charge of the movement. Some of the letters from which Dr. Leipziger read extracts last week were almost pathetic in the display of gratitude. "The majority of us," wrote one, "know nothing but paved streets and brick walls. Nature stands at our doors, but we know nothing of her. These lectures give us instruction and mental exhilaration." Another, who has attended forty lectures since the season opened last fall, writes: "A busy and often very tired woman, unable to spare much time or sight for reading, gives thanks for the pleasure and comfort I have enjoyed through this means of instruction. I cannot adequately express my feelings." A third tells how husband and wife help each other to the benefit of two courses, the mother looking after the three small children on Monday evenings, and the father taking his turn on Thursday evenings.

The broadening influences of this movement are experienced in many directions. With this new opportunity for the teacher to reach the community about the schoolhouse, it becomes important that the teacher should be a person able to address an audience of adults. With the schoolhouse attracting grown people in the evening, it is essential that the building should contain a place of meeting better suited for men and women than the benches of the ordinary room, and the Committee on Lectures has wisely recommended to the Building Committee that in all buildings hereafter to be erected by the Board of Education provision should be made for adult education, and that an auditorium with proper seats for adults should be a feature of every such structure.

Dr. Leipziger offered the following practical recommendation:

> "Why not carry this conception of the utilization of the schoolhouse even a little further? You may walk in portions of our city where block after block consists of tenement-houses, many of these occupied by hundreds of human beings. Little that is sightly attracts the eye, and yet in the midst of one of these unsightly blocks one comes upon a splendid school building whose doors are closed. It is Sunday. The authorities of this city are now considering the proper means of grappling with the Excise Law—how to recognize the demands of human nature and obedience to public betterment. You close the saloon. Where shall the youth of the city in these crowded districts gather? Why should not the schoolhouse be open on Sunday afternoon, and people gather in its main hall to listen to an uplifting lecture of a biographical, historical, or musical nature? Would not such a use of our school buildings be justified?"

It cannot be denied that this is a perfectly feasible way of making a large contribution to the solution of the Sunday problem.

THE COUNTESS OF ALBANY.

PARIS, April 25, 1902.

The name of the Countess of Albany belongs to history in virtue of her marriage with Charles Edward, the Pretender. It belongs to literature on account of her liaison with Alfieri. For these reasons she has attracted the attention of many writers and become the subject of several books. We will cite only 'Die Gräfin von Albany,' by Alfred von Reumont (Berlin, 1860), the 'Comtesse d'Albany,' by Saint-René Taillandier (1862). Sainte-Beuve traced a portrait of her in his 'Nouveaux Lundis.' We must cite also the 'Countess of Albany,' by Vernon Lee, published in London in 1884, and the articles of Mrs. Tomei Finamore on "La Contessa di Albany e il suo Carteggio Senese" in the *Rivista Abruzzesa di Scienze e Lettere* (1892). I have before me a huge volume of 721 pages, just published by a new contributor, M. Léon Pélissier, professor of history at the University of Montpellier. M. Pélissier belongs visibly to the new historical "documentary" school. Anything, to the adepts of this school, seems valuable as a document; at the head of his title-page he writes: "Materials to serve for the history of a woman and of a society." He dedicates his work to another documentary historian, M. Frédéric Masson, to whom he gives the singular title of "Doctor in Napoleonic Sciences."

The volume is entirely made up of letters written to the Countess of Albany by her numerous correspondents from the year 1806 to the year 1824, which, since 1824, have been in the Library at Montpellier. After the death of Alfieri in 1803, the Countess of Albany replaced him with François Xavier Fabre, a painter who was already nearly fifty years old, a native of Montpellier; and after the death of the Countess, he gave to his birthplace his own collection of pictures, as well as the united

collections, pictures and papers, of his predecessor Alfieri and their common friend the Countess of Albany. Alfieri's papers have already formed the subject of a complete inventory, made by Mazzatinti (1890); Libri once made a very summary inventory of the papers of Mme. d'Albany and of Fabre. M. Pélissier gives us now three hundred and fifty-nine letters written to Madame d'Albany by more than ninety correspondents. With few exceptions, these letters are posterior to the death of Alfieri, and are dated from 1803 to 1824, during the quietest period of her life. This collection is only a part of several hundred letters preserved at Montpellier; but among them many have been found of too little interest for publication.

M. Pélissier has not reproduced the letters of some illustrious persons, published already by Reumont, such as those of Charles Edward, of Gustavus III., of Pius VI., of Madame du Bocage, of Joséphine Bonaparte, of Paul Louis Courier, of the Duchess of Devonshire, and of others. He has abstained also from repeating the letters of Sismondi and Bonstetten given by Saint-René Taillandier. He has manifested the same scruple with regard to the Italian writers. This scruple, perhaps carried to excess, has deprived his work of a great part of the remaining interest which attaches to the Countess of Albany. He has taken the plums out of his own pudding.

The letters published by M. Pélissier are all printed textually, in unabridged form. "In order," he says justly, "to understand the spirit of a time, nothing is equal to the direct contact, to the brutal effect, of a document." What will strike the reader at once is the cosmopolitan character of the correspondence. "All Europe," says M. Pélissier, "went through the drawing-room of the Countess of Albany, who exercised at Florence a sort of intellectual, literary, and worldly royalty." "The title of Queen of England," he adds in a note, "which she preserved in such a singular manner, certainly helped to confer on her this domination over people and to make her believe in it." Another characteristic of this voluminous correspondence is its incoherence. The personality of Madame d'Albany was not so commanding that she could remain always the principal character in the letters of her correspondents. They generally speak less of her than of passing events and of their own interests. "Chosen, as they were, rather promiscuously in the various groups with which she mingled in Paris and in Florence, she does not seem to have cared to establish any ties between them."

The final characteristic of the correspondence is, some exceptions made, the intellectual mediocrity of the authors. This candid avowal might perhaps be turned against M. Pélissier, and he might be asked why he took so much trouble to bring to light letters which he finds devoid of interest. He would answer you that the documentary school to which he belongs has its own rules; that even the mediocrity of the familiar friends of the Countess of Albany is a trait which must be remembered by those who wish to appreciate exactly the value and the political importance of her salon and of her influence.

"Mediocre, incoherent, cosmopolitan, these writers are nevertheless interesting. They are interesting because they are mediocre; because they have painted themselves in an epoch which, as time goes on, imposes itself more and more vividly on the passionate curiosity of history; because they have candidly told their daily impressions, their banal little lives—shown hearts without greatness, hopes without an horizon, hatreds without beauty. They are mediocre, like any of us. They are men; and, as they are sincere, they are social types, representatives of an epoch."

There is one trait which you will find in all these correspondents, one common tie: it is the spirit of opposition to the Napoleonic system. They all, more or less, discuss the merits, the faults of the Emperor. A great evolution was produced by the fall of Napoleon, and by the close of the long period of war which began at the time of the French Revolution and ended in 1815. M. Pélisser will have it that after 1815 a great fusion of ideas took place, and he thinks that he finds a proof of this in the preoccupations of the correspondents of Madame d'Albany.

"Hatred of the Empire," he says, "created a community of sentiment between the peoples; and out of it naturally arose a European, an international policy. The cosmopolitan society formed of the former adversaries of Napoleon had in the forefront of its concerns the principles of the Holy Alliance, the defence of tradition and of legitimacy, the defence of public order in all countries. In presence of these great objects the particular events of each country lost something of their local interest for those citizens of the world, who examined them chiefly as symptoms and manifestations of the great currents of international ideas. Thus it was that the reactionaries (and Madame d'Albany and her familiar friends were of their number) followed with equal curiosity the struggle of the legitimist and conservative spirit against the 'party of disorder' in each country: in England, the trial of Queen Caroline and the troubles at Manchester; in Spain, the insurrection of the Cortes, and the Trocadero expedition; in Naples, the movement *del Ventuno*; in the East, the first movements of Greek independence; in France, the parliamentary quarrels and the assassination of the Duke de Berry; in Europe, the acts of the Holy Alliance and the sessions of the Congresses."

On all these events Madame d'Albany was perpetually informed in her Casa del Lung' Arno. She wrote to Sismondi: "I am at my window, looking out on passing events." In what spirit did she judge them? We could form a reasonable judgment of this question only if we were in possession of the letters she herself wrote in answer to her correspondents. But we do not possess them, and it is to be supposed that many have been lost or destroyed. I know from the son of one of Madame d'Albany's correspondents, who owns many of her letters, that she was a very exact and very prolix writer. She used to use very large quarto paper, covering as many as five or six pages with her handwriting. It is probable that the appeal which M. Pélissier makes to the families of the numerous acquaintances of Madame d'Albany will be heard, especially since, after nearly two-thirds of a century, there is now a sort of prescription which would allow their publication. We may, therefore, hope that some day or other M. Pélissier may be able to give a sequel to his present work.

In a letter written to Mme. d'Albany by Mme. de Genlis, we read:

"I have the advantage of knowing you so well! People paint themselves much better in genuine letters, written with the stroke of a pen, than in works of the imagination. We can judge Mme. de Sévigné with certainty, while 'Zaïde' and the 'Princesse de Clèves' can give us only favorable prepossessions of their author [Mme. de Lafayette]. Hence it is, madame, that the charming letters of yours which I have read, have inspired in me feelings which could not be produced by all my printed pages."

Mme. de Genlis was a great flatterer, at times, but she was certainly not a bad judge in literary matters.

Correspondence.

THE ETERNAL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some fourteen years ago, a biting satire on the Spanish administration appeared in Madrid under the title of 'Filipinas in their own Juice.' As the Filipinos have now got out of the frying-pan into the fire, is there no way of persuading the new cooks that they are working to their own detriment? I have now lying before me a collection of stories written by Joaquim Manoel de Macedo during slavery times under the title of 'As Victimas-Algozes' (Victims-Executioners). The eminent Brazilian novelist shows us how the mere presence of victims (slaves) has a demoralizing influence on their owners themselves, so that in the end the victims practically become the executioners of their masters. Mars is the friend of lies, and the compromises to which it is necessary to resort in order to keep the Filipinas in subjection make their acquisition dear at any cost.

I had some compunction about saying this, but there are moments when it is very hard to keep silence.

> Ἀγάμεμνον, οὐδ' εἰ πέλεκυν ἐν χερσὶν ἔχων
> μέλλοι τις εἰς τράχηλον ἐμβαλεῖν ἐμόν,
> σιγήσομαι δίκαιά γ' ἀντειπεῖν ἔχων.

Yours very respectfully, O. T. T.

May 3, 1902.

MUNICIPAL REFERENDUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Students of local government in America find much interest in an ordinance passed March 4 last by the Village Council of Winnetka, Ill., which establishes the referendum principle in matters relating to corporate franchises and the issue of bonds payable out of the municipal treasury. Additional significance is attached to this movement because of the fact that the village is a suburb of Chicago, inhabited largely by persons doing business in that metropolis. One need scarcely be reminded, moreover, of the dual system of local government that has long obtained in Illinois. The New England people who settled the northern part of the State brought with them the plan of town government, with its democratic ideals and possibilities, while southern Illinois, with its county system, still reminds one of the influence of Virginian colonists. The "town meetings" accordingly gave Winnetka voters opportunities for discussing all matters affecting the general welfare of the community. No less fortunate has been the elimination of party lines in questions of local importance. Hence, in point of fact, long before the adoption of the ordinance

in question the citizens enjoyed not only the right of having certain important questions decided by popular vote, but the right of initiating legislation as well.

This combination of the referendum and the initiative appears to have worked satisfactorily so far. The village now owns its own water plant and lighting equipment, and, through its Village Council and other local boards, is governed by its best citizens, who serve without compensation. One of the most influential of these says that he thinks "Winnetka is the best governed municipality in the country." The following excerpt from the recent ordinance prescribing the methods of local legislation in Winnetka may therefore prove of some value to those interested in the subject:

"1st. Before the passage of any ordinance, the Council shall order such ordinance engrossed by the Village Clerk in the proper book and posted in three of the most public places in said Village, to wit: On the Village Bulletin Board on Elm Street, just East of the C. & N.-W. R. R. tracks, on the Village Bulletin Board on Oak Street, just West of the C. & N.-W. R. R. tracks, and on the Village Bulletin Board near the Lakeside Depot.

"2d. Any ordinance which shall grant or create any franchise or franchises or valuable rights, or provide for the issue of bonds payable out of the general funds of the Village other than the issue of bonds for the payment or retirement of existing bonds, shall be submitted to the legal voters of the Village prior to its passage.

"3d. No ordinance shall come before the Council for passage until five days after the posting of the same, and if prior to the expiration of said five days a petition signed by at least fifty of the legal voters of the Village be presented to the Village Council requesting that such ordinance be submitted to a vote of the people, then it shall be the duty of said Council to so submit said ordinance as hereinafter provided.

"4th. No ordinance which shall have been submitted to a vote of the people in accordance with the above provision shall come before the Council for passage until the result of said vote has been declared in open Council.

"5th. If said vote shall consist of a majority of the registered votes at the last Village election, then it shall be the duty of the Council to abide by the decision thereby expressed.

"6th. When an ordinance comes up for passage, it shall be again read before the Council, and a yea-and-nay vote taken on the same.

"Section 4. The passage of any ordinance shall require the concurrence of a majority of all the trustees elected.

"Section 5. All ordinances shall, within one month after they are passed, be published by the Clerk, posting copies of the same for five days in three of the most public places described in Clause 1, Section 3, of this ordinance.

"Section 6. The manner of referring any ordinance to the citizens, unless otherwise requested by petition signed by at least fifty of the legal voters of the Village, shall be as follows:

"A Printed copy of the ordinance shall be mailed by the Village Clerk to each registered voter of the Village, with a numbered blank on which the voter can register his vote over his signature. This to be filed with the Village Clerk within five days after having been so mailed, but the seals to be broken and the result declared only in open Council at its first meeting held after the expiration of said five days."

It ought to be added that the population of the village is about 2,000, and that the Winnetka system, so to speak, grew out of an attempt made some years ago by the village trustees to grant a forty-year franchise to a local gas company.

Respectfully yours, B. J. RAMAGE.

SEWANEE, TENN., April 22, 1902.

THE BREAD TAX IN ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Anent your editorial of April 17 on the new British grain duties, the following from the *Times* weekly of September 17, 1901, may interest your readers.

At a meeting held last September in the offices of the Colony of Victoria, London, the results of a test of South Australian flour were submitted. A sack selling for $4.62 yielded 100 quartern-loaves, which at 11 cents per loaf amounted to $11 (11 and 12 cents are usual prices for quartern-loaves). This left $6.38 to cover baking, working expenses, and profit—a liberal allowance for these items is $3.60—or a margin of $2.78. A tax, therefore, of 10 cents per hundredweight, or 17.4 cents for every 100 loaves, less than one-fifth cent per loaf, would not of itself necessitate any increase in the selling price. The Coöperative Baking Society further undertook to bake and deliver fifty sacks of this flour weekly for $3.60 per sack.—Yours truly,

J. W. HAMILTON.

ST. PAUL, MINN., April 28, 1902.

AN ART PHOTOGRAPHIC COLLECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with much interest your article entitled "A Reference Library of Art Reproductions." I have thought that some of your readers might be interested in a brief account of what the Norwich Free Academy has done, on a small scale, in exactly the line which the writer of your article recommends.

With the Norwich Free Academy are connected the Slater Museum, an excellent library of 12,000 volumes, and an Art School. There was, therefore, a special incentive to devise means by which photographs might be turned to the greatest use. Our library possesses about 2,000 photographs illustrating the departments of painting, architecture, and sculpture. There are twice as many photographs of paintings as there are of buildings, and twice as many architectural photographs as there are photographs of sculpture.

All the photographs are catalogued, and the cards for each of the three classes are arranged in separate drawers. The cards are so written that not only the name of the artist, but also the place where the original is found, and the school to which the work belongs, can all be referred to. The result is, that, in a wonderfully compact form, one has under his hand the best illustrations of the whole field of art in its three great divisions. The entire number of our photographs is a little less than 2,000; the cost, not including cases, has been about $3,000.

The cases are placed in the closest proximity to the catalogue, and it is an instantaneous matter to put one's hand on any photograph which one needs. It has been a source of satisfaction to find by actual experience that our comparatively inexpensive collection has been sought for use in some of our large cities which had nothing that corresponded to it.

The undersigned will gladly furnish further information to any one who may desire it in regard to our photographs, the cases in which they are contained, or any other matter.—Yours very sincerely,

ROBERT P. KEEP.

NORWICH, CONN., April 30, 1902.

AN AMERICAN ACADEMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 17, Mr. H. E. Shepherd corrects Professor Flügel's impression that his is " the first attempt to outline the earlier history of a British Academy," and gives some important additional references. Permit me to draw attention to yet another treatment of the subject. In Prof. O. F. Emerson's 'History of the English Language' (1894), pp. 90-95, most of Professor Flügel's instances are given, along with several others, notably a proposition made by Edmund Bolton in 1617, more than thirty years before the earliest passage cited by Professor Flügel.

It may be of interest at the present time to note that the proposition to establish an Academy in this country is of considerable antiquity. In the Boston *Evening Transcript* of February 28, 1896, Mr. Albert Matthews called attention to a letter written to the President of Congress by John Adams from Amsterdam in 1780, and quoted the following passage:

"Most of the nations of Europe have thought it necessary to establish by public authorities institutions for fixing and improving their proper languages. I need not mention the academies in France, Spain, and Italy, their learned labors, nor their success. But it is very remarkable, that although many learned and ingenious men in England have from age to age projected similar institutions for correcting and improving the English tongue, yet the government have never found time to interpose in any manner. . . . The honor of forming the first public institution for refining, correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English language, I hope is reserved for congress; they have every motive that can possibly influence a public assembly to undertake it. . . . I would therefore submit to the consideration of congress the expediency and policy of erecting by their authority a society under the name of 'The American Academy for refining, improving, and ascertaining the English Language.' " (Works, vii., 249-251.)

Mr. Matthews further quoted this amusing passage from a letter written by Adams to a friend a few days later:

"After congress shall have done it, perhaps the British king and parliament may have the honor of copying the example. This I should admire. England will never have any more honor, excepting now and then that of imitating the Americans." (Works, ix., 510.)

I am, sincerely yours,

W. A. NEILSON.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 22, 1902.

REGARDING "MOAT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. S. A. Green last November called attention in the *Nation* to the local use in Groton, Mass., of the word "moat" as applied to certain brooks at their junction with the Nashua River. As Dr. Green's query concerning the origin and currency of moat appears to have elicited no response, I submit what follows:

Manifestly "moat" meaning hill or em-

bankment is inapplicable to the thing called moat in the folk-speech of Groton. The thing described is a confluence, what the men of old time termed "a waters' meet." Moat signifying a trench filled with water is a technical term used in connection with works of fortification, and does not fit the facts given so well as "mote," a meeting or meet.

Stormonth's English Dictionary has: "Mote n. *mot;* also gemote, in *Anglo-Saxon times*, a meeting, as in the *Witenagemot*, the assembly of wisemen." Ward-mote and folk-mote are instanced. It may be added that, in the City of London, the meeting of the freemen at which Councilmen are elected is called "ward-mote" to this day. The Century Dictionary and Skeat (Etymological Dictionary) both treat mote as an obsolete form of moot, meaning meeting or assembly.

Numerous archaic compound words in which mote or mot signifying "meeting" occurs might be given; a few must suffice. Gomme, in 'Primitive Folk-Moots,' speaks of a Motestowhill near Stoneleigh where the socmen held meetings. Worsaae, in his 'Danes and Norwegians in England, Scotland, and Wales,' says: "A document of the year 1258 conveys a gift of some ground in the suburbs of Dublin in Thingmotha (from mote, a meeting). The Thing place was near the present site of Dublin Castle, the name of the surrounding parish was 'St. Andrew de Thengmote.'" Stubbs, in his 'Constitutional History of England,' vol. i., p. 431, notes the existence of *tunscipesmot*, township-meeting, shire-moot, hundred moot, and portmanmot, court of portreeve in boroughs. Vinogradoff, in 'Villainage in England,' cites *sockemanemot* and *frankhalimote*. Although Stormonth, Skeat, and the Century Dictionary all cite various kindred forms of mote in Anglo-Saxon or the Scandinavian tongues, none of them notices the use of mote or its Norse equivalents in the sense of junction or confluence. But Cleasby's 'Icelandic-English Dictionary' has the following:

"Mot (Anglo-Saxon *gemot;* Old English *mote* or *moot* in ward-mote; Danish möde, Swedish mot and möte) a meeting.

"2. As a Norse law term; in Norway a *mot* was a town meeting and is opposed to *thing*, a county meeting.

"3. A joint, juncture; *ar-mot* a meeting of waters, also a local name. [Compare Latin Confluentia, Coblentz.]"

According to Björkman's 'Svensk-Englesk Ordbok,' *möte* means confluence as well as meeting or assembly. *Aa* in Norwegian and Danish and *Å* in Swedish signify a small river or streamlet, and we have in Swedish: *Åmun*, rivermouth, *Åbryn*, river brink, *Åstrand*, riverbank, as well as *Aafiord* and *Aamot* in Norwegian. *Aamot* means "a meeting of waters" and "confluence." (See Geelmuyden's 'Engelsk-Norsk Ordbok.') According to the 'Dictionnaire des Bureaux de Poste' (Berne, 1895), *Aamot*, near Drammen, and *Aamotsdal*, near Skien, are post-offices in Norway. Map 95, g. 6 in the 'Century Atlas' shows *Aamot*, in the province of Hedermarke, Norway, on the Glommen River.

Watersmeet, where the Combe Park Water joins the East Lyn River, a few miles above Lynmouth in Devonshire, England, is well known to tourists in the Doone country. Bagworthy Water is a stream in the same region. Watersmeet is found in Johnston's Atlas, 1889 (see Devonshire), and on the North Devon sheet, *i. e.*, No. 27, of the maps of the Ordnance Survey. Again, Watersmeet appears as the name of a town in Michigan (see Map 22, C. 5, Century Atlas). Is water used as a synonym of brook or river anywhere in this country? Moore, in his Irish Melodies, sings of the "Sweet vale of Avoca," where "the bright waters meet." The waters whose meeting (mote) forms the Avoca (which is Celtic for "meeting of the waters," according to Chambers's Encyclopædia), are the *Avonbeg*, or little river, and the *Avonmore*, big river.

The Celtic *Avoca* and the Norwegian *Aamot* appear to be closely synonymous with the Devonshire *watersmeet*. One is inclined to ask whether *aa* or *mote* occurs in the folk-speech of Devonshire, or of any other English county in which Norse influence is traceable. Maps of the Lake country present so many "waters" and "becks" that one is led to think that *aa* or *mote* may still survive in the folk-speech of Cumberland or Westmorland.

It is likely that "mote," and not "moat," is the correct form of the word cited by Dr. Green, and that it was brought over sea from an early home of the Angles. Possibly there are other motes or meets in New England, but I have searched many maps for them in vain; nor have I found a mote on any map of East Anglia, or Friesland, or Denmark.

EDWARD M. HARTWELL.

BOSTON, April 23, 1902.

Notes.

A volume containing the Physical Papers of the late Henry A. Rowland of Johns Hopkins University is to be issued under the editorial direction of President Remsen and Professors Welch and Ames. The several articles reprinted from magazines and journals number sixty in all. The memorial address of Professor Mendenhall and a portrait of Professor Rowland will further enrich the volume, which may be had for five dollars, subscribed in advance of publication by orders sent to Prof. Joseph S. Ames, Baltimore.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, who have taken over from Silver, Burdett & Co. the complete works of Prof. Charles G. D. Roberts, will publish shortly 'The Kindred of the Wild,' a book of animal life by this author, illustrated by full-page drawings by Charles Livingston Bull, and in October his 'Barbara Ladd: A Novel of Early Colonial Days.'

Immediately forthcoming from the W. A. Wilde Company, Boston, is 'What Gladys Saw,' a nature story, by Frances Margaret Fox.

A new novel by Henry James, 'The Wings of a Dove,' and a novel of theatrical life by Clara Morris, 'A Pasteboard Crown,' are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

A new volume of poetry by Robert Underwood Johnson will be issued directly by the Century Co.

The Oxford University Press will soon issue the first volume of Mr. C. Oman's 'History of the Peninsular War,' extending from the Treaty of Fontainebleau to the battle of Corunna, 1807-1809. The title of this work to existence after Napier lies chiefly in the political aspect of events.

No. 11 of the Riverside Art Series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is devoted to 'Tuscan Sculpture.' *Early* Tuscan Sculpture would have been a more precise title, for, as Miss Hurll had devoted a previous volume to Michelangelo, she does not touch upon his work again, nor is any mention made of his contemporaries and successors. A more inexplicable omission is that of Ghiberti, who was certainly one of the first artists of his own or any time, and whose influence on both sculpture and painting was enormous and has not yet ceased. Miss Hurll's text deals, as usual, more with subject than with art, but some æsthetic appreciation is attempted. That her books will be useful in schools we have no doubt.

Mr. Walter Crane's book on 'The Bases of Design,' first published in 1898 (Bell-Macmillan), is now issued by the same publishers in a new and cheaper edition. There seems to be no change in picture or text, the smaller form being arrived at by cutting down margins without reducing the size of the illustrations. The printed page is, however, a trifle shorter, and the type has been entirely reset, necessitating a new index, which is somewhat fuller than the old. The marginal notes have been abolished, and replaced by running headings and titles under the cuts in the ordinary manner. If the book loses some of its beauty, it loses none of its usefulness.

In 'American Masters of Painting' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), Mr. Charles H. Caffin has attempted what, so far as we know, has not been attempted before, a serious critical examination of the art of thirteen American painters. His list is, on the whole, a good one. Gilbert Stuart seems hardly in place, unless the list were to be made exhaustive. The others are all contemporary artists, or nearly so, and we find no fault with Mr. Caffin's inclusions, and only wonder at some of his exclusions. One does not understand why William Hunt does not accompany George Fuller, or why Thayer and Dewing have not their place beside George De Forest Brush. We cannot, however, much blame a writer for the choice of that of which he shall write: the important thing is what he finds to say of his chosen subjects, and the fault we find with Mr. Caffin's writing is that his point of view is too exclusively literary. He writes well enough; he discusses temperaments and the nature of personalities; everything flows along in a pleasant enough way, and one feels, for the moment, that something of importance is being said. And yet, when all is done, one has no greater insight than before into the nature of the art which these men have produced. We do not ask for discussion of technicalities, but merely for such sympathy with and understanding of the painter's point of view as shall make it vivid to us. That is what we do not get from Mr. Caffin, and it is doubtful if it ever has been got from one not himself a painter.

'The Domain of Art' (London: Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) contains six lectures delivered as Slade professor of fine arts in the University of Cambridge by Sir W. Martin Conway. The lecturer has evidently taken his function to be not the teaching of art history or art theory, still less the teaching of technical matters or the creation of artists, but the suggestion to men of general culture, who are also likely, many of them, to be men of wealth and influence, of some notion of the nature

of art and of the motives of artists, and some idea of the ways in which wealth and influence and general culture can be used for the true encouragement of art. His six subjects are "Artist and Amateur," "The Art of Living," "Art Criticism," "The Practical Value of Art," "Art History," and "The Succession of Ideals," and on each he finds something valuable to say. The lectures on criticism and on the study of art history are those that we have found the most interesting. In the first, the author takes the view that no one but the artist has any right to attempt technical criticism, and that even in criticism of content the only good criticism is that which praises and explains, not that which condemns. "No one is sensitive to every kind of beauty," and the beauty may be there though the critic has not seen it. Where he can see beauty, let him act as intermediary to interpret it to the public, that they may see it also. In the same lecture are some good remarks on the evils of modern exhibitions and competitions. In the second there is good discussion on the management of museums, with advocacy of a Museum of Photographs, from which we have recently quoted at some length.

Prof. David G. Ritchie, having collected a number of his essays and lectures which have been printed in various periodicals, now publishes them in a volume entitled 'Studies in Political and Social Ethics' (Macmillan). This author is a disciple of T. H. Green, and is perhaps a clearer writer than his master. His criticism is of a high order, especially when he is laying bare the weak spots in systems that he dislikes. His constructive ability appears to us less marked, and many of his strictures might be turned against himself. His aversion to what he supposes to be represented by the maxim "Laisser faire" is so extreme as to lead him to scoff at the advocates of arbitration and the opponents of militarism, and to put him in the position of commending war. Those who have read his systematic work will notice little that is novel in this volume; others will find it stimulating reading.

Of the making of college-song collections there is no end. Hinds & Noble, who, some time ago, published 'Songs of All the Colleges,' have in press 'Songs of the Western Colleges' and 'New Songs for College Glee Clubs.' Their latest issue is 'Songs of the Eastern Colleges,' which contains the old favorites, together with many new songs. There are 185 in all, and no one who examines the collection will complain of a lack of variety.

Following the example of W. H. Cummings of London, Dr. James M. McLaughlin, director of music in the Boston public schools, has prepared a brief book on the 'Elements and Notation of Music' (Ginn & Co.). The chapter on Expression is little more than a dictionary of terms, with a few pages on tempo; and it is odd to find a chapter on conducting (which concerns very few musicians) preceding the chapters on intervals and scales. Apart from these features, the book may be commended as a useful little manual for teachers and pupils.

Among recent publications of G. Schirmer are 'Exercises in Melody-Writing,' by Dr. Percy Goetschius; a new vocal score of Flotow's "Martha," with an introductory essay, by H. E. Krehbiel; and a collection of 'Études for the Pianoforte' edited by Rafael Joseffy. While musical text-books are usually occupied chiefly with harmony and counterpoint, Dr. Goetschius italicizes his opinion that "the prime object of all theoretical study in music is, or should be, melody." He thinks the best results will be gained by beginning his course of studies as early as the age of twelve or thirteen; but he has made no attempt to adapt his style of teaching, which is technical and ponderous, to that age. The musical illustrations are, however, very copious, and this will help students over many difficulties. Flotow's opera still holds its own on the stage, and, with Krehbiel's erudite and gossipy introduction, will appeal anew to pianists and singers of old-fashioned taste. As for Mr. Joseffy's collection of 'Études,' it would be impossible to speak of it too highly. Mr. Joseffy, unfortunately, has but seldom played in public in recent years; but he has taught regularly at the National Conservatory, and has thus ascertained what is most needful to students of the pianoforte. Chopin is represented by three *études*, Moscheles, Czerny, Henselt, Schlözer, and Schumann by one each. The studies are carefully fingered, and the editor's helpful notes are printed on the same pages as the music. The collection is, of course, only for advanced students.

Now that the opera singers are gone to Europe, not to return till next November, the admirers of the prima donnas, tenors, and basses will have to content themselves with Gustav Kobbé's chatty "pictorial souvenir" entitled 'Opera Singers,' and published by R. H. Russell. It is a great improvement on all its predecessors. While written in a gossipy style, without any attempt at criticism, it is authentic in regard to its biographic information, the facts being derived from the singers themselves. There are also glimpses of life behind the scenes and of incidents "on the road," which will interest the large class of music-lovers whose curiosity concerning the personality of singers seems to be insatiable.

'Wild Life of Orchard and Field,' by Ernest Ingersoll (Harper & Bros.), discusses in a general way the habits of birds and small mammals. The illustrations are from excellent photographs, and the text is highly instructive, showing the author's wide acquaintance with the literature of his subject. He is occasionally careless in minor statements, however, as where he permits himself to say that butcher birds seldom eat the mice that they have caught and impaled. He writes entertainingly of the homing powers of animals, and of the nest-building and migration of birds, and describes characteristic summer, winter, and spring birds of the Eastern States; treating at length of swallows, orioles, the song sparrow, and the flicker. Among mammals, he describes with considerable detail the different species of mice and squirrels common in New York State, and takes up the woodchuck, the opossum, the short-tailed shrew, the weasel, and the muskrat. He also goes outside the vertebrate kingdom, and writes profitably of snails. There is an interesting chapter about the general effect of the advent of civilization on the birds of North America. Mr. Ingersoll says that the displacement of forests by hay and grain fields and weedy pastures, the introduction of orchards, gardens, and farm-yards, with their accompanying insects, the provision of comfortable shelter for certain species, and the destruction of hostile animals, have increased the number of singing birds east of the Mississippi.

'More Tales of the Birds,' by W. Warde Fowler (Macmillan), may perhaps be described as containing less about the birds than about people. It is a collection of pleasant English stories, in each of which some bird has an important place; but the bird's life is closely linked with human lives, and in most cases gets its main significance from them. For example, one of the best stories, "The Last of the Barons," centres the reader's interest, not in the old kite and his mate, late survivors of a race that was threatened with extermination through the zeal of oölogists, but in the needy collector, who received a liberal offer for a clutch of kite's eggs, and was forced, against his conscience, to rob this pair at the risk of extinguishing a species. "The Sorrows of a House Martin" contains more ornithological information than any other tale, describing, as it does, the martin's perils in migration, struggles for food, difficulties in house-building, and fights with its enemies; but all the stories have something from the life histories of the birds, related in an untechnical, accurate way. Mr. Fowler's art of story-telling has blemishes. He often resorts to the worn device of making birds talk, and sometimes shifts unwisely his point of view. In the story of a lark's nest on the field of Waterloo, his imagination does not rise to his subject. Yet the book is decidedly readable, and will interest young people in the birds that it describes.

In an address delivered before the Royal Academy of Belgium, and recently printed with the title of 'L'Expansion Exotique des Littératures Européennes au XIXe Siècle' (Brussels: Hayez), Prof. Paul Fredericq of the University of Ghent discusses an important and somewhat novel phase of the growth of modern literature. Considering the various European literatures, he finds that six of them have developed beyond the confines of the continent in which they were born—English, in North America, India, and Australasia; Spanish, in South America and Mexico; Portuguese, in Brazil; French, in Canada and elsewhere; Russian, in its vast Asiatic possessions; and Dutch, in the East Indies and South Africa. It is the contention of M. Fredericq that to these six the future belongs, and that such literatures as German, Polish, and Scandinavian must in the end perish, because they lack the reserve force possessed by the others. Moreover, since the centres of civilization move with the seats of empire, London will have to give way to New York or Melbourne, Madrid to Buenos Ayres, Lisbon to Rio Janeiro, and Amsterdam to Batavia or Johannesburg, in the development of their respective literatures. M. Fredericq shows considerable knowledge of the foreign growth of European culture, but he falls into several errors of detail. De Quincey, for example, is classed among American writers of prose, and Hubert Howe Bancroft is confused with his more distinguished namesake, George Bancroft.

The ninth volume of the "Oeuvres Complètes de Christiaan Huygens," in the sump-

tuous edition put forth by the Holland Scientific Society, is now being placed in the hands of subscribers. It includes the correspondence between Huygens and his friends, and, one may add, between the friends of his friends, so far as relates to his main interests, from the year 1685 to 1690. Apparently another volume will complete the correspondence, three or four additional volumes being required to conclude the works. One notices in this volume a slight waning of interest in discovery and an increase of interest in speculation natural to an old man. The construction of lenses, the Saturnian system, chronometry, horology, in some degree give place to the theory of curves, general algebra, and the calculus, the wave theory of light, and the constitution of the universe. While his study is still a sort of clearing-house of scientific information for the whole of Europe, Huygens's interests are somewhat fewer, and his range of correspondents smaller. Newton and Leibnitz appear in only a few letters, though they always illuminate the horizon. Huygens's visit to England yields only a single letter, but echoes of the visit are heard through the remainder of the volume. His eagerness to see the 'Principia' is noteworthy. He has a batch of criticisms on the third book in June, 1687, although the manuscript of that volume was not exhibited to the Royal Society until April of that year, and not printed until July. The volume is adequately illustrated, and has the usual copious indexes, sixty-five pages in all.

The third instalment of Herr Von Brandt's 'Thirty-three Years in Eastern Asia' has appeared, completing the work (Leipzig: Georg Wigand). The first two have already been reviewed in our pages, and the *dritter Band* calls for no further notice than to say that the veteran diplomatist gives herein a summary, very full, clear, and fair, of Christian missions, the opium question, the various episodes and treaties, of the Russian-Chinese incidents, of French-Chinese relations, of the audience question, and of the interrelations of China, Korea, and Japan down to 1893. There is no reference whatever to recent German movements in the Far East, of Germany's seizure of Kiao-Chau, and of her tremendously costly colony. This omission will undoubtedly disappoint many readers; but then, Herr Von Brandt professes to give only "reminiscences," and he prints on the forefront of his pleasing work, "China 1875 bis 1893." Hence he can rightly excuse himself from entering into what is problematical. Germany's past is at least secure.

The magnificent Victoria Falls on the Zambesi, discovered by Dr. Livingstone in 1855, will soon be accessible to the ordinary tourist. The section of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway from Buluwayo to that river is expected to be opened next year. A great steel bridge, having one span of 500 feet, will carry the line across the falls. A railway exploration party has been dispatched over the railway route beyond the falls, as far as Lake Tanganyika.

The progress of Egypt during the past year, says Lord Cromer, in his annual report for 1901, has been "steady and normal." The sound footing on which the fiscal system has been placed is demonstrated by a surplus of $10,000,000, notwithstanding the Sudan expenditure was over $2,000,000. The means of transportation by both rail and road have been improved and extended, and the principal irrigation works are nearly completed. Slavery, the corvée, and the coorbash are practically abolished; the army is well organized, and there are new prisons, reformatories, and hospitals. The peasant is being freed from the grip of the money-lenders, and "a very great impulse has been given to education in all its branches." In other words, "the foundations on which the well-being and the material prosperity of a civilized community should rest have been laid." Lord Cromer dwells at some length on the methods adopted to preserve the temples at Philæ, which will be partially submerged every year when the reservoir at Assuan is finished. In regard to the Sudan, which "naturally lags behind," he says "the point of chief importance has been to avoid any serious fiscal or administrative errors." The Government "endeavors to carry out the ordinary principles of civil administration through the agency of a number of carefully selected officials, most of whom are military officers." In a reference to the Government contracts for materials, there is the statement that "the contracts placed in the United States have been disappointing; none were placed there in 1901."

The tentative excavations made by the Berlin Royal Museum in Miletus have been so promising that a special organization has been effected in the German capital to push this work energetically. Enough funds have been secured to buy the whole peninsula on which the city stood, and which is now covered with vineyards, corn-fields, and cottages. The newly acquired territory includes the whole western half of the old city, together with portions of the necropolis, the "sacred way" that led up to the Apollo temple, as also the entire hill upon which the theatre was situated, and the harbor, at the entrance of which are found two colossal lions of marble, the recently uncovered marketplace and public halls one hundred metres in length, and some fine Roman fountains, together with other ruins and remains. The whole territory belonging to the Germans covers one million square metres.

—Senator Lodge contributes to the May *Scribner's* some impressions made upon him by his visit to Russia, last summer. While he takes pains to express his dissent from the extreme to which the economic interpretation of history is inclined to go, yet he regards the economic feature as the element of most importance in forecasting the future of Russian development. The power of rapid expansion has been demonstrated, as well as the power to control the various peoples brought under her dominion. The point of weakness seems to be the inability to develop profitably the immense natural resources which her territorial growth has placed within her power. Senator Lodge's use of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, in comparison with private railway enterprise in the United States, as an index of the economic inefficiency of the Russians, is hardly fair. What field of public improvement in this country, national, State, or municipal, is free from a record of wastefulness, inefficiency, and corruption? The race which from its low position of two centuries ago has produced the Russian leaders and the Russian power of to-day, certainly has great possibilities in itself, as well as in its lands and its mineral deposits; and its geographical position is such that it can afford to wait. The most important question is whether it can turn the corner toward political freedom and intellectual development of the masses without a disastrous military revolution. The most interesting feature of Dr. Gilman's concluding chapter of reminiscences is his tribute to Sidney Lanier. A German pathologist to whom Ephraim Keyser's bronze bust of Lanier was shown merely uttered the words, "Hm, tuberculosis." "Christlike!" was the comment of another visitor, who had some knowledge of Lanier's life and work. Will E. Low makes an interesting comparison of Victor Galland, Paul Baudry, and Puvis de Chavannes, raising the problem of the true relation of decorative art to architecture.

—The theory that the Anarchist is simply an ordinary criminal, to be "stamped out" by repressive legislation drastic in proportion to the enormity of his crime, receives judicious and forcible criticism in the current *Atlantic* from the pen of William M. Salter. It is an appeal to reason which legislative bodies ought carefully to consider, but they will doubtless go on enacting laws which, if in existence, would not have affected in the slightest degree the cases of Presidential assassination in the past, and the effect of which in the future must be simply to increase the substratum of anarchical opinion from which such assassinations spring. Mr. Salter's best positive suggestion is the necessity for the most scrupulous attention to law and justice on the part of our law-makers and executives themselves. Somewhat akin to Mr. Salter's paper is Miss Vida D. Scudder's study of "A Hidden Weakness in our Democracy." It is a renewed and well-enforced presentation of the old thought that the one half knows not how the other half lives, with a keen recognition of the impossibility of really successful democratic government and society under such conditions; decidedly "pessimistic" if it is unalterably decided to go on hurling that term at any one who sees evils clearly, feels them deeply, and is ready for an earnest effort to root them out. J. Laurence Laughlin pleads for a higher commercial education as a legitimate part of the mission of our universities. What is wanted is not the shallow work of the ordinary "business college," but such a broad and deep course as will possess genuine cultural value, and fit the mind of the student to grasp and solve the intricate and ever-changing problems of commerce as they arise. Thomas Sergeant Perry's appreciation of John Fiske is good reading for the thoughtful college student who is debating the question whether there is any longer a place in the world for the scholar who insists on retaining breadth as well as depth in his ideal.

—Mr. Edmund Gosse, in the current *Century*, assigns to Swinburne a somewhat peculiar position. He is at once "the summit of our contemporary Parnassus," with absolutely no serious question of his claim to preëminence since the death of Tennyson, and yet "is very little discussed nowa-

days, takes no part in the movement of literature, and is almost wholly without influence." This neglect he considers but a passing mood of an idle, sensation-loving world of letters. Mr. Swinburne exists, like a snowclad mountain rising out of the plain, and the Mahomets of criticism will sooner or later go to the mountain. The reader's attention is called, with apparent gratification, to the fact that "more than thirty years have passed since Mr. Swinburne definitely and finally relinquished the amatory paganism of his adolescence." The second group of his poems, filled with the fervor of political revolution, under the influence of Mazzini, suffers from the fact that political revolutions in the direction of republicanism are not popular at present. "It is not merely that the revolutions so melodiously heralded have not taken place, but that after thirty years there is virtually nobody left who wishes that they had." Even the poet himself seems to have fallen away from the faith. Hopeless as it is to make people care for such poetry now, yet Mr. Gosse regards this group as containing some of the best poetry ever written, destined to rank sooner or later with the best of Shelley, Leopardi, and Victor Hugo. A strong point is made of Mr. Swinburne's close relation to the great body of poetry preceding him: he has studied his Æschylus and Shakspere, is a direct disciple of Shelley, is "linked as with chains of gold to Isaiah and to Æschylus, to Catullus, and to Milton, to the Latin and Provençal, and French and English poets in a long sequence that scarcely closes with Baudelaire and Victor Hugo."

—J. Scott Keltie, in the May *Harper's*, gives a brief outline of the results achieved by Sven Hedin in his last voyage of exploration in Central Asia. Dr. Hedin has had, apparently, a very successful trip. His new maps cover several hundred sheets, including a very full representation of the Yarkand River from Lailik to Yangi-Kul, "one of the most detailed maps which have ever been made of any river outside Europe," as he himself calls it. In geographical description, meteorological observation, etc., the bulk of material secured is far in advance of that of his former trip, and Dr. Keltie's opinion of the worth of this material is very high. Curiously enough, Dr. Hedin's first news of the great outbreak in China reached him in the form of messages from home expressing grave concern for his personal safety. The article of William Carmichael McIntosh on "Marine Fish-Destroyers" is an entirely unsuccessful attempt to prove the uselessness of legislation to maintain the fish supply, on the ground of the enormous destruction of food fishes by the various monsters of the deep and by one another. The myriads of fish devoured by their own kind contribute to the growth of those that remain and to the production of myriads more, while the wasteful methods of man have no such results. That good fishing-grounds have been sadly depleted by human hands in recent times is a proposition too well supported by evidence to be successfully denied. It proves little to say that the extinction of no species of food fish has taken place in modern seas. The difference between a bounteous supply and a point far short of extinction is a very wide, and in some cases economically a very important, difference. Dr. Raymond Dodge of Wesleyan University contributes an article on the motions of the eye in the act of vision, including some practical suggestions on the danger to the sight involved in the unwise use of the eyes on street cars or other means of conveyance in rapid motion. The Easy Chair makes Opdycke's translation of Castiglione's "Il Cortigiano" the text for some gentle but effective satire against the tendencies growing out of our new position as a "World Power."

—We commented last week on the revelations concerning the origin of the "Monroe" Doctrine, made from the Adams archives at Quincy, Mass., by Mr. Worthington C. Ford. The paper forms a part of the forthcoming Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, to which Mr. Charles Francis Adams contributes a revision and expansion of his Madison address touching "John Quincy Adams and Emancipation under Martial Law." The connection of this subject with that of the Monroe Doctrine is not simply the name of John Quincy Adams, but the principle of freedom which he represented, both in his espousal of the cause of the independent American governments and in his opposition to slavery and its extension. As early as 1819 we find among the papers of Mr. Adams declarations prophetic of the conflict concerning slavery and its downfall. As early as 1820 he predicted that a war for the dissolution of the Union must result in "the extirpation of slavery from this whole continent." In 1836 he advanced his famous doctrine, which was amplified in 1842, that slavery might be abolished by the President of the United States in the exercise of the war power. This doctrine was revived in the discussions of 1861. It was used by Mr. Sumner in a speech delivered before the Massachusetts Republican State Convention on the 1st of October in that year. It was embodied by Mr. Whiting of Boston, then solicitor of the War Department, in a pamphlet published by him in the summer of 1862, on the 'War Powers of the President,' some months before the issuance of Lincoln's preliminary proclamation of the 22d of the following September. Its part in persuading President Lincoln to exercise these powers is well known, and his emancipating pen may truly be said to have been guided by John Quincy Adams. The correspondence which Mr. C. F. Adams has appended is of very great value in contrasting the ex-President's anti-slavery theory with that of the abolitionists, who gave him a direct support which he frankly withheld from them. This contrast is not, of course, now first revealed, but it has, perhaps, never been so compactly set forth. The paradox is, that the statesman who would not lift a finger—on behalf either of the slave or of the Northern conscience in revolt against the pro-slavery compromises of the Constitution—to disturb "the Union as it is," and strenuously opposed any movement calculated to disturb it from these points of view, was irresistibly impelled to precipitate disunion and civil war in defence of Northern liberties against the encroachments of slavery. The Southern fire-eaters were under a similar compulsion. The abolitionists alone cut loose from the Constitution, and, both as patriots and as Christians, saw their duty "steadily and saw it whole."

—A new volume in the series of "Handbooks to the Great Public Schools" (Macmillan) is Mr. Reginald Airy's 'Westminster.' It has the characteristic features of its predecessors—the time-tables, the estimate of school expenses, the description of school sports, the explanation of school slang. But it has also an account of the one institution peculiar to Westminster, the Latin play; and the specimen Mr. Airy gives of the celebrated Epilogues, crammed full of "topical" allusions in Latin and English, is a pleasing example of scholarly ingenuity. The yacht race figures thus, in 1893:

> Exoptata diu quaesivi pocula—frustra:
> Nam vigilant, vigilant—litore in Americo!
>
> In vain the capture of the Cup I planned;
> Their *Vigilant's* prevailed—in Yankeeland.

The one thing conspicuously absent from this handbook is the list so prominent in all its predecessors, of distinguished old boys. Is this mere accident, or is it the fact that Westminster has for years been relatively unsuccessful? This is a question we can hardly expect its eulogist to answer, but to an outsider it would certainly seem as if the situation of the school in the heart of a great city were a grave disadvantage. It remains to be seen whether Dr. Gow, who has recently come to the headmastership of Westminster, after a successful experience at a school of a very different type, will succeed in giving a fresh start to the venerable and picturesque foundation. His appointment is a sign of the times, and we may look for some changes in the school programme, if nothing else.

A SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF ENGLISH LANDSCAPE.

The Scenery of England and the Causes to Which It Is Due. By the Rt. Honorable Lord Avebury, F.R.S., etc. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The idea of writing a book which should describe the scenery of a country by explaining the forces and causes that have made it what it is, and have given to the existing landscape its peculiar character, is an excellent one. It is, moreover, one specially suited to an age in which the conscious love of nature is growing, and increased facilities for travel enable persons of moderate means to learn to know the countries they inhabit or visit far better than in any previous time. Every feature in a landscape is due to causes which can be discovered and explained—most of them physical causes, a smaller number economic or historical. But of these causes very few would occur to the ordinary traveller, while the way in which they have combined to produce the actual visible effects would still less present itself to his unaided mind. The persons are, indeed, rare who reflect upon the things with which they have been familiar from childhood. An intelligent stranger visiting England is more likely than an Englishman born to ask himself what produced the distinctive features of English landscape.

The book before us is well planned and executed so far as regards its scientific side. The author shows a competent knowledge of English geology and climatology, and doubtless possesses a sufficient mastery of botany also, though he scarcely touches that side of the subject. Five-sixths of the treatise is devoted to an ex-

amination of the geological causes which have moulded the hills, valleys, and plains of England. It begins by a brief but sufficient sketch of the rocks of the country and their distribution, dwelling particularly, as is right, on the latest and superficial deposits of the Quaternary period, which form so large a part of the soil. After describing the general configuration of England and its relations to the European Continent, of which it formed a part at no very distant date (possibly, indeed, since the appearance of man), the author proceeds to deal with the coast line, showing why some parts are bold, others flat, what causes have enabled the sea to encroach on the land at some points, and the land to gain on the sea at others. These changes have been great—greater, in proportion to the size of the island, than those which have affected the coast line of the United States. Four chapters are then devoted to mountains and three to rivers. These are the best parts of the book. It would be impossible to criticise in detail the theories advanced regarding the origin of mountains, for some of these theories are still matter of controversy among geologists, and nearly all of them require a certain measure of technical knowledge to be mastered. But the description of English rivers, and the way in which their courses have been formed, is more within the comprehension of the ordinary reader, and is full of interest. The process by which a river bed and a river valley are excavated is investigated, the way in which rivers transport solid matter, the action of floods, the growth of deltas, the changes of river courses, the formation of terraces, the occurrence of waterfalls or rapids at particular points, the instances of subterranean water-courses, the relation of rivers to the various strata which they traverse—all these topics are handled in an intelligent and generally lucid way.

In particular there is an interesting discussion of the comparative antiquity of the chief rivers of Southern and Middle England; a discussion based on a consideration of the condition of the country in remote geological times. It has been suggested that the Thames as we know it now is a less important stream than it once was. In the days when the lias, oölite and chalk covered the whole of Western England (from which they have now largely disappeared by denudation) as far as the palæozoic mountains of Wales, the Thames may have drained an area to the northwest of its present basin which has subsequently been annexed by the Severn, then a much smaller stream; and its northern tributaries, such as the Cherwell, which joins it at Oxford, may also have at that time come down from points further to the north than their present sources. The arguments for this view, which Lord Avebury himself adopts, are too intricate to be here set forth, but they seem well founded, and are presented in a manner which is instructive, because it helps us to conceive of the way in which secular processes operate to change the surface and aspect of a country. Several pages of equal interest are devoted to explaining the remarkable cases in which, in several parts of eastern and southern England, rivers cut their way through ridges of hills instead of following what would seem, taking the surface of the country as it now exists, to be the natural line of discharge.

Another chapter examines the causes that produce lakes, and deals at some length with the theory which attributes not a few of them to glacial erosion. This doctrine has been disputed of late years as regards not a few of the instances formerly adduced, including the great Italian lakes at the southern foot of the Alps. Our author gives reasons for thinking that it holds true of many of the British lakes, though admitting that in some cases a moraine accumulated at the end of an old glacier is no less a cause of the lake than is the ice excavation of its basin. He observes, as indeed many a traveller must have observed, that lakes are a vanishing element in the landscape of the earth. Many have been filled up or have disappeared by desiccation. Many are being filled up to-day. Hardly any new ones are being created, hardly any existing ones enlarged.

One short chapter is given to the influence of what our author calls "law and custom" upon scenery. His remarks on the effect of English laws of inheritance, as compared with the laws of France, in causing the distribution of land into farms, as also in producing hedgerows and winding country lanes, are apposite, but the treatment of the general subject of the influence which man has exercised upon landscape is very inadequate. Far more might have been said about the way in which foreign trees have changed the landscape, and about the part played in it by the now dominant crops. Neither is the short chapter which considers the causes that have led to the creation of towns upon certain spots as full or instructive as it might have been made. Lord Avebury is much more at home in natural science than he is in history, and this whole side of the subject needs a treatment based on more extensive and thorough study. Neither do his etymologies always inspire us with confidence.

Speaking broadly, we may say that those parts of Lord Avebury's book which deal with the physical structure and configuration of England are carefully and intelligently done. They furnish an excellent foundation for the study of English scenery. But the superstructure has not been added. One would expect that when the physical causes had been explained, their connection with the actual landscape would have been brought out in a way to interest the tourist or the artist. There might have been what one may call a synthetic treatment of the subject, an effort to show how the causes, forces, and conditions so carefully analyzed have contributed to create the England which the traveller sees. Some typical and famous pieces of scenery might have been taken, such as Borrowdale, for instance, or the valley of the Wye, or the coast at Torquay, or the view from Richmond Hill near London, and the elements which make these spots beautiful might have been set forth in their combined action. Or certain districts might have been taken, such as the Yorkshire dales, or the Surrey downs and "bottoms," with their heaths and thickets and stretches of verdant pasture, or the moorlands of Somerset and Devon, pierced by romantic glens; and each of these classes of scenery might have been examined in the light of the geological and botanical data already given. Or the reader might have been conducted upon some journey which every traveller may be assumed to have made, such as that along the line of the London and Northwestern Railway, from Liverpool to London. The changing aspect of the surface, the lines of hills traversed or seen in the distance, the strata which successively reveal themselves in the cuttings, might have been referred to and explained. Any one of such methods would have the advantage of suggesting to the reader how he ought to observe landscape; and it is one of the chief uses of such a treatise as this to set people to use for themselves the data it supplies. Accordingly, the book is less interesting and less readable than it might have been made. The absence of labored pictorial passages is, indeed, no loss, yet a little more effort to present the characteristics of English landscape in a graphic and imaginative manner would not have been thrown away.

There is a profusion of photographic views and illustrative diagrams, well chosen, to explain the text. Though we regret the absence of what we have called the superstructure, the substructure is satisfactory. Whoever wishes to understand the physical geography of England as a preparation to the study either of the history of the country or of its scenic aspects will find the book useful. It contains a great deal of information which he will hardly find so conveniently arranged elsewhere, though he may be advised to refer for the geology to Ramsay's well-known 'Physical Geology and Geography of Great Britain,' and for the relations of physical geography to history to the recently published 'Historical Geography of the British Isles' of Mr. Mackinder, both excellent books.

TWO BOOKS ON ENGLISH PROSODY.

Milton's Prosody. By Robert Bridges. (New and enlarged edition.) Henry Frowde. 1901.

Classical Metres in English Verse. By William Johnson Stone. Henry Frowde. 1901.

The appearance of Mr. Bridges's book is very attractive. Its convenient size, neat binding, excellent paper, handsome, well-spaced type, and tasteful margins put one in a good humor with its contents. Repellent, however, and even irritating, is the arrangement of the treatise. The first part, on the verse of 'Paradise Lost,' is in three chapters; two chapters go to the second part, on the verse of 'Paradise Regained' and 'Samson Agonistes'; there follow appendices, A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and J. Appendix J is in two divisions, not closely related; for the former is on the rules of stress-rhythms, the latter on the accentual hexameter. In the sixty-six pages of appendices the matter presented seems quite as important as that set forth in the forty-six pages of the first and second parts. The treatise would be easier and pleasanter to read were it divided into fifteen chapters numbered serially. In indexes the book is rather pretentious, for it has three. Yet when we consult them for the word "fiction," which, in his system of verse-scansion, Mr. Bridges uses peculiarly and scarcely intelligibly as a technical term, we do not find the word indexed at all, and it appears in the index only casually under other headings.

To comprehend Mr. Bridges, it is necessary to form some idea of what he intends by this word "fiction." From what appears on pages 18, 19, 34, 45, 50, and 76 we rather

infer that the meaning is somewhat as follows. Milton wrote many lines like P. L. vii., 446:

"Of rainbows and starry eyes. The waters thus."

He intended that, in reading, each syllable should be fully pronounced as in prose; but in accounting to himself for the variety of effects in his rhythm, he considered the final syllable of "starry" to be elided before "eyes," and imagined a similar elision for all similar cases. By this resort to a non-existent elision, applicable to any part of any line, he reduced the form of his line to that of the type-line from which his variant diverges. Mr. Bridges calls every case in which, according to his view, two unaccented syllables are to be separately pronounced in reading, but considered as one in accounting for the structure of the line, "a fiction."

This is anything but satisfying. The idea appears far-fetched, while the assumption of seeing into Milton's mind and divining what he himself nowhere stated as his method, seems unjustifiable. True, the first edition of 'Paradise Lost' prints many elisions, as "Th' Almighty." But this method of printing is applied so inconsistently that no safe inference can be drawn from it. It may represent Milton's intention; it may be merely a fashion of the time, based on a vague general misconception. Besides, as an explanation, Mr. Bridges's idea is a lumbering device. How much simpler to assume Milton growing to feel that, in English verse, two unaccented syllables may, in any part of the line, stand in place of one, and that the only limit to the use of such variations is in the approval of the poet's own ear, its one needed justification the acceptance of these rhythms by a poet's audience.

Waiving our objections to the author's expression of his method, we find in his monograph the evidence of close, thorough, and sympathetic study of Milton's usage in verse, of keen insight, and of the most sensitive and delicate feeling for the finer and almost inappreciable shades of Milton's best effects. The lines on page 29, contrasted with the examples previously cited from Milton, demonstrate a real distinction between the variant lines in Milton and apparently identical variants in Shakspere, and the author appears to have proved his point, that the difference is not fortuitous, but due to a conscious intention in Milton to limit himself in such variation far more than did Shakspere. In the treatment of this matter some of the utterances are noteworthy, as on page 65: "'Liquid elisions' were adopted by Milton to the exclusion of others, not only because they pleased his ear, but because he knew why they did so"; and on page 68: "And Milton wrote much more carefully than he has been criticised."

The "rules" set forth in the first part, on 'Paradise Lost,' and those in appendix J, I., are in general just and likely to stimulate, if hardly to guide, a student or an independent investigator; in particular, they seem scarcely rules to be honored. Those in the first part are concerned less with the general structure of blank verse than with the minutiæ of its subtler variations. Those in appendix J, in so far as they set forth facts, are unimpeachable, but by no means to be subscribed to in respect to their interpretations of facts. Rule II. in this appendix is wholly good and very well expressed; those which follow are more likely to benefit a reader by clarifying his ideas as he explains to himself why he disagrees with them, than to help him as guides for the comprehension and interpretation of verse structure.

We cannot too much decry Mr. Bridges's conviction (Rules III. to VII.) that the metrical units of English are identical with the phrasing of its words considered as prose. Thoroughly in accord he seems with Mr. Stone, who calls attention to the conflict between foot stress and word accent in Greek and Latin metres; he appears to agree that some such feature should be recognized in English verse. Yet he totally ignores the much more important, more insistent requirement in classic metres that the words or phrases must not coincide with the feet. Mr. Bridges appears to be quite right, and seems original, in the idea that, in any system of notation for the scansion of English verse, the symbol for accent should appeal to the eyes more strongly than the symbols for quantity. This he sets forth on pages 77, 89, and 97. Otherwise, his system has nothing to recommend it. We cannot avoid deploring the universal habit of writers on versification: each must needs devise for his subject a new notation and a new nomenclature, partial or total. This seems never necessary, and generally ill-advised. In what he has to say of the pauses in blank verse, Mr. Bridges, apparently with some reason, prefers to the familiar classic term "cæsura" the word "break," as carrying no false connotation. His treatment of this subject is beautifully compact and sensible.

Of the observations scattered through the book some are well worth quoting. We find on page 30:

"It is easy to see how the far-sought effects of the greatest master in any art may be beyond the general taste—in rhythm this is specially the case; while almost everybody has a natural liking for the common fundamental rhythms, it is only after long familiarity with them that the ear grows dissatisfied, and wishes them to be broken; and there are very few persons indeed who take such a natural delight in rhythm for its own sake, that they can follow with pleasure a learned rhythm which is very rich in variety, and the beauty of which is its perpetual freedom to obey the sense and diction."

And on page 43:

"Poetry would be absurd which was always mimicking the diction or the sense; but that is a different thing from matter and form being in live harmonious relation."

Very interesting is the comment on Milton's twelve-syllable lines. Mr. Bridges appears, without realizing it, to have made a discovery. At least, we do not know of any one among Milton's editors or commentators who has called attention to the same facts in exactly the same way. He says on page 39 (the italics are ours):

"It is usually considered that this line (sometimes called an Alexandrine) must have a break or cæsura in the middle, between the sixth and seventh syllables. It is best known in this form, and the break is commonly so well marked that in free unrhymed verse it is indistinguishable from a pair of six-syllable lines. The characteristic of Milton's twelve-syllable line is his neglect of this break, and he makes a verse which has a strong unity in itself and no tendency to break up. In fact, he allows himself the same liberty of cæsura or break in this as in his ten-syllable verse; yet his Alexandrine is almost more coherent, *as if it were composed expressly to counteract its tendency to divide in two.*"

Then he cites, from the Nativity Ode,

"She strikes a universal peace through land and sea"

with

"While birds of calm sit brooding on the charmèd wave"

and

"Swindges the scaly horror of his folded tail."

These lines, if read with their natural accent, phrasing, and intonation, are clearly not Alexandrines. It might be conceivable that Milton wrote this kind of line unconsciously as a spontaneous variant on the Alexandrine, having hit it off by ear and repeating it from unreflecting liking for it. In the face of Mr. Bridges's careful examination of all Milton's twelve-syllable lines such a view is impossible; and, from his observations quoted above, it is quite obvious that these lines are not Alexandrines at all, nor variants on the Alexandrine, but accentual analogues of the Greek tragic iambic trimeter. It would appear also strongly probable that Milton, who was for his time a deep student of classical metres, wrote these lines consciously and intentionally. The characteristics of the classic tragic verse appear even more clearly in the line of 'Samson Agonistes' cited on page 42:

"Or do my eyes misrepresent, can this be he?"

We do not like at all Mr. Bridges's system of expressing his ideas on versification. His distinction between syllabic verse and stressed verse seems to us purely fanciful; on the other hand, his feeling for the structure of the verse he analyzes is worthy of the highest praise. Take, for example, what he says, on pages 98, 99, of certain effects in Shelley's "Sensitive Plant." We disagree wholly with his interpretation of them, but how much we respect his adequate perception of the facts! Still more do we admire what he says on pages 103, 104, of Shelley's stanzas beginning,

"Away, the moor is dark beneath the moon."

Mayor, in the recent second edition of his chapters on English verse, laboriously scans these lines, but fails to get any inkling of the type of their structure. Mr. Bridges equally misses the close analogy of their rhythm with that of those classic metres (the diiambic and pæonic) which would at once explain their movement; and yet he apprehends this movement perfectly.

Mr. Stone has passed out of sound of all criticisms. From strictures we forbear. Lest, however, his well-meant words so beautifully printed may mislead the unwary, we cannot omit saying that his essay seems to us the negligible utterance of an individual as entirely wrong-headed as he was transparently sincere. What the British universities can produce in the way of serene disregard of those facts of classical criticism which German investigation, to the satisfaction of all scholars everywhere, has established beyond cavil or peradventure, may be viewed upon pages 142, 143. We find there the facts concerning accent in ancient Greek, as long ago accepted by the consensus of the world's classical scholars, placidly brushed aside with an "I regard this view . . . to be altogether misleading," and an "I affirm with confidence." For whatever is good in

Mr. Stone's paper we are quite ready to give credit to himself. Not upon him rests any blame for his misconceptions, but upon a strange combination of reverence for a local view, and conservatism towards a tradition which was in itself a mere guess at its origin, with a calm indifference to the unimpeachable deductions of the world's foremost investigators which have thrown such a flood of light on the verities of classic verse structure.

A POOR HISTORY OF NEW JERSEY.

New Jersey, as a Colony and as a State, One of the Original Thirteen. By Francis Bazley Lee. Associate Board of Editors, William S. Stryker, LL.D., William Nelson, A.M., Garret D. W. Vroom, Ernest C. Richardson, Ph.D. Four volumes. Illustrated. New York: The Publishing Society of New Jersey. 1902.

The share of the Board of Editors in the preparation of these volumes has probably been a small one. Adjutant-General Stryker, upon whom Princeton University conferred the degree of doctor of laws for his historical writings, and who was the leading authority in the State upon the history of the Revolutionary period, died late in 1900. The proofs of the four volumes, according to the preface, "have been carefully read" by Messrs. Vroom and Nelson, but it would be charitable to infer that their labors have been advisory, if not perfunctory, and upon Mr. Lee's shoulders must be placed the responsibility for a work which is uneven, and often superficial, and which, upon the whole, in spite of evident enthusiasm and a certain capacity for historical research in limited fields, is disappointing and unsatisfactory. It is at its best in those portions which record the simple annals of a neighborhood; at its worst in the attempts to give philosophical treatment to broader aspects.

An example of the author's not infrequent tendency to draw a sweeping conclusion from an unrelated premise is given on page 187, volume i., where he says:

"It was the rule of the Society of Friends to 'marry in meeting'; that is, the union of a Quaker and a Presbyterian or Episcopalian was not only discountenanced, but was absolutely forbidden, to the degree of religious and social ostracism. Thus it was that a wealthy member of the Society, having a daughter, sought to unite her in marriage to some worthy young man of another land-owning family and join the two estates."

Here are recorded two separate statements, the first of which will be conceded and the second not seriously questioned, since it has been the habit of thrifty parents everywhere to marry their children as well as possible; but the last statement is no more to be drawn from the first than is the first from the last.

Elsewhere the author asserts that the Quakers looked upon marriage as a civil contract, not as a religious institution; and again on page 322, volume i., he reiterates his belief that the Quaker did not consider marriage as a divine sacrament. In these repeated assertions Mr. Lee contradicts the Quaker authorities themselves, simply because he has failed to understand the Quaker attitude towards what Friends consider the interference of a priesthood. In 'Friends in the Seventeenth Century,' by Dr. Charles Evans (Philadelphia, 1875), the true attitude of Friends upon this question is made plain in the following sentence (p. 262): "As Friends believed marriage was an ordinance of God, they held that He alone could rightly join any therein, and that the intervention of a priest or minister was not only uncalled for, but added nothing to the sacredness of the marriage covenant." The same authority also discusses marriage as a civil contract, the Friends regarding the bond from both points of view. George Fox declared that "it was God who joined man and woman before the fall. . . . It is God's joining that is the right and honorable marriage, but never any priest did marry any that we read of in the Scriptures from Genesis to Revelations" (see the Journal of George Fox).

On page 187, volume i., in attempting to point out a fundamental distinction between the people of East Jersey and those of West Jersey the author says, "The most characteristic feature of the economic development of West Jersey was the establishment of a land-owning class. Whether or not this was designed will probably never be known, but certain it is that those who had money or ready credit invested heavily, as the records show, in real estate"; and further on he speaks of land ownership as an indication of wealth. The truth is that, at the outset, land had an insignificant money value. The settlers and their descendants gradually created wealth from the soil, but as their wants were few and there was little variety of personal property, the profits of agriculture were invested in additional land, which in turn became a source of revenue; the process keeping pace with the development of consumers in villages and towns. There were, of course, families in West Jersey whose members were superior in ability, in character, in substance, and in education to the unlettered, simple-minded tradesmen, small farmers, and farm hands about them; but Mr. Lee's desire to set up a landed aristocracy in West Jersey outruns his facts. The teaching of the Friends was so largely ethical—conduct for seven days in the week was so important an element in their theological theory—that there was great uniformity in deportment and address. Besides, few Friends were needy, and the Quakers stoutly maintained that the individual was much, the station in life little. All this was opposed to an aristocracy; and although the author insists more than once that there was in West Jersey such an aristocracy, similar to that of Virginia, he nowhere presents the facts to sustain his view. The chapter on "Old Homes and Old Names" in volume iii., where the reader would naturally look for such evidence, is a mere roster of names, mostly of honest country folk in whose democratic simplicity of life and bearing there was certainly little of the aristocrat.

Another instance of the author's habit of over-statement is found on page 201, volume i., where, in writing of the redemptioners, he says: "Once in the hands of a new master, the life of the redemptioner was more distasteful than that of the slave." The services of the redemptioner were sold for a limited number of years to pay for his passage across the ocean. In the beginning the transaction was a voluntary one on the part of the redemptioner. Later, when vessels became so crowded that the passenger's personal belongings, his chest holding his clothing, and often his money, were left behind at the place of embarkment, the transaction became an involuntary one. It need not be pointed out that the situation of the slave was very different. Moreover, the redemptioner enjoyed the hope of marrying the daughter of the colonial who purchased his services, and the opportunity was so frequently improved—every community where redemptioners were found offering examples of such marriages—that in those early times, where an employer and employed, purchaser and redemptioner, labored side by side, ate at the same table and lived the same life, it is apparent that there was no sharp social distinction between the family and the "help," who so often subsequently became a member of the family by marriage. Mr. Lee says the redemptioner seldom aspired so high as to a seat in the New Jersey Legislature. As a matter of fact, well-known examples of redemptioners who rose to high station were Matthew Thornton, signer of the Declaration of Independence, and Charles Thomson, Secretary of the Continental Congress.

On page 195 of the same volume, the author has thought it worth while to record that sanitary plumbing, window screens, and bath-tubs were unknown to the New Jersey colonist, and declares that "in all cases the houses were without conveniences," meaning that they were without the conveniences of to-day. The conveniences of their time and locality of course they had. Of minor errors may be mentioned the reference to Anthony Wayne, page 180, volume ii., where he is called Col. Wayne. The time referred to is 1778. Wayne became a brigadier-general in the previous year. The inscription under the picture of the old inn at Haddonfield declares that "in this hotel the Continental Congress held many sessions." While the Legislature met in the hotel, and the Council of Safety was there organized, there is no foundation for the assertion that the Continental Congress ever sat there. The building represented on page 122, volume iv., was not the New Jersey building at the Centennial Exposition of 1876, as the book asserts. There is often marked inadequacy of statement. On page 285, in the same volume, it is declared that in Mount Holly, "before the opening of the civil war, two fire companies, an insurance company, and water, gas, and telegraph companies had been organized." When it is known that one of the existing fire companies was organized in the eighteenth century, and that the water company was one of the first in the United States, the vagueness of the phrase "before the civil war" is better appreciated. Elsewhere, on page 299, the author declares that at Lawrenceville is one of the three leading preparatory schools in the United States. Where are the other two?

The work has been written in a series of monographs, each chapter being supposedly complete in itself so far as the topic of which it treats is concerned. The method is not without its disadvantages. Thus, we are given in the first volume chapters on "The Beginnings of Transportation" and "Ordinaries, Inns, and Taverns," which are related subjects, separated by three chapters upon other topics. The chapters on

"The Steamboat Monopoly" and "New Jersey's First Railroad Charter" are in another volume, and "The Days of Camden and Amboy" in still another. Again, the reader is brought back to the subject of taverns in a chapter on "Social Conditions at the Close of the Century" in volume ii. Volume i. relates to the colony, volume ii. to the Revolution, and volume iii. to the first half of the last century, while volume iv. brings the narrative down to the present time. If the last volume had been omitted altogether, which, in view of its bare recital of commonplace facts to be gathered from almanacs and newspapers, might well have been done; and if the general discussion of national politics and national questions indulged in on every occasion had been curtailed, and the thinnest of the chapters on State topics had been cut down, the work would have been far less bulky, and at the same time there would have been room for an adequate account of the battle of Monmouth in place of the present meagre references to that contest. In connection with one phase of this battle the author names two gallant American soldiers, but fails to mention the real hero of the episode, Col. Nathaniel Ramsay of the Maryland Line, who thrust one British dragoon through the body with his sword, before being shot at close range, in his effort to fulfil his promise made to Gen. Washington that he would hold the position until troops could be brought up, or die in the attempt. Curiously enough, neither in the list of Princeton graduates, among whom both brothers are to be numbered, or elsewhere, is there any reference to Col. Ramsay's brother, Dr. David Ramsay, the "Father of American History," whose account of the war for Independence, including the New Jersey campaigns, still remains, after more than a century, one of the best, as it is one of the most authoritative, historical narratives of the war. However, Mr. Lee has concerned himself little with literature relating to the State, although Henry Armitt Brown's address at Burlington, Andrew D. Mellick's "Story of an Old Farm," and Isaac Mickle's "Reminiscences of Old Gloucester" were models of what his own work should have been.

The many curious facts recorded in the first volumes, such as the manufacture of wampum in New Jersey as late as the year 1860; the organization by the Dutch of a church at Bergen in 1660, the oldest church in the State; the establishment at the same place by the same race of people in 1664 of the first school in the State; the Loyalist record of Shrewsbury (an English settlement); the facts relating to the exercise of their right to vote by the women of New Jersey under the Constitution of 1776; even a number of meritorious chapters like those relating to slavery, currency, and counterfeiting, only serve by contrast to deepen regret that a work so good in part should be marred by imperfections so obvious.

Of the marginal illustrations in color scattered profusely through the volumes, many are without any special relevancy, and a number of nameless ones were inserted, apparently merely in order that the page should have a picture. The engravings of portraits of distinguished Jerseymen are more dignified in character and more in keeping with the kind of historical work which these volumes aim to be, but fall short of being.

Disciples of Æsculapius. By Sir Benjamin Ward Richardson, M.D., F.R.S. With portraits and illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 827.

The cables of thought that run through human history connect one era with another, although few of their strands maintain prolonged continuity. Generally, the threads that bind one stage of social and intellectual development with the preceding are replaced later by others of different hue and texture, so that, in tracing backward a particular science, course of study, or doctrine, one may be surprised to find how completely its fundamental concept has been changed, and sometimes to learn that minds whose main distinction was in other realms could be claimed as originally of the one in question. For instance, John Keats was a medical student, and had practically no other education or occupation; not that he advanced medicine by his genius, but medicine seems to have given occasional tone and illustration to his thoughts. The philosopher, John Locke, author of the fundamental Constitution which the Proprietors of 1663 attempted to use in Carolina, and of the 'Essay concerning Human Understanding,' was an Oxford bachelor of medicine, and in his earlier years a successful practitioner, who never wholly discarded professional interest.

From the writings of the late Sir B. W. Richardson, himself an active-minded man, especially concerned with preventive medicine, are here collected more than forty addresses commemorative of men who, in one way or another, contributed to or were connected with medical science. Not all of them were physicians, but all were interested in modes of right living, and nearly all in the cure or the prevention of disease, or in discovery and public service bearing directly upon the prolongation of human life. These two volumes of essays are intelligent and interesting studies of great men, and present in most instances details little known, except to scholars in biography. They are discriminating reports of worthies who have placed the world in debt, although much of that has passed by the lapse of time into the outlawry of oblivion; and they make up a compendium convenient for reference and sufficiently complete for the pleasure and advantage of many writers and more readers. The papers are not arranged chronologically, nor by subject, and they run from the birth of French surgery and of modern anatomy to our own times. The acute and outspoken Willis, the learned and successful Sydenham, Paré courageous and devout, Black and Priestley, Rush and Wiseman, Digby and Browne, are among those passed in kindly but sagacious review.

The student reviewing the last three centuries of medicine will find here illustrations of its incidental interlacings with many kindred lines of study, and an interesting collective exhibition of modes of thought, as well as of achievement in different periods. For reading and for reference this compilation is equally appropriate for private collections and public libraries.

The Contendings of the Apostles: The Ethiopic Texts, now first edited from Manuscripts in the British Museum, with an English Translation, by E. A. Wallis Budge, M.A., Litt. D., D. Lit., F.S.A. Vol. II. The English Translation. Henry Frowde. 1901. Pp. xvi, 736.

Among the most important legacies to us from the gnostic sects of the early Christian centuries have been various apocryphal acts, preachings, and martyrdoms of the apostles. These were taken over in self-defence by the Catholic Church, purged mostly of their heretical doctrines and allusions, and have reached us in this modified form. Apart from their value for the history of the popular ideas and beliefs of the early Church, they are of high interest for sociology and folklore. One group of these apostolic legends, known as the "Contendings of the Apostles," appears, according to the researches of Guidi, to have assumed form under the Patriarchate of Alexandria. The earliest traces are in Sahidic Coptic, but in that language only fragments so far have been found. From Coptic, as the language of the people changed, it was rendered into Arabic, and of the collection in that form we possess several manuscripts. This translation must have been made in the second half of the thirteenth century, and marks a new period in the history of these stories, coinciding, apparently, with a literary and religious revival in the Alexandrian patriarchate itself. From Arabic a translation was finally made into Ethiopic, but not earlier than the first half of the fourteenth century. Thus, at last, these half-wearisome, half-weird tales reached the Abyssinian Church. No other church has given them so free an entrance among its sacred books; elsewhere, they have ranked as religious novels, a cross between 'Robert Elsmere' and 'The Prince of the House of David'—the one on the gnostic, the other on the Catholic side; there, they have lacked little of full canonicity. Perhaps, then, it was fitting that this, their most complete attiring in a European garb, should be by passage from the language which had proved most hospitable to them. From every other point of view an edition and translation of the Arabic version, in the lack of complete Coptic manuscripts, would have been more desirable. The Ethiopic is only another remove from the lost original, and adds little or no interest of its own.

Dr. Budge in this volume makes no reference to the industrious S. C. Malan, who anticipated him in the greater part of his work with a translation published in 1871. Without doubt, however, his own is more literal and elaborate, and has been made from fuller manuscripts. The version in itself certainly suggests conscience and care. The unwieldy sumptuousness of the form is due to the munificence of the late Marquess of Bute. A fuller introduction and commentary would have raised higher gratitude in us than the present heavy paper and more than ample margins. As it is, the student must take refuge with Lipsius and Guidi.

Church Building: A Study of the Principles of Architecture in their Relation to the Church. By Ralph Adams Cram. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

The greater part of this volume first reached the public in a series of articles in the columns of the *Churchman*. They were

of real value, and it is proper that they should assume the more permanent form of a book. That ecclesiastical architecture in America is on a lower plane than secular is a proposition not likely to meet denial, and any book which helps great numbers of people to see this and to wish for better things, is to be warmly welcomed. Mr. Cram's criticism is not merely destructive. He is not content with pointing out the defects of our average church and the tastelessness of its fittings. He tells us how things should be done. He gives us plans and pictures showing how they have been, and may again be, properly done.

He covers a wide field, starting with the village chapel and ending with the cathedral. On the first page he strikes the keynote of his treatise. "Let us remember this: when we build here in America we are building for now, we are manifesting the living Church." "It is the present that demands us—the immutable Church existing in times of the utmost mutability. We must express the Church that is one through all ages; but also we must express the endless changes of human life, the variation of environment. This is church architecture." He plunges at once into the question of how most wisely to spend the small sum usually at the command of a rural population, and shows so clearly what to avoid and what to strive for, that the wonder is that the right thing, seeming so simple, is not oftener done. The problem, as he puts it, is "to build a shelter for the altar and congregation, together with such adjuncts as are necessary, for the smallest cost consistent with honesty, durability, dignity, and reverence." Then follows the analysis of plan, its length and width, its way of seating the people, its provision for service; next, the materials and the ways of working them, and then the outcome of all this in the expression of the building. The summation comes at the end of the chapter: "Build in stone or brick; plan with rigid simplicity; design both exterior and interior with reserve, formality, and self-control; have the mass simple, the composition equally so; imitate no form or detail of larger structures, but work for the dignity and reverence that are theirs."

Mr. Cram's English is nothing if not vigorous, his opinions nothing if not positive. Could every member of every church-building committee be made to read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest this book, great would be the gain for decent, honest, straightforward architecture.

The Development of Cabinet Government in England. By Mary Taylor Blauvelt. Macmillan Co. 1902.

It is not an easy task to write of cabinet government, with Bagehot's brilliant essays illuminating the subject so clearly as they do. Yet it is one of the defects of such genius as his that it is dazzling; our eyes do not penetrate the nooks and corners left in shadow. This book is adapted to remedy these defects. It does not offer a philosophical explanation of the necessity of a cabinet, or of something homologous, in all governments; perhaps it would be more effective had more been attempted in that direction. What it does is to show how the cabinet came into existence, and how its powers came to increase. To attain this result, the author appears to have carefully examined the records, of all descriptions, which throw light on the subject.

Few monarchs have had the ability to conceive and carry out a policy. Every human being, indeed, whether king or subject, must act through agents in any considerable enterprise. A strong king may rule his ministers; a weak one will be ruled by them. In England the Tudor sovereigns were capable enough to rule without depending on Parliament. The Stuarts were incapable rulers, and their ministers exasperated the country so that Parliament became powerful. The folly of James II. was so extreme as to destroy the monarchy and make Parliament supreme. When the Stuarts were driven out, loyalty went with them. Some figure-head was of course necessary; the name of monarchy had to be preserved. But it was ridiculous to expect loyalty to the first Georges. The Whig aristocracy had to maintain them, and did so by making Parliament the governing body. But loyalty is a sentiment, and is no more to be made to order than religious feeling, and it was a century before the Tories really accepted the Hanoverian line as ruling *de jure*.

Long before this century was completed, Parliament had grasped the reins of power too firmly to be disturbed. It had the whole of the reigns of George I. and George II. in which to develop its system of government. The great Whig houses chose the members of Parliament, and gradually those members turned the direction of affairs over to a committee. That committee, for deferential reasons, was represented as a council of the King, and George III. was able to control it at times. But neither he nor any later sovereign has been supported by the sentiment of loyalty to any such extent as to make it practicable to overthrow Parliament. The details of the process that we have outlined are well worked out in this book, which deserves to be classed among histories of substantial merit.

Essais sur le Mouvement Ouvrier en France. Par Daniel Halévy. Paris: Georges Bellais. 1901. Pp. 300.

But for the new edition of Mr. Rae's 'Contemporary Socialism' these essays would have an almost unique value as a review of the recent progress of the labor movement in France. As it is, while Mr. Rae's chapters treat the subject in a more familiar way, M. Halévy's book is by far the most comprehensive discussion of it that has fallen under our eye, without being a plea for any party. One of the three essays is primarily historical, and traces the growth of French trades-unionism. The second deals with some social-economic aspects of the labor movement, such as co-operation and university extension; the third with the political activity of the unions. While M. Halévy is in sympathy with the general principles of French trades-unionism, he fully concedes the bad results of it. The unions have had a hard fight to gain their footing, and recognition of them has come later than in England; but they seem to be rather more disposed to abuse their new privileges than are the English unions. For one thing, strikes are multiplying with alarming rapidity. Between 1870 and 1880, only 30,000 workmen were affected by strikes; but, from 1890 to 1895, 92,000 were out, and the total days of idleness were more than three times as numerous as from 1870 to 1880. From 1895-1899 a still further increase in time thus lost is observable, and statistics for 1900 show an aggregate of 216,530 strikers, with not less than 4,000,000 days of idleness. Strikes, too, are becoming more dangerous, since they are both more violent and more inclusive than they were formerly. From this state of things arises a desire to find a remedy for the strike. Some profess to find such a cure in conciliation and arbitration, and hence the discussion of certain plans patterned after the New Zealand system, none of which, however, have been seriously considered. On the whole, M. Halévy thinks trades-unionism, despite its bad features and its many sins, a needed support to workers whose welfare is endangered by the combinations of capital, and at the same time an aid to the state in its unequal contest against plutocracy.

Coöperation has made considerable progress, and the movement for popular education and improvement is still in the flush of first enthusiasm. French workmen are doing a good deal in the way of supporting one another, and are seeking greater adaptability to industrial change through scientific knowledge. The educational movement does not, however, neglect the humanities wholly; and though the English notion of culture is not readily grasped, a substitute for it is being developed even where it did not formerly exist at all. These hopeful symptoms of better social organization make it all the more unfortunate that unwise political action should have been attempted, and that the trades unions should have linked themselves with the Socialist cause. There is really no necessary connection between Socialism and the labor movement. Just how they have become associated in France, M. Halévy makes very plain—but this part of his story is by far the most familiar to English and American readers. Socialism, in his opinion, has not engendered class contests, but has changed their character for the better by making them more reflective and self-conscious. In this fact he sees the hope of the future—a society transformed not by warfare, as heretofore, but by economic changes directed toward a common object, the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

The weakest feature of M. Halévy's book is his failure to view the labor movement in its relation to capitalism. It is not only a social development, but is conditioned by its economic bearings as well. But this shortcoming is too common a vice with social theorists to be laid too heavily upon a single scapegoat.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. Uncle Sam, Trustee. Riggs Pub. Co. $1.75.
Besant, Sir Walter. Autobiography. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.40.
Clewell, J. H. History of Wachovia in North Carolina. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.
D'Avenel, G. Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Dendron, Bertram. The Man in the Moon. Bonnell, Silver & Co. 50 cents.
Dix, Dorothy. Fables of the Elite. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Dunbar, P. L. The Sport of the Gods. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Field, T. M. Unpublished Letters of Charles Carroll of Carrollton. The United Catholic Historical Society.
Fisguill, Richard. Mazel. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Fox, Emma A. Parliamentary Usage for Women's Clubs. The Baker & Taylor Co. 65 cents.
Frye, A. E. Grammar School Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hobbs, W. R. P., and Wormell, Richard. The Arithmetic of Electrical Measurements. New ed. London: Thomas Murby; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Howell, George. Labour Legislation, Labour Movements, and Labour Leaders. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Lair, Maurice. L'Impérialisme allemand. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Liddell, M. H. An Introduction to the Scientific Study of English Poetry. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Mable, H. W. Works and Days. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Buried Temple. (Translated by Alfred Sutro.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.40.
Marchmont, A. W. Sarita, the Carlist. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Olmstead, D. H. Reforms in Land Transfer. Burr Printing House.
Todd, C. B. The True Aaron Burr. A. S. Barnes & Co. 50 cents.
Van Bergen, R. The Story of China. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Warner, C. D. Fashions in Literature, and Other Literary and Social Essays and Addresses. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
Waters, W. E. Petronius Cena Trimalchionis. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.

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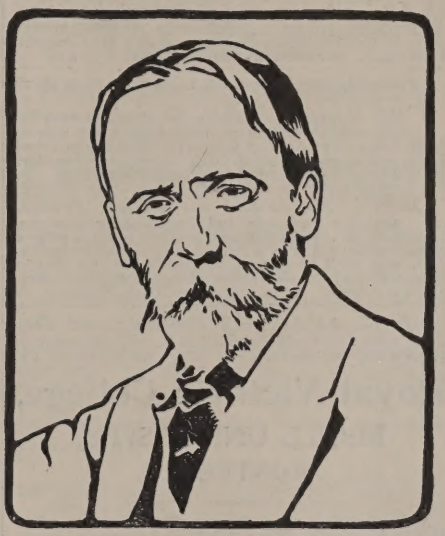

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 15, 1902.

The Week.

Further dispatches only magnify the horror of the destruction of Saint Pierre. Warning there had been for some time previous in the grumbling of the mountain, but when the fatal day came, the mountain wrought its work of devastation in minutes. The fall of incandescent sand and of burning gases was so sudden that even the ships in the harbor were burned at their moorings. Such a realization of the Biblical "fire from heaven" which passed over the cities of the plain and left a wilderness, is probably unexampled in secular history. The extent of the ruin and the number of the perished are still matters of sheerest conjecture. It is probable, however, that not less than 25,000 people, more than one-eighth of the total population, are buried at the foot of Mt. Pélée. Saint Pierre is the chief commercial city of the little island of Martinique, and its destruction will doubtless involve widespread suffering. A simultaneous volcanic disturbance in the neighboring island of St. Vincent reckons victims by thousands there also. The economic distress of these colonies was already extreme, and disaster by fire or flood fills the cup of their misfortune to overflowing. The world-wide sympathy which this unparalleled calamity everywhere arouses is actively expressing itself in practical beneficence.

Scientists, or at least the more discreet among them, naturally shrink from lifting their puny explanations and predictions in the face of such an earth-shaking and incalculable disaster. What is a geologist that thou art mindful of him?—so the gigantic and unforeseen convulsions in the West Indies seem to ask in scorn. Yet one geologist at Washington comes forward to soothe apprehension about the Danish Islands, and to assure the public that no volcanic action can endanger that future possession of the United States. Possibly, though nature seems given to mocking expert knowledge; and we must not forget that St. Thomas has known a tidal wave almost as calamitous as an eruption. We can easily imagine that Denmark will be more ready to part with such uncertain property, now that she has seen French and English possessions in the Lesser Antilles ruined in a moment. The particular enterprise in which the appalling catastrophe should make the United States pause, is the building of an Isthmian canal. Nicaragua is right in the line of volcanic disturbance, and seems a peculiarly risky spot for the investment of $250,000,000 in a canal wholly dependent upon an inland lake which a single earthquake might drain dry. Even at Panama the danger from volcanic shock, though much less than at Nicaragua, undoubtedly exists. There, however, a sea-level canal could be cut. Even that could be, of course, wrecked by any such shattering of the earth's crust as has overwhelmed St. Pierre; but a much less serious movement would be enough to destroy a canal at Nicaragua, with its six or eight locks.

Senator Spooner's promised speech on the Senate Philippine bill we await with interest. He intimated, the other day, that he thought the Lodge bill ought to be amended before being passed. Unless Mr. Spooner has decidedly changed his point of view since last year, the amendments he would like to see made must relate to its exploiting features and aim to cut them out. In the Republican newspapers, none of which seems to know what is the actual text of the bill, it is referred to as a measure establishing a "civil government" in the archipelago. It really does nothing of the kind, but provides opportunities, as Senator Lodge confessed, for Americans to make money in the Philippines. But, by the so called Spooner amendment of last year, we undertook to make no money there at the expense of the natives. That mask, however, certain Senators now seem ready to drop. The "sacred-trust" theory is rapidly disappearing. Our Christian mission in the Philippines is, in fact, coming to look as unreal as were the pious professions attributed to the first settlement of Cape Ann, in the seventeenth century. A preacher from Massachusetts Bay went to preach to the Cape Ann fishermen, and exhorted them to "approve themselves a religious people," since "otherwise they would contradict the main end of planting this wilderness." Whereupon, as we read in Young's 'Chronicles,' there were intimations that this sort of talk was misdirected, being evidently meant for the Bay Colony; and "a well-known person then in the assembly cried out, 'Sir, you are mistaken. *Our main end was to catch fish.*" A period of similar frankness seems to have arrived in our Philippine policy.

An appeal to clergymen of all denominations throughout the United States to protest against the conditions in the Philippines has been signed by the Rev. Dr. C. H. Parkhurst, the Rev. Dr. Henry A. Stimson, the Rev. Robert Collyer, and a number of other ministers of New York city. The appeal is accompanied by liberal extracts from testimony taken before the Senate Committee on the Philippines regarding the cruel treatment of the natives by our troops, and closes with an urgent request that clergymen "inform themselves fully in regard to the position of the United States in the Philippine Islands, in order that they may advise the American people as to their duty in regard to this matter." It is accompanied by an interesting letter from the Rev. Joseph R. Duryee of Philadelphia, who declines to sign the protest because of his "sense of justice to the American troops"—but does not stop there, as the Imperialists would prefer, adding that "the tendency of this Senate inquiry is to make the army bear the blame of an immoral policy of subjugation begun four years ago." Mr. Duryee also contests the claim that "destiny" is on the side of those who are carrying out this immoral policy of subjugation. "If the Administration and Congress, representing a majority of our people," he says, "have not learned by this time that tropical possessions in the East are not the destiny of our people, they are blind to the facts of nature these four years of experience have taught."

Secretary Root's answer to the Senate resolution inquiring what military orders had been sanctioned by the War Department, assumes responsibility for the policy of concentration camps and of retaliation in the Philippines, but denies knowledge or approval of the ferocious order given by Gen. Smith to Major Waller. If he had not denied it, the President would have had to order the court-martial of Secretary Root as well as of Gen. Smith. Thus the slander of the *Army and Navy Journal* is disposed of which asserted that it was absurd for the President and the Secretary of War to "plead the baby act" in connection with Gen. Smith's order to burn and slay promiscuously, and which roundly affirmed:

> "Gen. Smith's orders in the province of Samar and Gen. Bell's in the province of Batangas were submitted to Major-Gen. Chaffee. He approved them, and submitted copies of them to the War Department at Washington, where not a word was said against them or against the operations conducted in accordance with them until it was discovered that it had been necessary to use harsher means than syringes loaded with cologne water to put down the insurrection."

Mr. Root's letter to the Senate explicitly declares that "the Secretary of War has no knowledge of any order or orders issued by Brig.-Gen. Jacob H. Smith to Major L. W. T. Waller, United States Marine Corps, pleaded by the latter in defence before the recent court-martial which tried him at Manila. No such or-

der has been received at the War Department."

The Secretary takes refuge in the shadow of the mighty name of Lincoln on the subject of retaliation against a barbarous enemy. It would have been instructive, however, to state the fact that Lincoln refused to retaliate for the alleged massacre of colored troops at Fort Pillow, though strongly urged to do so by members of his Cabinet. For concentration camps, Mr. Root has, of course, to turn to Spanish authority. It was of Gen. Weyler that Gen. Bell learned that strategy. In forwarding the plan to Washington, Gen. Chaffee admitted that it was "impossible" for him to justify concentration "in such a way that all persons will agree that right action has been taken." We should think so. Chaffee had not forgotten, if the War Department had, that the *reconcentración* in Cuba was used to inflame this country against Spanish cruelty. Of course, Secretary Root is at pains to show that our concentration is a policy of the truest kindness; that the Filipinos whom we dragged from their homes were "well fed." So would the Cubans have been in Weyler's camp if he had had the money to do it. Spain was bankrupt. She could not pay and feed even her own troops, and there was inevitable suffering among the Cubans driven within the military lines. Because we are rich enough to give food to the Filipinos whom we drive within *our* military lines, we plume ourselves on our "humane" warfare! But tell it not in Spain, or we shall provoke even grim Gen. Weyler to mocking laughter.

There is a remarkable contrast between the statement regarding outrages upon Filipinos by our troops, which was sent to the Senate by Secretary Root on the 19th of February, and the list of officers and enlisted men in the army tried by court-martial for such offences which came from the War Department and which was laid before the Philippine Committee by Senator Lodge on May 6. The Secretary's communication of February 19 contained "a memorandum of forty-four officers, soldiers, and camp-followers, who have been tried, and thirty-nine of them convicted," for violation of orders calling attention to the general orders of war which especially refer to humanity. The list submitted last week contained the names of "over three hundred officers and enlisted men"—camp-followers now being left out of the account—who have been tried by court-martial on similar charges. The implication seems to be plain that there must have been a sudden and marked activity in the punishment of offences against the Filipinos in the last few weeks, since public sentiment in this country became aroused by the stories of cruelty towards the natives on the part of our troops.

President Palma's wish to obtain a Cuban reciprocity treaty that will really aid Cuban trade, naturally grieves and depresses the beet-sugar Senators. They cannot understand such a mercenary attitude. "Why," says Senator Burrows, "the man thinks of nothing but money from the United States, cares nothing for friendliness, and apparently feels no gratitude." Why cannot Señor Palma take example from Mr. Burrows, who stands up for the beet purely as a friend, and out of gratitude, and with not one thought of cash profits? The Cuban President should have seen how his talk about enabling the Cubans to make money was certain to convince Senators of the need of annexing Cuba. They are, in fact, gravely shaking their heads over the outlook, and saying that our troops will have to go back within six months. If there is any money to be made in the island, Americans will see to that. As Senator Lodge virtually said, the other day, in his speech which so nobly reflected the New England conscience, "It is Democratic policy not to allow an American to make money, but the Republican party will see to it that money is made, even if every pledge has to be broken."

"Death hath this also, that it openeth the gate to good fame and extinguisheth envy." Already is this comfort coming to the friends of the late Admiral Sampson. Falling as his death did after a marked abatement of the bitterness of the naval controversy in which he was an unwilling and pathetic participant, his passing from earth was in the midst of a general sentiment towards him more kindly than at any time for three years past; so that even those newspapers which have said the harshest things of him are now recording his high accomplishments as an officer and his sterling qualities as a man. His naval fame is secure. Contemporary foreign opinion usually expresses the verdict of posterity, and military writers of other nations have accorded Admiral Sampson a full measure of appreciation and praise. Even before the Spanish war he was widely and favorably known abroad for his attainments in the study of high explosives and of gunnery; and what was thought of his operations off Cuba, and especially of his skilful dispositions at Santiago, may be read, for example, in H. W. Wilson's naval history of 1898, 'The Downfall of Spain.' "Admiral Sampson," writes that author, "from first to last did his work in a manner that commands British admiration." The esteem in which he was held by the officers and men who served under him has been many times made manifest. Had it not been his ill luck to be ordered away by the Secretary of the Navy to confer with Gen. Shafter, on the morning of that day when the Spanish fleet appeared from Santiago, only to disappear from history, he would have become the idol of the American people, and for more than the Dewey moment.

Doubt as to the fate in the Senate of the bill which has just passed the House providing for the admission of Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico to statehood is based upon uncertainty as to the political complexion of the three Territories. It is not pleasant to think that the question of admission should hinge upon partisanship, but it has always been so, from the days when slave and free States were admitted in pairs, to the present time. There seems to be a prospect that the pending bill will fail, because Arizona is known to be Democratic, and New Mexico and Oklahoma are under suspicion. It will, of course, be no great calamity to the nation if this happens. If the question of partisanship were not dominating, attention might be drawn to the matter of fitness for statehood, and it is not at all certain that New Mexico and Arizona could pass muster. Oklahoma, on the other hand, has made so much progress during the thirteen years since her organization as a Territory, that, if she were applying alone, her case would seem a strong one. But she, too, can wait.

When Mr. Evans resigned as Commissioner of Pensions, he publicly stated that he was retiring because his continuance in office would be "embarrassing" to certain "statesmen." In private he never made any concealment of his willingness to remain, provided the President desired him to do so. Those are the facts, and nothing that Mr. Evans now says, in the generous wish to relieve Mr. Roosevelt from responsibility, is really inconsistent with them. He speaks at present of his long having wished to give up the office; of his having repeatedly offered his resignation, and of his having been urged to stay both by Mr. McKinley and by President Roosevelt. Certainly, but why was he uneasy? Why did he find the honest administration of the Pension Bureau a source of continual vexation? Everybody knows. The politicians were clamoring for his head. They were accusing him of imperilling elections in Ohio and in various Congressional districts. They were besieging the President to remove him. By their continual coming they at last wearied Mr. Roosevelt into doing what President McKinley would not do. The latter said to the Commissioner, "As long as you are attacked solely for a fearless and impartial enforcement of the law, count upon my support, and stay where you are." President Roosevelt said: "Well, if you must go, I'll see that you get a better-paying office." That

is the whole story. No attempt, at this late day, to break the force of its unpleasant implications can avail with those who know the truth.

Secretary Shaw is entitled to no little credit for the amended regulations in regard to the inspection of passengers' baggage at this and other ports promulgated on Thursday. Unlike Mr. Gage, this Secretary from a Western State was not content to sit down and say that under the existing law nothing could be done to ameliorate the barbarous conditions on the piers of the transatlantic liners. He listened carefully to the statements of all who took the trouble to complain, and found time, even when just familiarizing himself with the duties of his great office, to see for himself exactly how the inspection of personal baggage is conducted. As a result of his observation and study, we have the new rules, which are but the natural result of such an investigation, combined with some common sense. Decency alone dictates the provision that ladies desiring a private examination of their baggage shall be accorded the privilege, wherever possible. If the Treasury Department is able to show its inspectors that Secretary Shaw is not merely writing for effect, there should be an end to the many complaints as to the needless and unjustifiable injury to the contents of trunks. If all inspectors who take tips are to be dismissed, we fear very much that there will be a number of vacancies in the customs service, but Secretary Shaw's warning as to this offence is in the interest of honesty and efficiency.

Most important of all are the rulings that travellers shall not have to pay duty on small purchases, such as articles of adornment, etc., within the hundred-dollar limit, and the extension of the non-resident classification to include all who have been abroad for a year, with a fixed abode, for some specific object. Gratifying and enlightened as all these changes are to those who have unceasingly protested, as we have done, against the uncivilized character of the customs procedure, it must not be forgotten that the iniquitous law itself still remains on the statute-book. Until it is abrogated, this great country will still be in the unique position of harassing its own citizens and imposing restrictions upon foreign travel for the sake of a paltry and ridiculous income. No other country has ever adopted so undignified and unworthy a procedure, and all those who are concerned about the nation's reputation for breadth of view, common sense, and fair dealing with its own citizens, should join in the movement for the repeal of the $100 exemption clause which was inserted in the Dingley law through the efforts of a few interested persons.

We are apparently on the verge of a great coal strike, with the public very much in the dark as to the nature and merits of the controversy between miners and operators. No detailed statement of the demands of the men has been made, though a "wage scale" adopted at Shamokin has been, it is asserted, presented to the operators. What offers, if any, the owners have proposed, outsiders have not the slightest idea. The announcement of the Mine Workers speaks of the desire for "higher wages, shorter hours, and better conditions of employment," but all without specification. It declares, also, that the operators have made no "tangible" concessions. But this, too, may mean much or little. So may the refusal of the employers to refer the dispute to arbitration. If the demands of the miners are within reason, then the companies will suffer from the suspicion which always rests nowadays upon that party to a labor controversy which declines to allow it to be arbitrated. On the other hand, if the pretensions of the Miners' Union amount to a practical summons to the operators to surrender the control of their own business, then we are at once face to face with a question as to which arbitration cannot be invoked. The general ignorance in respect to all these details makes it impossible, as the case now stands, to express an intelligent opinion of the rights and wrongs of the strike.

The decision to remove Andover Theological School to Cambridge means, of course, the practical extinction of an institution which has had nearly a hundred years of life, many of them influential and resounding, the more recent ones, however, a period of gradual and melancholy enfeeblement. Many causes have contributed to the slow decay of this once famous school of the prophets. The argument of locality had come to be against it, though even in Chicago the theological seminary of the Congregational Church has fallen on evil days, as respects the attendance of students. At Andover, the large endowments and fine equipment and able teaching have not availed to attract, in recent years, more than a handful of young men. In addition to the general falling off of interest in theological education, there have been, of course, especial reasons why Andover has declined. Torn by controversies, doctrinal and personal, long suspected by the more stiffly orthodox within the denomination, it has seen its usefulness disappear with its fame. Yet the quenching of that light on "Andover Hill" is an event of far-reaching significance. Massachusetts and New England can hardly seem the same again to men of middle age. That there should be no "Andover theology," no successor to Moses Stuart and Leonard Woods and Edwards A. Park—this will seem to them almost incredible. But inexorable time has brought even this about, "lest one good custom should corrupt the world."

If Lord Salisbury entertained any doubts and fears as to the outcome in South Africa, he would hardly have expressed them at the annual meeting of the Primrose League. The occasion was equally inauspicious for frank confession of past shortcomings. It is very likely, then, that a certain element of patriotic flummery in his address on May 7 was merely for the primrose gallery. But, unfortunately, these vivacities "between friends" are cabled to the ends of the earth, including South Africa, and what may have delighted the Primrose League may well enough grate on foreign susceptibilities. Certainly the declaration that the attitude of the Government towards the Boers remains unchanged is highly impolitic at the present juncture, and can only produce a deplorable impression. It is generally and, we believe, rightly supposed that the Ministry will give the commandos far better terms than were offered after the Bloemfontein-Pretoria campaign. If this be not the attitude of the Ministry, the present peace negotiations in South Africa are clearly farcical. In any event, it was no time to fall back on the old Jingo formulas.

The first political effect of the return to food taxes in England is the loss of a seat to the Government in a bye-election. A Conservative majority of 849 at Bury has been turned into a Liberal majority of 414. It was the corn tax that did it, all accounts agree, as nothing else was talked of in the canvass. Conservative agents, to be sure, tried to raise again that charlatan cry of Chamberlain's, "A seat lost to the Government is a seat gained to the Boers," and the London *Times*, after the event, is solemnly expressing the fear that the Liberal success will so encourage the Boers that they will now refuse to make peace. With an obsession like this it is impossible to reason. Some day or other, Englishmen have got to be allowed to discuss measures of government without having the Boer bogey held up to them as to naughty children. The food tax seems to have been chosen as a good place to begin. It is an old saying in England that a Ministry can make the price of bread what it pleases as long as there is a war. The trouble with Sir Michael's imposts on wheat and flour is that they come when the war is thought to be over. In the political overturn at Bury we see what blows are likely to be dealt the Government when once they cease to be able to identify themselves with the country, and to call for support as a patriotic duty.

THE REAL ENEMIES OF THE ARMY.

Gen. Grenville M. Dodge made an address before the Loyal Legion on Wednesday evening of last week, in protest against what he calls the unjustifiable assaults upon the army on account of the cruelties reported from the Philippines. His logic is not entirely clear to us. His position appears to be (1) that there have been no violations of the laws of war in the Philippines; (2) that, if there have been, they were under extreme provocation; (3) that, anyhow, they are no worse than acts of the soldiers on either side in our civil war; and (4) that court-martialling officers for the use of the "water-cure" torture is "a great wrong." If that reasoning seems a little obscure, so does Gen. Dodge's further inference that "this great hubbub about cruelties" is intended as an attack upon the veterans of the civil war. All this is too much for us, but we can see very clearly that throughout Gen. Dodge's address there runs an honest indignation at what he considers an attempt to "discredit the army." As to that we wish to say a word.

No doubt, the army, like every other human institution, suffers in reputation from the black sheep connected with it. This is inevitably the case when public attention chances to be fixed upon sensational details, given a momentary prominence in the press. Now we have always maintained that cruelty in the treatment of the Filipinos by our troops has been exceptional. Our officers are, as a rule, incapable of it; the rank and file is not made up of men who are naturally brutal. We wish to entertain no illusion about the matter, one way or the other. An army that can do no wrong does not exist—not even in France, though there they sometimes seem to think they have got such an impossible thing. On the other hand, we know that our private soldiers are not, as the Duke of Wellington said the British army was, recruited from "the scum of the earth." With educated officers, jealous for their profession, and with men in the ranks who are now coming largely from the farm, we are confident that we have armed representatives in the field who, in ordinary circumstances and under the usual conditions of warfare, would do themselves and their country credit. They are not perfect. As an English officer said, not even the British regulars in South Africa have been irreproachable in conduct. Among the 40,000 men in the Philippines there are, of course, some ruffians, some ne'er-do-weels, some incompetent officers foisted into the service by politicians; and it is their misdeeds which have brought disgrace upon the army.

We do sincerely sympathize, however, with those soldiers of ours in the Philippines who bitterly complain of what they consider unjust attacks upon them for the manner in which they carry out their orders. In this, we think, they are unanswerable. What they say is practically this: "You sent us over here. You ordered us to disperse the armed Filipinos, and we have done it. Then you tell us to crush out all opposition to our rule; to attack these people in their hamlets and fields; to march from end to end of the islands, and, wherever we find sullen disaffection or inextinguishable hatred, to strike at it; to unearth plots and punish secret treason; to make the Filipinos not merely surrender their arms, but submit their wills. Now, how can we do this without severity? How can we pursue a handful of men through swamp and jungle, with our brains on fire under this tropical heat, and be expected to observe all the nice proprieties of the tented field? You give us a devil's work to do, and then complain if we do not behave like saints. We are but carrying out your instructions, and if they are bloody, the fault is yours, not ours."

There is, we maintain, a great deal of natural justice in this retort of the army. But let us see to just whom it should be addressed. Not to Anti-Imperialists. They did not order the subjugation of the Filipinos. They would not have had our men go to the ends of the earth to do repugnant work—for we know that many of our officers feel it in their very souls to be repulsive and abhorrent—under conditions which make the maintenance of discipline extremely difficult, if not impossible, and which directly tend to arouse and let spring every tiger-passion lurking in the heart of the enlisted men. No, it is the whole policy that is being enforced which is at fault, and which has brought the army set to execute it into disrepute. There is much force in the protests of the inculpated officers against the courts-martial ordered by President Roosevelt. Were they not doing the very work he commanded? Had he not given stringent orders to crush out the last semblance of insurrection? Had he not congratulated Gen. Bell on the success of his severe measures in Batangas? Then why not attribute the technical violations of the laws of war to an excess of zeal? This is not a military defence; but it is, we admit, something very like a moral defence—that is, as against those who condemn cruelty but persist in a cruel policy.

The real enemies of the American army are those who lay upon it a revolting task. It is upon the Government which orders troops to make a desolation and call it peace that the guilt of the incidental barbarities rests. And it is shared by the people behind the Government—the press and the churches and the universities—who do not protest against a mistaken policy, in the stupid clinging to which we have the real cause of all these woes. We admit that the horrors were never intended by any party, any President. But we have, with the best intentions, stumbled into them. Mr. McKinley was smilingly certain, as Andrew Carnegie has just assured us, that the idea of our ever having to fight the Filipinos was preposterous—they would "welcome us as their best friends." Yet from that hour of first mistake until now, the progress in wrong and severity has been continuous and fated. Executive orders from Washington have changed our army of emancipators into men under orders to make a barren waste.

It is the policy, not the army, that is at fault. The real authors of the dishonor of the army are the men who send it on dishonoring campaigns. The skirts of those are clear who withstood the whole error from the beginning, and who make their own to-day the language of Burke. He had, in his day, to meet the assertion that the dignity of the British nation would not allow it to withdraw from a false position. "Every hour you continue on this ill-chosen ground," he exclaimed, "your difficulties thicken on you; and, therefore, my conclusion is, remove from a bad position as quickly as you can. The disgrace and the necessity of yielding, both of them, grow upon you every hour of your delay."

THE SHIPPING DEAL.

As there was reason to expect, with so complicated an international "deal," the terms of the Shipping Combination are in many respects both novel and extremely interesting. By no means the least significant part of the arrangement is the contract with British shipbuilders. It will be remembered that apprehension was expressed by the English newspapers, when the Shipping Trust was first announced, as to what would be its effect on England's shipbuilding industry. Would the contracts of such lines as the White Star and the Dominion go, at some future period, to American shipyards? Would American interests, having so rich a prize within their grasp, allow Europe indefinitely to retain any part of it? What such a transfer, on an extensive scale, would mean to British trade may be judged from the fact that, while the whole world's construction of merchant ships in 1901 is estimated at Lloyd's as 2,617,000 tons, the British yards alone turned out 1,524,000. That is to say, nearly 60 per cent. of the world's construction came from the hands of English builders and mechanics.

The reported arrangements of the Ship Trust on this point can hardly, we should say, allay all misgivings among Englishmen. The "builders' agreement," as summarized by cable, guarantees to Harland & Wolff of Belfast all of the combination's orders for such new ships and heavy repairs as must be done in

British ship-yards. In return for this rather striking concession to a single building firm, the builders give the Trust a prior right to their facilities, agreeing to accept no outside contracts while the Trust is keeping their ship-yards busy. This will, however, strike the average observer as a rather one-sided understanding, especially as no formal agreement seems to have been made as to how much work Harland & Wolff shall be allowed. It is expressly stipulated that the agreement with these British builders shall not prevent the Trust from placing orders for new steamers and repairs at American ship-yards.

So far as the summary is any guide, the effect of the arrangement seems to be that the Ship Trust does not pledge itself to give to British builders any work beyond necessary repairs, but what it does give is to go to one firm only. On the exclusive contract there has been some angry criticism in the London papers. We shall await with no little curiosity the further comments of British builders and of the English press, which does not yet appear to us to have grasped the situation. It is, of course, well known that Harland & Wolff have hitherto done most of the work for the lines included in the sale as now announced. It is also true that, under present American law and practice, the Trust may choose to place its new vessels under British registry, and hence would go to British ship-yards. But if the Shipping Combination is looking to the distant future, with the progress of the American steel trade in efficiency and economy being what it is, then we should say that the building contract would provide some unpleasant matter for the reflection of Englishmen.

We have commented particularly on this phase of the announcement, not only because it is a new development, but because it seems to us fraught with important consequences. It is possible that, in some respects, later advices may throw further light on this part of the arrangement. As regards the purely financial side of the contract as reported, the essential fact developed is that very large sums of money had to be pledged to close the "deal." One-fourth of the price agreed on for the White Star purchase is to be paid in cash; in addition to which it is stated that $27,580,000 cash is to be paid over to the American, Atlantic Transport, Leyland, and Dominion vendors. This arrangement, though not unexpected, has this interest, that it marks one line of variation from the Steel incorporation. That operation was a merger, pure and simple, in which the shares of the companies absorbed were merely exchanged, at a determined ratio, for the shares of the main concern.

The cabled details also confirm the statements of the "bonus" to the underwriting syndicate, regarding which London has hitherto shown so great incredulity. For its services in floating $50,000,000 bonds, this syndicate is to receive $2,500,000 in preferred and $25,000,000 common stock. The bonds are, however, supposed to have been already practically floated without the syndicate's intervention. We observe with some surprise that the $60,000,000 preference stock is to bear cumulative dividends. Considering the recent turn of discussion in the Steel Corporation's financiering, this strikes us as a matter for criticism. It has been intimated, in many well-informed quarters, that one strong motive in the partial conversion of the Steel preferred stock is the wish to get rid of share issues whose accruing dividends, in a series of possible lean years, must, if not paid, heap up as contingent liabilities against the future. If the Steel Corporation is endeavoring to correct original mistakes by its present draft on the credit of the corporation, how are we to regard the appearance of the same provision in the capital of the Shipping Trust?

Mr. Carnegie's opinion that "there is no question of patriotism" in the Shipping Combine, and that it is "purely a matter of money-making," undoubtedly sums up the case correctly. If Mr. Morgan's move had really been inspired by a notion that concentrated American capital could snatch away Britain's control of the Atlantic, then, we should say, the willingness of the English shipowners to coöperate in the plan would need explanation. The truth is that these gentlemen, as Mr. Carnegie intimates, had a motive quite apart from national considerations. What the situation of the ocean freight trade was, last year, is pretty generally known. The 'Annual Shipping Review' of Mr. John White of London, an authority in the trade, lately remarked of 1901 that, beginning with a decline of 30 per cent. in coal freights, the entire list of ocean rates had fallen throughout the year. Several American liners and some cargo boats were put out of commission; scores of vessels made half of the transatlantic trip virtually in ballast. The recent cut in the Cunard Company's yearly dividend from 8 to 4 per cent., and of the German Lloyd's from 8½ to 6, showed how the shoe was pinching. The review from which we have quoted advanced on its own account, last January, the suggestion that "a little of the spirit of combination" already applied in other industries might be extended with advantage to the ship-owners. By the same authority was made the rather startling estimate that 2,000,000 tons of shipping, or as much as the whole steam tonnage of Germany, is now engaged exclusively in ocean transport service for the Boer campaign. The war ended and the troops brought home, all these ships, of course, reënter the competitive merchant service.

All this shows very plainly why the owners of English lines were willing and possibly anxious to sell to Mr. Morgan's syndicate, when they received an inviting offer. But it does not seem to us that it throws much light on the future. Clearly, the difficulty of the trade has been overproduction of ships. Vessels newly constructed in 1901, in the face of diminishing profits, were estimated by Lloyd's Register at 2,617,000 tons, an increase of 1,200,000 tons over even 1897, and of 300,000 over even 1899. These figures cover the whole world's production; England's output alone was 1,524,000 tons last year, as against only 952,000 in 1897. In view of such comparisons, and with the African transport tonnage overhanging the market, it would ordinarily be supposed that the first act of the "Combine" would be to stop all new construction. But it cannot stop construction for outside owners; in fact, the very checking of orders from the White Star, American, and Cunard Lines would be apt to make building cheaper for competitors. The same perplexity will exist with regard to rates. As the London *Economist* remarks, the combination, with its enormous burden of capital, must work to raise ratner than lower ocean freight rates. But if it raises them arbitrarily, it opens precisely so much further the inducement to competitors. And there is no acquired "right of way" on the Atlantic. The problem is obviously new in several of its aspects.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE NEGRO.

The recent meeting of the Southern Educational Conference at Athens, Ga., has given rise to much valuable discussion of the various phases of education in the South. If the Conference, as was to have been expected, had no new theories to advance, it has none the less rendered extremely valuable service in more ways than one, and particularly in laying stress upon the necessities of the public schools, white and black. Perhaps the most important of these needs is that of good teachers. The General Education Board recognized this by giving $19,500 to the State Normal and Industrial School for whites at Athens, which is, beyond all else, a teachers' fitting school, and the Board may be counted upon to assist similar institutions for the development of colored teachers. The mere prospect of similar gifts has served to revive the old discussion as to the value of the various kinds of institutions which are now training the colored youth of the South, and particularly the teachers of the future.

As to the worth of Hampton and Tuskegee there can be no doubt. The great opportunity of the negroes of the South lies in the tilling of the land. Upon this all are agreed who have gone

beneath the surface of the South's greatest problem. Tuskegee is expending its strength, above all else, upon the agricultural side of its curriculum, and next upon those industries which are most closely related to farm and rural life. Conversation with its students will show, we believe, that the majority have no other teaching in view than that given by every man or woman who leads an honest and industrious life. That many finally become teachers by profession does not detract from the fact that Tuskegee's primary aim is the development of men and women who can earn a good living in manual pursuits. Hampton, on the other hand, keeps always in view the training of teachers. Its course stops about two years short of the average Northern high school, and nearly one-third of the time is given to manual work or domestic training. Latin, French, and German are not included in the studies offered by the institution. Like Tuskegee, it turns out carpenters, blacksmiths, masons, engineers, and mechanics. When graduated, its scholars are prepared either to become useful industrial workers or very satisfactory teachers of the ordinary colored schools of the South.

With Atlanta, Howard, Fisk, and other universities the case is different. These institutions aim to supply an education such as is to be obtained at the well-known colleges of the North. Fisk, for instance, has its theological school, profits by a neighboring, if independent, medical school, and gives its pupils something of Latin and Greek, German, French, and Hebrew, the sciences, political economy, ethics, logic, psychology, music, the higher mathematics, etc. For offering such a course, it and similar institutions are frequently severely criticised, both North and South. Their case is further complicated by the fact that their teaching methods have not always been beyond criticism. Furthermore, there exist a number of so-called colleges, frequently of a denominational nature, which confer annually a large number of degrees that are wholly without value, and therefore misleading. The successful bachelors of arts from some of these institutions would have to study at least three years in order to pass the Harvard or Yale entrance examinations.

Overlooking the educational shortcomings of the bona-fide colleges, and making every allowance for the crying need of the hour—industrial training—it would seem as if there were to-day a genuine place in the South for two or three institutions for the higher education of the negro. No one can deny that the colored race is producing more and more men and women capable of being highly trained and of using well their learning. From the graduates of Fisk and its fellow institutions are drawn each year teachers and leaders. Tuskegee itself is indebted to the so-called colored universities for a considerable percentage of its instructors. Of Fisk's 371 living graduates, 8 are college professors, 75 are teachers in normal schools, and 154 teachers or principals of grammar schools. Of the others, 13 are in business, 20 are ministers, 9 lawyers, 17 doctors, 16 students in professional schools, and 9 are in the employ of the Government. Of the remainder only a few are unaccounted for, or are classified under the heading "living at home"—a creditable enough record.

Upon this question President Eliot's opinion is of as much value as it is on everything pertaining to education, and he has expressed his views in no uncertain language. In a speech at Boston in 1896 he declared that

> "If any expect that the negro teachers of the South can be adequately educated in primary schools or grammar schools or industrial schools, pure and simple, I can only say in reply that that is more than we can do at the North with the white race. The only way to have good primary schools and grammar schools in Massachusetts is to have high and normal schools and colleges, in which the higher teachers are trained. It must be so throughout the South; the negro race needs absolutely these higher facilities of education."

But the function of the colored college is not merely to influence those who actually enter its doors. As is the case with our Northern colleges, it exerts an uplifting influence upon the community in which it is situated, and this influence is not to be measured by the actual achievements of institutions as yet in the early stages of their development. Nor would the establishment of travelling scholarships entitling the holders to study at Harvard or Yale or other institutions of the North and West meet the needs of the situation. As is the case in our Northern white communities, and, in fact, the world over, a school for the teaching of the highest branches of human learning is the inseparable adjunct, as it is the apex, of any proper educational system. Who can measure the influence of Harvard and Yale upon the schools of all grades in the territory surrounding them?

Since the need for negro colleges would thus appear to be patent, the friends of colored education and the educated negroes themselves should bestir themselves to the end that in place of the many half-baked institutions two or three of sound growth may stand forth as the proper fitting schools for the men and women of promise. A college that is not even a proper preparatory school, like the high school which masquerades as a university, does inestimable injury to the cause of negro education. So, too, the long-established college which fails to use all its valuable apparatus or to employ its teaching force for the best purposes, and which lacks the true college spirit and ideals, causes many a good friend of negro education to forget that industrial training is not the only need of the hour.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC STRENGTHENED.

The second balloting in the French arrondissements, which took place on Sunday, resulted, as was anticipated, in further gains for the Government. The two weeks' interval between the elections and the reballoting is the occasion for the application of all the political arts, and naturally the Ministry has the advantage of the bargaining. Accordingly, it is no surprise to hear that the Government has carried 128 out of the 168 districts for which returns have come in. Until the complete analysis of the voting is received, it is impossible to estimate the real strength of the composite majority which M. Waldeck-Rousseau brings back to the Palais Bourbon. This much is certain, that he has increased his normal majority of about eighty to considerably more than one hundred.

This means, first, that the Nationalists have not been able to persuade the country that M. Waldeck-Rousseau is the enemy of the army, and so of France; and, second, that the doctrinaire Progressists, who follow M. Méline, have failed to alarm the average voter on the subject of the Socialist alliance. From two very bitter attacks the Government issues unscathed. Regarded exclusively from the parliamentary point of view, the voting means that the support of the Socialists—whether "reds" or "yellows"—is no longer indispensable to the life of the Ministry, though it is hardly likely that the Premier will turn from the allies who have made his great success possible.

Persistent rumors that M. Waldeck-Rousseau will resign, and turn over the honors of the victory to another, fortunately lack confirmation. France could ill afford to lose her greatest Premier since Gambetta. In a most stormy period he has consistently exemplified a kind of high opportunism, the command of which is the supreme test of statesmanship. He found the country irritated to the last degree by imagined attacks upon the army, and the army in the hands of scoundrels of the Mercier type, whom no one dared displace. His appointment of Gallifet, the hero of the forlorn hope at Sedan, as War Minister silenced criticism and made the purging of the general staff seem the most natural thing in the world. Similarly, when he found that the Socialist alliance was a political necessity, he frankly accepted its conditions, and chose M. Millerand to be his Minister of Commerce—a Socialist, to be sure, but a man so moderate, so sagacious, so regardful of the conditions of great reforms, that his most sincere opponents have had little to criticise in

his conduct in office. Again, M. Delcassé in the Foreign Office displayed a decision and dash, both in the Turkish affair and in the *rapprochement* with Italy, which gave the lie to those who declared the Ministry was unpatriotic; while M. Paul Deschanel brought to the Presidency of the Chamber rare qualities of eloquence, and did much to raise debate above the level of routine or stark abuse to that of genuine political oratory. To sum up, M. Waldeck-Rousseau has trusted less to theoretical political consistency, or to ingenious compromise, than to the integrity and ability of the men of many minds who make up his Cabinet. This has given to his Administration a personal stamp and distinction which recalls the early days of the present republic—the Thierses, Ferrys, and Gambettas. Whether a successor could organize and control such a Cabinet is very doubtful, and this leads to the sincerest hope that M. Waldeck-Rousseau will remain and enjoy the fruits of the victory which he has so handsomely won.

Of course, the great political achievement of his administration was the taming of the Socialists. He found them a revolutionary party, but, through M. Millerand's teaching and example, soon detached from them a parliamentary group; and now, if the incomplete returns may be trusted, these moderate Socialists are going over to the historic Radical party. This tends to avert a social peril which the great strikes of the past year have emphasized, and certainly gives the remaining Socialists an undiminished hope of concrete legislative reform.

Historically, the Waldeck-Rousseau Government will be remembered as that which saw the complete downfall of the various monarchical and anti-Republican factions. A very short time ago the Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists at least had the prestige that attaches to aristocratic movements, and something of the glamour which invests impossible loyalties. To-day all that fading glory has for ever departed. The Monarchists of all degrees have let themselves be drawn in with a ruck of those who merely hate the Jew, or look for a vague man on horseback, or detest the established order because it is the established order. This crazy mixture of the Faubourgs Saint-Germain, Montmartre, and Saint-Antoine was essentially Parisian. The sober good sense of the provinces has rejected it absolutely, and the Nationalists in Paris itself, where they still have a large majority, only await for their political dissolution the hour, not long to be deferred, when they shall appear ridiculous to all men.

It would be a far easier task for a new Premier to rule France than it has been for M. Waldeck-Rousseau, but it is to be hoped that he will profit by the era of good feeling which he has brought out of the bitterness of the *affaire*. The opposition parties, so the Paris correspondent of the London *Times* relates, are so satisfied with the minor successes of a variegated campaign as almost to forget their beating. This is a rare condition in French politics, a condition which no one else is so likely to perpetuate as M. Waldeck-Rousseau. France needs him, for he has the knack of seeing beyond expediencies to policies, having what Talleyrand regarded as the final accomplishment of a statesman—a sense for the future—*L'avenir dans l'esprit.*

GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI.

FLORENCE, April 16, 1902.

The most precious New Year's gift received in January was the one-volume edition of the poetry of Giosuè Carducci, printed and issued by his usual publisher, Zanichelli of Bologna, after careful revision of every page by the poet himself. Though long practice has rendered it easy to find each favorite poem scattered through the numerous editions that have appeared, from the tiny volume of 1857 to the last of the series of Complete Works, published between 1880 and 1902, it is a thing of untold delight, and will remain a "joy for ever," to have all the poems together in a light and elegant volume arranged in chronological order from 1850 to 1900, with an alphabetical list of titles, and the notes at the end of each series.

The poems are divided into four series, as they were published in the latest of the former editions. In the very earliest, the *Juvenilia* comprised only those written between 1850-57, when Giosuè, from his fifteenth to his twenty-first year, was, as he tells us, the "armor-bearer of the classics," when he sought in Horace and Virgil the secret of Italy's grandeur, and hoped from their teachings to reawaken her to desire at least her moral and literary regeneration. Later he added to this "juvenile collection" all the patriotic poems inspired by the joy of feeling Italy in action; and recognized in her heroes, Victor Emanuel, Garibaldi, and the rank and file of their followers, worthy descendants of the martyrs and heroes of antiquity. 1860 closes this period with the "Ode to Sicily and the Revolution." Here at the end are the four lines in which he then, as he thought, bade adieu to poetry:

> "Io di poveri fior ghirlanda sono,
> Ed Enotrio a le dee m'appese in dono;
> Qui l'arte deponendo e il van desio,
> Altri chieda la gloria, ed io l'oblio."

After the liberation of Naples and the close of the revolutionary era, the Kingdom of Italy appeared to him the "kingdom of ugliness, the glorification of mediocrity." He still tried to guide his "ideality along the Via Sacra. But it was useless. The poor beast went lame, brayed and kicked and tried to bite, went zigzag—getting scratched in the hedges—to feed on thistles," so he "left it to its caprices and the wiser beasts to their triumphs," and withdrew to the solitude of his own thoughts, resolved to lay aside all poetical ambition and to devote all the energies of his intellect to literary history and philology. "It would have been better," he says, "if I had kept to my resolution and left poetry alone." But his studies brought to light a fact which at once surprised and consoled him. He found that his own repugnance to the literary and philosophical reaction of 1815 (against "classicism, the old pagan libertine," which Manzoni was supposed to have demolished), really harmonized with that of many illustrious thinkers and writers. "Thus my first instinctive sentiment of opposition became a confirmed belief, conception, reason, affirmation. The hymn to Phoebus Apollo became the hymn to Satan." He did not seek poetry, but let poetry come to him—

> "Il mio canto miglior sempre è quel desso
> Qual non fece mai";

and his best song is ever the unwritten one. So "Levia Gravia" (1861-1871) came "from his mind matured in understanding and sentiment." These poems are divided into four books, the first and third containing each twenty-five sonnets; the second and fourth each twelve, besides lyrical compositions on various subjects. As a preface, the poet addresses his muse in a poetical epistle. "In these times, when art has become cyclopic, who will give you—nurtured on the crumbs of Horace—an asylum? This is not weather to go a-gadding in. Ill luck will befall you; follow my advice—Go back home; avoid contests." And here he tells his book the names of all the enemies awaiting it, because the "loves it treats of are those of other days, which do not sanctify lust; do not deck Venus with a rosary; nor commit adultery while preaching sermons." Then we have portraits, drawn from nature, of Tuscans and Italians of the period, the Naldos and Poldinos, renegades in politics and religion, "who exchange the red cap of liberty for one fashioned on the model set by the prefect."

Critics there arose, stupid and sapient, honest and envious, but all competent judges in Italy repeated, "Unto us a poet is born." "Juvenilia" occupies 265 pages, "Levia Gravia" 100. "Satan" stands apart in his glory. Then come the "Giambi ed Epodi," in which some of the poems written between 1867 and 1871 are inserted. The prologue is sad, but not morbid, and the poet keeps his promise to flagellate all the false idols that the world adores. The form is classic, but how modern the subject-matter! The odes to Edward Corazzini, who died of wounds received at Mentana, "To Bologna, on the 20th anniversary of the famous defence of August 8, 1848," to Giuseppe Monti and Gaetano Tognetti, did more to hasten the popular clamor for the destruction of the temporal power than any agent save the fact of Mentana itself and the brutal orgies of French and Papal assassins. Terrible the satire of "The Song of Italy going to the Capitol." The sonnet to Mazzini is a statue in bronze. The lines written when Mazzini dies are bitter with the bitterness of the mourner who believes that "death only is eternal," with no hope of after life. These "Giambi ed Epodi" run from 1867 to 1879. An intermezzo divides these from the "Rime Nuove," among which are some of the most perfect of the sonnets, for example, "Ora e sempre," "The Ode to Victor Hugo," and the immortal "Ça ira." Then come the first and second books of the "Odi Barbare," of which it would be a profanation to speak in haste. A few translations come next, then "Rime e

Ritmi," at the end of which is the "Congedo," not written, as the reviewers seem to think, last December, when such an adieu would have had a sad significance, but published in 1898, when the poet's health was robust, and only a passing melancholy could then have dictated the sadly sweet *Rispetti:*

"Fior tricolore,
Tramontano le stelle in mezzo al mare,
E si spengono i canti entro il mio cuore!"

The book closes with the "Parliament," part first of the "Canzone di Legnano," commenced in 1879, and left unfinished still. Three hundred and sixty-five poems in all; yet they reflect half a century of artistic, poetical, literary, political, and social life, lived through and watched and portrayed by one of the noblest, most gifted patriots of the age that moulded into fact the dream of ages, a poet and a teacher who has ever sought "beneath the strata overlaid by time" for the good, the true, the beautiful, the *real.*

This volume of poetry is not the only gift from the Master in 1902. After four years' interruption the eleventh volume of the Complete Works (which are to consist of twenty) has arrived. It contains the third and last collection of "Ceneri e Faville," which the author calls poor trash (*misere bucchiche*), a title that few will confirm. The first of these "Ashes and Sparks," published in 1891, contains some interesting reviews written to order for the *Nation*, the arch-moderate newspaper of Florence in and after 1861. The second collection contains the fugitive prose pieces scattered between 1871 and 1876, and commences with the exquisite commemoration of the volunteers of the Vosges, "A Year after the Three Days of Dijon." In this newest and third collection, there are counsels and sentences worthy to be taken to heart by the youth of Italy to-day. Carducci's speech in the Senate on Candia and Greece is perhaps the gem of the eleventh volume, which is to be followed at once by the twelfth, more "Battles and Confessions," and the thirteenth, on Parini.

For the last three years, notwithstanding his arduous duties as Professor of Literature in the Woman's College of Florence, where examinations are held and diplomas are conferred, Carducci's beloved disciple and devoted friend Severino Ferrari, going to and fro between that city and Bologna, assisted his master regularly in the University lectures, the whole of which are often too much for his strength. "If I could have Severino and insure the unity and security of my library and manuscripts," he said to an intimate friend last year, "no other worldly concerns would worry me." The first desire was gratified by Professor Nasi, the present Minister of Public Instruction, who appointed Ferrari Professor of Style in the University of Bologna, where he will still continue to help his master with his literary classes. And as soon as the dowager Queen Margaret heard of his anxiety about the valuable library which, with much tribulation, especially in his boyhood and youth, Carducci has collected, she came forward at once offering to purchase it, leaving it for the poet's use during his lifetime, then to the city of Bologna, which we trust may long await the heritage. Queen Margaret, the most cultured woman in Europe now that Victoria, Empress of Germany, is no more, gracefully performed the act she was fitted and worthy to conceive. She is now the proud possessor of that magnificent library—of the Foscolo which the poet carried to his mother, mounting the stairs on his knees; of his first copies of Horace, Virgil, Dante, Petrarch, Alfieri, and the Berchet which he learned by heart at that mother's knee; of all the books that have nurtured the poet, the prose writer, the Master of Italian youth beloved; of his university lectures, his manuscripts, many yet unpublished.

The contract was signed yesterday in the bright, spacious studio looking across the plains to the Bologna hills where, with his books, the poet chiefly dwells, save when he escapes to drink in a breath of Tuscan air and alights in Florence, as he did last Easter Monday, delighting our hearts, which tremble between the last vision and the next one hoped for. Count Malvezzi for Queen Margaret, Count Dall' Olio, the Mayor of Bologna, for Carducci, the notary and the faithful Zanichelli for chief witness, gathered there. The partner of his joys and sorrows, Elvira, the mother of his dead Dante, was present, as he chose she should be, and with her the widow "Bice" and her four children, for whose fatherless sake the grandfather could not *give* his one chief possession to the city which he loves. One of these, the second Elvira, will next year go in for the degree with honors at the University. "Laura," too, was there, with her one girl and boy, Giosuè. And in their presence the poet signed the contract ceding to the dowager Queen the whole of his literary possessions (save, of course, the copyright of his works) for 40,000 lire, the sum already deposited insuring 2,000 lire per annum during his lifetime. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

A CHANCE FOR "EQUITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Why is "Equity" silent? Is not the time opportune for another comparison of the barbarous system of the British in warfare with the humane methods of Americans?

He might well contrast the savage ferocity of Lord Kitchener, as shown by his inhuman instructions to demolish the tomb of the Mahdi, with the beneficent order issued by Gen. Smith to mercifully dispose of all the inhabitants of Samar who are too old to learn American principles of justice and humanity. Or he might compare the "horrors" of the South African refugee camps, as disclosed by Miss Hobhouse, where, by the guilty negligence of English officers, female donkeys destined to afford sustenance to Boer babies were allowed to stray away and the unfortunate infants compelled to drag out a miserable existence on common cow's milk, with the Batangas method, by which one-third of the population are provided for so effectually as no longer to need milk of any kind, and the rest plentifully provided with *water.*

He should by no means neglect the opportunity.—Respectfully,

Arthur Johnston.

Santa Ana, Cal., May 3, 1902.

A FRIENDLY MONITOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should be greatly obliged if any of your readers could tell me where I might gain access to a pamphlet entitled 'A Friendly Monitor,' published in Philadelphia in December, 1819, and republished in September, 1822. It was written presumably by William Jones, President of the Second Bank of the United States. I am trying to write a history of that institution, and should like to use this pamphlet in that connection, but have been unable to find it.—Yours truly,

Ralph C. H. Catterall.

University of Chicago, May 3, 1902.

BREWSTER AUTOGRAPH IN WISCONSIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Interest in autographs is of decidedly modern growth. The word "autograph" in the sense of signature has been detected in English by the multitudinous readers for the Oxford Dictionary in no author earlier than the elder Disraeli. Thus the specific use of the vocable began less than a decade before the year 1800. When regard for the Pilgrims took an autographic turn, the signature of William Brewster was at once brought to light on a deed in the Record Office at Plymouth. There was, however, unexpected difficulty in unearthing a duplicate, so that, after much search and research, the writing in the Old Colony archives came to be considered the unique autograph of Elder William Brewster, whose house was the first cradle of the first church of the Pilgrims (Bradford, p. 490).

Notwithstanding, about 1857 some one in Yale College Library, opening Cartwright's 'Harmonia Evangelica,' which had long slept soundly there in its own sheets, read on the title-page *Will'm Brewster*, and on the left of the name the phrase, *Hebel est omnis Adam*, which, though the late Mr. Justin Winsor did not know it, is found word for word in the fifth verse of the Thirty-ninth Psalm. The phrase is considered by Gesenius an independent clause, and translated "A breath is every man." More literally, "All man all breath."

A third autograph with the same motto was soon afterward exhumed at the Boston Athenæum in a Greek folio of Chrysostom (Basle, 1522). This book is further inscribed "Ex bibliotheca avi mei, July 1644. Thomas Prince [a son of Brewster's daughter]." A fourth autograph next rewarded the Rev. Dr. Dexter, who ferreted out *Will'm Brewster*, but not the Latinized motto, in a 'Treatise on the Ministery [*sic*] of the Church of England, 1595 [no mention of place], by Francis Johnson, Pastor of the English Church in Amsterdam.' This book seems to have been bought before the Elder had adopted his book motto.

This quartet was supposed by Winsor, in his 'Narrative and Critical History' (vol. iii, p. 287), published in the middle of the eighties, to include all autographs extant. Yet two more Brewster signs manual were in reserve for him. One autograph with motto had been long lurking close by him in a neighbor's house at

Cambridge. The name and motto gave him a glad surprise in 1887. They were written in the commentary of 'Paraeus in Genesin Mosis, Frankfurt, 1615.' The other it was his fortune to read, both name and motto, on a folio translation of 'Seneca's Morals' by Thomas Lodge (London, 1614), owned by Mr. McClellan in Woodstock, Conn.

These six were the only Brewster autographs described by Mr. Winsor in his monograph of 1887 in the Massachusetts Historical Society's Proceedings. So far as can be ascertained, they formed the total of discovery after a century of search, until a seventh appeared in April, 1902, some fifteen years after the last windfall.

Miss Elizabeth Goffe Ticknor, now a student in the University of Wisconsin, then brought to her professor of history, Frederick J. Turner, an old book, which had long been an heirloom in her home, which is with her mother and grandmother in Madison. Her volume is a relic of the self-same Francis Johnson who wrote the work, the delight of Dr. Dexter's old age, discovered by himself, as before stated, with the fourth-found Brewster autograph—and the first one that had not been entombed in a public institution. This Wisconsin treasure-trove shows on its title-page *Will'm Brewster* and *Hebel est omnis Adam* with not one letter in either of them obscured. The book itself, however, with no covers, the last four leaves in tatters, and all pages after 320 wanting altogether, recalls Shakspere's unregarded age in corners thrown. The gist of the title-page, where the words are 220, is as follows: 'A Christian Plea,' in capitals. By way of subtitle, its three treatises are: (1) "Touching Anabaptists," etc., pp. 1-210; (2) "Touching Arminians," etc., pp. 210-244; (3) "Touching the Reformed church with whom myself agree," etc., pp. 244-320+. "Made by Francis Johnson, Pastour of the ancient English church now sojourning at Amsterdam in the Low Countries." The next line shows six golden words which glorify the whole volume, "Hebel est omnis Adam, Will'm Brewster. Printed In the yeere of our Lord 1617 [no indication of place]."

Here was the first discovery of the desiderated name in a second book by the same author. A copy of this work stands in the British Museum, marked in the catalogue *Brownist*, 696, b23, 1. His earliest publication is dated as 1600 in Allibone, but his book in Dr. Dexter's library bears the date 1595. He was in Middleburg 1593-99.

The chain of title to several of the Brewster volumes with his autograph is quite complete. No such evidence of either genuineness or authenticity is needed in respect to the present seventh autograph—nor can it be furnished. Still, the antecedents of the new-found rarity, so far as known, deserve record. Mrs. Olive Ticknor, residing in Madison, was the legal owner of the volume containing the seventh autograph until April 15, 1902, when she allowed it to be stamped "State Historical Society of Wisconsin, No. 117, 590." Born in 1819, her maiden name was Olive Kendall. Her father, Thomas Kendall (born 1786, died 1831), was the son of the Rev. Thomas Kendall, who was born in 1745, in Hopkinton, Mass., died 1836 (Daniells's 'Oxford,' p. 564). Mrs. Ticknor, who was seventeen years old at her grandfather's death and living in the same house with him, believes the volume to have been then long in his possession. Further genealogical research may shed light on the steps of its transmission, after many a halt and hazard, to a permanent home, where dangers of loss or perishing are reduced to a minimum. Three of the six autographs before known—those at Yale, Plymouth, and the Boston Athenæum—may be equally secure, but the other three, so long as they remain in private hands, cannot be. Four of the six were found in Massachusetts, two in Connecticut. It will for ever be a joy to Wisconsin that in her capital was found the first Brewster autograph outside of New England.

J. D. B.

Madison, Wis., April 21, 1902.

GERMAN ATTENTION TO AMERICAN UNIVERSITY WORK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The managers of the *Deutsche Litteraturzeitung*, recognizing the ever-increasing value of the work of American universities, are desirous of keeping their German readers informed as to this work. With that object in view, they now make a request that news of the universities and notices of important publications be sent to them. In order to spare trouble to those thus favoring them, they have arranged with the undersigned to attend to the forwarding of all such notes and reviews. Any one wishing to publish a review of a book in the *Litteraturzeitung* will kindly communicate with the undersigned. Any one desiring a book reviewed by the management of the journal will please mail it directly to the editor-in-chief, Prof. Dr. T. Hinneberg, Berlin W. 64, Behrenstrasse 5.

It is hoped that this new departure, in addition to proving of unquestioned interest to Germans, may serve to introduce the work of Americans to a wider and more appreciative circle of readers than, perhaps, has been enjoyed heretofore.

Albert Haas.

Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa.

Notes.

The widow of the late E. J. W. Gibb, author, as our readers are aware, of a notable 'History of Ottoman Poetry,' has gathered together a number of his pieces under the title of 'Verses and Translations,' and they will be published for private circulation by Frederick W. Wilson & Co., No. 57 Hope Street, Glasgow, Scotland. The translations are from the French, German, and Turkish.

From Doubleday, Page & Co. are forthcoming a posthumous work of Sidney Lanier's, 'Shakspere and his Forerunners: Studies in Elizabethan Poetry and its Development from Early English'; 'Spiritual Heroes,' by David Saville Muzzey; 'The Rebuilding of Old Commonwealths,' by Walter H. Page; 'Among the Water-Fowl,' by Herbert K. Job; and 'American Food and Game Fishes,' by David Starr Jordan and Barton W. Evermann.

'The Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey,' by Mrs. A. Murray Smith, daughter of the Dean of Westminster, which Macmillan is to bring out, is complementary to Dean Stanley's well-known monograph on that building.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue at once 'General Principles of Physical Science,' by Prof. Arthur A. Noyes of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The Nassau Press, New York, announces for speedy publication '"Selling the Bear's Hide," and Other Tales,' by Charles Stewart Davison, and 'Gamelands of Maine,' by George N. Van Dyke.

John Lane will publish immediately 'Persian Children of the Royal Family: Being the Narrative of an English Tutor at the Court of H. I. H. Zillú's-Sultán,' by Wilfrid Sparroy.

A veteran among reprints is Siborne's 'Waterloo Campaign,' which dates from 1844 and is now brought out anew in a fifth edition (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The fourth edition was considerably abridged by Mr. Edward Arber in respect to the appendix and the notes, and apparently the present is a simple reissue of the fourth. The omissions will not detract from the interest of the narrative for the general reader, and Captain Siborne's old-fashioned rhetoric will perhaps heighten the enjoyment. All his prefaces are preserved. The maps are brought within the compass of a page. There are portraits of the chief actors in the campaign; but alas, there is no index.

The appearance of a new and enlarged edition of the third volume of Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy' (Appletons) synchronizes with the last hours of Admiral Sampson. The relation of this volume to the Schley court of inquiry prepares us for a review of that court's proceeding in the new part (appendix vii.), which closes with President Roosevelt's reply to Admiral Schley's appeal. Secretary Long's letter to President McKinley on the Navy Department's "persecution" of Schley will be found in appendix iii.

Dr. Francis H. Williams's authoritative work on 'The Roentgen Rays in Medicine and Surgery,' recently reviewed by us, has had a success surprising to himself and gratifying to his publishers (Macmillan). In three months the first edition was exhausted, and public demand had to be satisfied almost improvisedly, yet nearly fifty pages have been added, and give further details of apparatus and treatment.

For the second time in fifteen years, Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin revises his 'Elements of Political Economy' (American Book Co.), a text-book whose continued use is certainly matter of congratulation.

Under the editorship of Gen. J. G. Wilson, a volume has been issued by D. Appleton & Co., 'The Presidents of the United States, 1789-1902,' which will be found convenient for reference, and in several instances more than that. It consists in the main of the respective biographies prepared for 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' and when these are written by such authorities as John Fiske (the two Adamses, Jackson, and Tyler), James Parton (Jefferson), James C. Welling (Van Buren), John Hay (Lincoln), and Carl Schurz (Hayes), to mention no others, they evidently possess an intrinsic and literary value. Owen Wister writes especially the sketch of President Roosevelt. Gen. Wilson, in overhauling and completing the sketch of President McKinley, by the late

Joseph P. Smith, had better have omitted the apology for the famous extrusion of the Ten Thousand from the classified service. And had the task been undertaken at this date, instead of last autumn or last winter, we conceive that he might have altered into conformity with the truth as now revealed the passage concerning McKinley's burking of the Queen of Spain's promise of an armistice, and would also have dropped out of sight the President's prediction at Cliff Haven in August, 1899, "Rebellion may delay, but it can never defeat, the American flag's blessed mission of liberty and humanity."

In volumes xiii. and xiv. of Professor de Sumichrast's translation of Gautier (George D. Sproul), we find the "Travels in Russia and the Low Countries" rendered with the accuracy and picturesqueness already noted in connection with prior issues of this set. Little excision has been practised; but we cannot see any reason for the omission from "The Sea-Passage" of Gautier's graphic description of nausea—a *tour de force* of dramatic and vivid condensation. The beautiful illustrations that accompany the volumes are all marked with a modern stamp.

An additional volume in the "Versailles Historical Series" (Hardy, Pratt & Co.) contains the life and letters of the unfortunate sister of Louis XVI., known as Madame Elisabeth. In its extreme simplicity and naturalness the style offered no serious obstacles to literal translation. The above matter is accompanied by an equally faithful version of the Duchess of Angoulême's narrative, and a more stilted rendering of Sainte-Beuve's well-known essay.

The history of political theory is necessarily vague until the period is reached when the political consciousness is manifest in communities. Prof. W. A. Dunning, in his 'History of Political Theories' (Macmillan), wisely limits his field, and, ignoring primitive communities, devotes his first chapter to Hellenic institutions, dealing first with the Hellenic peoples in general, and passing on to the political philosophy of Plato and the 'Politics' of Aristotle. While there can be nothing new in such an exposition, Professor Dunning succeeds in giving an admirably clear summary. The range from the characteristics of the Hellenic city to the political philosophy of Machiavelli, with which the book ends, is wide enough. In his 350 pages the author presents a series of interesting studies. The history of political theory has hitherto been strangely neglected, and the present volume is at any rate an excellent introduction to the subject. Not the least valuable feature of the book is the bibliography; every chapter is strengthened by a list of select references, and the whole is furnished with a good index.

The convivial frontispiece to Cuyler Reynolds's 'Banquet-Book' (Putnams) prepares one for a very different sort of "classified collection of quotations designed for general reference, and also as an aid in the preparation of the toast list," etc., from that actually got together here. These country squires, with their long pipes and clinking glasses, are not likely to be in need of toasts like this—"Economy, the daughter of Prudence, the sister of Temperance, and the parent of Independence," or of gentle sentiments like this from Dr. Holland—"God gives to every bird its food, but does not throw it into the nest." Mr. Reynolds supplies a glossary of popular terms, from absinthe to wineglasses, and another of popular beverages, and a sufficiency of indexes, though that of authors has no page references.

On the whole, we should prefer to take our chances with 'Mrs. Seely's Cook-Book' (Macmillan), a manual of French and American cookery, well illustrated with photographs, clearly printed, and provided with chapters on the rights and duties of domestic servants, on dinners and dinner-giving. There is a table of weights and measures, but the author's French receipts take no cognizance of the metric system.

The volume of tributes of friends to the late Prof. Herbert B. Adams just issued from the Johns Hopkins University Press contains a portrait of Dr. Adams, with a sketch of his life by Professor Ely, etc. To this is appended a bibliography, 160 pages in extent, of the university department of History, Politics, and Economics, arranged by authors.

Mr. Alexis Everett Frye, our first apostle of education to Cuba, has prepared for Ginn & Co. a 'Grammar School Geography' of the customary atlas form. We select it (among the throng) for remark because of the wholesome revolt against half-tone cuts here exhibited, and the return to woodcuts, of course using the photographic base wherever possible. These cuts are surely a pleasant relief to the eye, and they permit the reëmployment of paper not having the sight-destroying gloss needful for half-tone printing. This reaction is very significant and encouraging.

A very modern interest attaches to a solid work of erudition by Prof. Pietro Toldo of the University of Turin, 'Études sur le Théâtre Comique Français du Moyen-Age et sur le Rôle de la Nouvelle dans les Farces et dans les Comédies' (Turin: Loescher). This study is concerned with the relations between the drama and the novel in French literature from the Middle Ages to the present day. "The farce of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries is, in most cases, scarcely more than a *fabliau* which has been given the form of dramatic action; the procedure of those who in our own day take the subjects of their dramas from popular novels, while a more complicated process, is, after all, identical in method." This, however, is merely a suggestion of the preface, and the main body of the work is devoted to a minute comparison of the two genres as they influence each other in successive centuries. Signor Toldo's chosen field in his previous researches has been the French Renaissance, and he has done much pioneer work in establishing its relations to the Renaissance movement in Italy. The present study, which is reprinted from the 'Studj di Filologia Romanza,' was originally intended for publication in France, and this, besides the nature of its subject, accounts for the fact that it is written in French.

The State of New Hampshire is still promoting the conversion of "abandoned farms" into "summer homes," and any one concerned in this process should address himself to Mr. N. J. Bachelder, Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, at Concord, not as a negotiator, but as the distributor (gratis) of a pamphlet list of such farms. That for the current year fills 52 pages, each farm being minutely described by its owner, and having its fixed price. A State map accompanies the list.

Prof. W. H. Pickering, in his article, "Is the Moon a Dead Planet?" in the May *Century*, presents in popular fashion some of the very striking results of years of observation of our satellite through the clear skies of Peru and Jamaica, where the atmosphere is so steady as to enable the use of very high magnifying powers with the telescope. The few examples of actual apparent change which he describes are the outcome of many hours of study and many nights of consecutive watching. They illustrate what may be termed the new selenography—that is, the selenography which consists, not merely in mapping cold, dead rocks and isolated craters, but in a study of the daily alterations that seem to take place in small selected regions. Herein Professor Pickering thinks he finds real, living changes that cannot be fully explained by shifting shadows or varying librations of the lunar surface. Organic life resembling vegetation he finds, though not necessarily identical with it—coming up, flourishing, and dying, just as vegetation springs and withers on the earth. Snow, too, or hoar-frost he finds much evidence of; as well as a fair degree of volcanic activity.

Polar expeditions are the predominant feature of the *Geographical Journal* for April. There are three articles on the British ship *Discovery*, descriptive of her scientific equipment and the noteworthy incidents of her voyage to the Antarctic. The means for carrying on the scientific work of the expedition are very complete, and include kites, balloons, and a xanthometer, an instrument for measuring the ever-varying color of the sea. The ship touched at Trinidad Island, and a partial exploration resulted in the finding of a new species of petrel. Baron E. von Toll tells of the Russian Polar expedition under his lead, and Capt. Amundsen, a Norwegian, gives his plans for an expedition next year to the north magnetic pole, near which he proposes to pass two winters in a snow-hut. Somewhat akin to these, so far as ice and snow are concerned, is Mr. Douglas Freshfield's narrative of his explorations of the glaciers of Kangchenjunga in the eastern Himalaya, which is illustrated by some striking reproductions of photographs by V. Sella. One of these, showing the whole range, was taken from a height of 17,000 feet. A sketch of Professor Agassiz's recent cruise among the Maldives, during which he studied their physical geography and made some biological researches, contains the result of his observations upon the atolls. They "point to the uselessness of our present definition of atolls, as every possible gradation can be seen between an open, crescent-shaped bank and an absolutely closed ring of land."

—Mr. Lewis Einstein's 'The Italian Renaissance in England' (Columbia University Press; The Macmillan Co.) is a good specimen of full-bodied research. The Renaissance has been so long a name to conjure with in history, in literary scholarship, in art criticism, and in the pleasing parlor lecture, that one enters upon the reading of a new book about it with some misgivings. But whatever doubt one may feel in the present instance will speedily

be dispelled. Mr. Einstein's work justifies its existence by drawing on many manuscript sources which have hitherto been inaccessible to most scholars, and by embodying the results of much careful investigation in an admirably comprehensive study. Scholars have too often thought of the Italian influence on Elizabethan England as chiefly exerted by and in books. They have tabulated long lists of English versions of Italian authors, and they have traced the copious borrowings from the Tuscan muse which gave form and color to Elizabethan dramatic and lyric poetry. It is the merit of the present work that it presents a conspectus of the social, commercial, and literary relations of Italy and England in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which should prove informing even to specialists in the history and literature of the Renaissance. Italian humanism was brought to England by scholars, courtiers, and travellers. To each type Mr. Einstein devotes a chapter, filling in his record with a wealth of suggestive detail. This first period of Italian influence Mr. Einstein rightly conceives to culminate early in the sixteenth century. Then began the "Italian danger," with the emergence of the Italianate Englishman, the influx of Italian merchants, and the spread of Italian political ideas. The account of this period in the Italian movement is skilfully managed, and the reaction which appeared in popular feeling and in such works as 'The Subtlety of Italians' is analyzed with a good deal of insight. The final chapter, upon the "Italian Influence in English Poetry," is not notable for original contributions to our knowledge of the subject, but it is adequate and readable. Excellent reproductions of rare portraits of some of the worthies mentioned lend an appropriate touch of human interest. There is perhaps a certain lack of conclusiveness in the book as a whole which may prevent it from serving the need of the less informed reader, but one who, already knowing something of the field, wishes at once to extend his view and to particularize his knowledge, will read it with pleasure and profit.

—Mr. Edward Clodd's 'Thomas Henry Huxley' in the "Modern English Writers" series (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a superfluous book, and it is made so less by the Huxley 'Life and Letters' than by the admirable sketch of Huxley's life and work by Mr. P. Chalmers Mitchell, which was published simultaneously with the 'Life and Letters' two years ago. It is true that Mr. Clodd, writing after the 'Life and Letters,' has been enabled to enrich his pages with many references to that and quotations from it, but his approach to Huxley on his most serious side falls short of Mr. Chalmers's, and, while it seems hardly possible to exaggerate Huxley's controversial activity, Mr. Clodd does this in expressing his own sense of its relative importance. There is no such perversion of Huxley's temper as there was of Darwin's in Grant Allen's very disagreeable 'Charles Darwin' (1885), but there is something of the same intrusion here and there of the writer into his subject's place. This is most distinctly so in the fourth chapter, "The Controversialist," where, as nowhere else, Mr. Clodd's foot is on his native heath, and he almost forgets that he is writing of Huxley in the joy of his own battle with the clericals and supernaturalists. It is significant that while this chapter covers sixty-six pages, the next following, "The Constructor," covers only twenty-two. The arrangement of the book is topical, and, preceding the subjects named, we have "The Man," "The Discoverer," and "The Interpreter." Such a division of topics without confounding the substance is too difficult to be a complete success. Especially were the interpreter and controversialist one and the same to a considerable extent. But by "The Controversialist" Mr. Clodd means preëminently and almost exclusively the hero of the big fight with Gladstone. This is overworked, while the "Romanes Lecture" incident is slurred, notwithstanding its much greater importance. When we read of the "tribulation" through which Huxley entered the kingdom of intellectual freedom, and remember how Bishop Wilberforce fared in the Oxford encounter, and some others in their turn, it appears to have been Huxley who swung the thresher's flail, his enemies whose chaff was separated from their grain.

—The Marquis d'Argenson and Richard II., whom Mr. Reginald Rankin associates in the title to a volume of essays (Longmans), have obviously little to do with each other. Both, however, are fair subjects for the historian, and we need demand no further unity of motive. Each study is complete in itself, and, taken together, the two fill out a good-sized, handsomely printed book. It is not one which will sell so fast as Mr. Rankin's story of his South African experiences, 'A Subaltern's Letters to his Wife,' but the workmanship is of good quality and will do the reputation of its author no discredit. Of the two essays, "D'Argenson," though the shorter, is in our judgment the better. While Mr. Rankin's sketch of Richard II. is more notable for its agreeable style than for depth of research, his criticism of D'Argenson is both well written and scholarly. The subject is also an attractive one at the present day, for the ideas and aspirations of this French statesman appeal more to our own age than they did to the eighteenth century. Honesty and broad-mindedness were virtues which French politicians lacked in the reign of Louis XV., and which have not always been cultivated with conspicuous success by prime ministers of recent generations. These things D'Argenson had, and of late his career has recalled to many the saying of Plato that kings should have philosophers for their advisers. Alas, as Ralph Hythlodaye pointed out to Sir Thomas More, the King, though he have the philosopher at his elbow, may not listen to him. In an age of bribes and jobs, D'Argenson was incorruptible, and he foresaw one-half of the political developments of the nineteenth century; but he did not succeed in practical politics. The present tendency is to ascribe the fault more to the surroundings and less to the idealist. Nevertheless, D'Argenson had palpable limitations, to which we must not be blind. For instance, he lacked indomitable purpose, and he showed a fatuous disregard of those who might easily thwart him. His most amiable trait was the sincere humanity which can be seen in all his words and acts. Mr. Rankin hits the mark when he says: "The Marquis d'Argenson had few of the heroic virtues; his actions often contradicted his professions, his words were often but a gross and disordered reflection of his true mind. But he sympathized with the sufferers of his own generation, he loved all that was great in the past, and his sympathy and his love begot in his heart the image of Freedom."

—The second edition of the German collection of copyright statutes and treaties, 'Gesetze über das Urheberrecht in allen Ländern nebst den darauf bezüglichen Internationalen Verträgen' (Leipzig: G. Hedeler), has had the advantage of the editorial revision of Prof. Ernst Röthlisberger, one of the secretaries of the International Copyright Bureau at Berne. The volume has been doubled in size (from 263 to 418 pages), chiefly by reason of the extended area of inclusion. With the exception of the United States, the first issue contained legislation by European countries only; whereas this new edition, besides the addition of four minor European principalities—Luxembourg, Monaco, Montenegro, and San Marino—includes seventeen Central and South American States, Hayti, Canada, Egypt, Tunis, the South African Republic, New South Wales, and Japan. The latest statute included in the former (undated) publication was the United States act of March 3, 1891, while the present work contains special copyright enactments subsequent to that year by Austria (1895), Brazil (1898), Costa Rica (1896), Germany (1901), Japan (1899), Luxembourg (1898), New Zealand (1896), Norway (1893), Salvador (1900), Sweden (1897), and Venezuela (1894). Forty-eight countries are reported on altogether, of which thirty-six have special copyright legislation now in force, dating from 1735 (Great Britain) to 1902, on the first day of January of which year the important new German law relating to copyright in literary productions and music (enacted June 11, 1901) and the complementary "Verlagsrecht" (enacted June 19, 1901) went into effect. The printing of the volume was just completed, probably, before the enactment, on March 11 last, of the important amendment to the French law of July, 1793, which extends its protection to works of sculpture and ornamental art.

—The book is divided into two parts, each arranged alphabetically by countries. The first contains the Constitutional provisions and sections of the civil and criminal codes relating to literary and artistic property, together with the decrees, ordinances, and legislative enactments now in effect regarding copyright; while the second part contains the texts of the Berne Convention (1887 and 1896), the treaty of Montevideo (1889), and such copyright treaties as are now in force between individual states. No attempt has been made at elaborate annotation, but brief, useful notations occur, and in a few cases the texts of amendatory acts are interpolated in italics. The bulletins of the United States Copyright Office have been translated entire in the case both of this country and of Canada, not only for the laws in force, but also for the official information relative to copyright registration in both countries. In lieu of the texts of the numerous copyright acts of Great Britain, a translation has been supplied, slightly compressed and with the "illustrations" omitted, of the valuable Digest of the English law of Copyright

made for the British Copyright Commission of 1878. In view of the intricacy of the legislation treated and the consequent desirability of an authoritative exponent, it was a pity to omit the name of the eminent jurist, Sir James Stephen, who was responsible for this useful work. The subsequent British acts of August 10, 1882, June 25, 1886, and July 5, 1888, have been added. The British colonies are represented only by Canada and the act of September 24, 1896, of New Zealand, no mention being made of the legislation on copyright of India, New South Wales (1879), Queensland (1887), South Australia (1878), Tasmania (1891), Victoria (1890), and West Australia (1895). This excellent work cannot supplant the admirable compilation by MM. Ch. Lyon-Caen and Paul Delalain ('Lois Françaises et Étrangères sur la Propriété Littéraire et Artistique'), which is brought down to 1896, with scholarly introductions and extended annotations in two octavo volumes and a supplement; but for the reader of German it is a handy compilation, lacking only a subject-index.

—The statement which appeared recently in the Berlin papers, that the last remnant of the city's mediæval wall not already torn down or incorporated in other structures was removed only a few weeks ago, seemed to imply an incredible antiquity, so modern is Berlin in every aspect. And yet this mediæval wall is said to have been built about 1230. A trifle less than a century later, its straight line was broken to permit the enlargement of the choir of the cloister church. Just back of this choir an obtuse angle was made in the wall, and here, sheltered from view behind the church, stood that fragment which has just been removed. And still the testimony of history may practically be disregarded, for that portion of Berlin which can lay claim to considerable age is so small, and has been so thoroughly changed by later building operations, that the city may be justly called modern. For example, its population amounted in round numbers to only 20,000 at the beginning of the last decade of the seventeenth century. At the end of the reign of Frederick the Great it was but slightly over 140,000, and in 1860 had merely reached its first half-million. Since then, and especially since the close of the war with France, its growth has been enormous, so that the city with those suburbs which really form a part of it, although under different municipal government, now contains more than 2,000,000 inhabitants. Berlin is therefore as young as Chicago. In fact, in rapidity of growth and in many phases of their vigorous life and public spirit, these two cities form an interesting parallel.

MACAULAY AND HIS CRITICS.

Macaulay: A Lecture delivered at Cambridge on August 10, 1900, in connexion with the Summer Meeting of University Extension Students. By Sir Richard C. Jebb, M. P. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Lord Macaulay. By H. D. Macgregor. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

How does it happen that Macaulay, who, to judge from the extent to which his works are read, has been and is the idol of the English people on both sides the Atlantic, has, for the last thirty or forty years, aroused the censure, not to say the aversion, of critics who claim to represent education and culture? The time has come for attempting a reply to a question of considerable curiosity, and, to persons interested in the flow and ebb of opinion, of a certain importance. The period of indiscriminating admiration and the period (certain to follow it) of exaggerated censure have passed away. Sir Richard Jebb's exquisite and impartial apology is a sign that a master of style and a scholar of the highest culture can, while admitting the limits, also recognize the rareness and the brilliancy of Macaulay's genius. Mr. Macgregor's painstaking study of Macaulay's writings is a proof that, at Cambridge at any rate, young men just entering into life have no wish to detract from the reputation of the most popular among English historians, but desire to understand what is the permanent rank to be assigned him in the world of English letters. Under the guidance of a critic so skilful, so fair, and so subtle as the Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge, it is possible to answer with some confidence the question which we have propounded, and to show that the quarrel between Macaulay and his critics is due in the main to two causes.

First, Macaulay's tone and the very texture of his genius were antipathetic to the men who, in the main, guided the educated opinion of England during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Nor need this fact excite surprise. Macaulay, born in 1800, belonged in character to the eighteenth century. There is profound truth in the paradox to be found somewhere in the writings of Mr. Leslie Stephen, that in England the eighteenth century lasted on till 1830; and Macaulay was heart and soul the man of 1830. In this he resembled the Whigs and the Edinburgh Reviewers. In virtue, indeed, of his genius, of his youth, and of his historical enthusiasm, he saw truths and sympathized with feelings unrevealed to and unshared by Jeffrey or Sydney Smith. His onslaught on the *à priori* and unhistorical method of political reasoning characteristic of the Benthamites not only exhibits a dialectical power to which even Sir George Trevelyan hardly does justice, but also breaks with the intellectual tradition of the eighteenth century, and anticipates the historical view of political science; his keen appreciation of the revival of civic and even democratic life due to the rise of Christianity is foreign to the ideas of Hume and of Gibbon, and generally Macaulay's youthful article on the study of history teems with notions usually placed to the credit of later writers, such, for example, as the suggestion made with much less moderation and force by Merivale and by Mommsen, that Cicero's or Sallust's account of the Catilinian conspiracy deserved no more trust than other official proclamations or party pamphlets that tell the story of a revolutionary movement which has been condemned by failure. And though Macaulay's strength did not lie in the criticism of art or of poetry, his fervent admiration for Lessing's 'Laocoon' and for Goethe's analysis of Hamlet's character shows that Macaulay as a critic had progressed far beyond the ideas of Jeffrey and his school. But though Macaulay shared to some extent the ideas of the coming age, he was at bottom a man of the eighteenth century; his optimism, his manly vigor, his decisive outspokenness, his admiration for material progress—which, however, as Sir Richard Jebb well points out, was to Macaulay and to Macaulay's contemporaries chiefly valuable as the sign of moral and intellectual improvement—the very tone of satisfaction and triumph which runs through his resounding sentences, all express the very spirit of 1832, and all jar upon the taste of the writers and critics who, in one form or another, represent the reaction of the nineteenth century against the rationalism of the eighteenth.

With the reaction, in any case, Macaulay had throughout his life nothing to do. One can hardly imagine thinkers with whose tone he had less in common than Carlyle, Froude, Newman, or Matthew Arnold. These men, who are mere samples of a whole body of writers, were in many points—and these points of vital importance—as opposed to one another as it was possible for one writer to be opposed to a writer of a different school. Yet, if you look at the sentiment of the nineteenth century as a whole, you may easily perceive that they all and each of them represent a reaction, if not of opinion, yet of feeling, and a reaction in which Macaulay had no share; and the same thing is true of thinkers of a different class from those already mentioned. John Mill and Mr. John Morley no doubt have carried on from some points of view the ideas of the eighteenth century. Yet it is palpable to any one who has studied their writings that Mill and Mr. John Morley (who would not, we imagine, repudiate the name of Mr. Mill's disciple) keenly sympathize with the feeling, if not with the creeds, of the nineteenth century. The attacks, then, made upon Macaulay by later critics are from one point of view simply part of the conflict between the intellectual revolution of the eighteenth and the reactionary movement of the nineteenth century.

Secondly, Macaulay maintained a conception of the proper function of an historian which is opposed to the ideals formed by a later generation of historical writers. To Macaulay, as to the greatest historians whom the world has seen, history was primarily narration; the perfect historian was in his eyes the writer who, having obtained knowledge of past events, placed them in due order and proportion before the eyes of his readers. The object of history is, on this view, to give a true picture of the past, or, in other words, to make the men of one generation see past events as they were seen by their contemporaries. To historical inquirers, on the other hand, of to-day, the function of the historian seems to be primarily either what is called scientific—that is, the classification of details under principles and the reference of effects to causes—or else discovery: that is, the revealing of facts, whether small or great, hitherto unknown. On the one view, history is a branch, and, as Macaulay certainly deemed it, the noblest branch, of literature. On the other view, history, or rather historical inquiry, is, as far as may be, assimilated to, if not made a branch of, physical science. The two conceptions, be it noted, are not in reality antagonistic. The ideal historian—

if such a person should ever exist—would be at once a narrator, an analyzer, and a discoverer of the past. No one, again, will dispute—Macaulay certainly did not forget—that the basis of historical narrative must be knowledge of the past, and that the foundation of knowledge is study and investigation. Nor, may it be supposed, does the most scientific of historical investigators in reality doubt, though their practice does not always show full appreciation of this truth, that to narrate—that is, to set forth in due order and proportion the results of discovery and investigation—is no small achievement and no mean contribution to the knowledge and to the instruction of mankind. But, though this be true, it is none the less true that there is, as things now stand, practically a marked contrast or even opposition between the author who regards history as primarily narrative, and the author who regards history as primarily a branch either of science or of discovery. This difference deserves attention in itself, and certainly goes far to account for the feud between Macaulay and his critics.

Macaulay was the most effective of narrators. This, be it remarked, is a merit independent of his "style," if that word be used in a narrow sense, as meaning merely his language and mode of expression. His narrative power consisted not in a command of words, but in the capacity for grasping a large body of complicated events as a whole, and then so narrating them that every part of a complex transaction should become perfectly clear, because every fact is put in its right place. The power to do this is not given to some historians whose work is otherwise above praise. That Mr. Gardiner, for instance, might have cultivated this gift may be safely inferred from his short but admirable sketch of the Thirty Years' War; but it would be untrue to assert that he exhibits any remarkable capacity for narration in his otherwise admirable history of the Stuarts, which, especially in his later volumes, becomes more and more of an Annual Register. That Macaulay's achievement as a narrator was extraordinarily successful no one would dream of denying; the essential matter is to recognize the importance of his success. This may to a certain extent be measured by one consideration: the few volumes of his English History have made one bit of the annals of England better known to the English people than the events of their own day. True of course it is that the labor bestowed by Macaulay on narration is not balanced, as in the case of an absolutely perfect historian it would be, by the assiduous attempt to connect results with general causes. Yet to make this a serious charge against our author savors of that futile criticism which belittles one man of genius simply because he has not the special qualities of another man of equal though different genius. To complain of Macaulay because he had not the analytical subtlety of Tocqueville is hardly wiser than to attack Tocqueville's 'L'Ancien Régime' because it does not give such a picture of pre-Revolutionary France as Macaulay's History of England affords of the age of Charles II.

It may further be urged that the attempt to establish a science of history is premature. The grandiloquent generalizations of Buckle, the laws of Comte, and even the theories of Tocqueville, to many critics will seem of dubious truth. In this matter Thucydides affords us a warning. Thucydides came as near as any man could to the perfect historian; in him the capacity for historical narration is blended with and balanced by a genius for scientific analysis. He narrates, he inquires, he refers effects to causes; but though the man appeared, the hour for creating scientific history had not arrived—the attempt to do so was premature. The science of Thucydides is of less importance than his narrative. It is at least arguable that the miscellaneous information collected by the restless and unscientific curiosity of Herodotus has been of more value to the world than the historical or political theories of Thucydides.

But Macaulay, it will be said, has not discovered new facts, and the very essence of historical inquiry is discovery. It is at this point that the defenders and critics of Macaulay must in reality join issue. No doubt if it once be granted that the main function of an historian is to discover, then it will follow that Macaulay, while making every effort to ascertain the truth of the facts which he narrated, did not devote himself to what Carlyle has somewhere called "navvy-work"; but then, this admission is exactly what Macaulay and those who try to do him justice will deny. Every kind of praise is due to men whose turn of mind leads them to ascertain new facts concerning the past, even though the facts may be in themselves of no great importance; the writer, for example, who finally determines the question whether Dr. Johnson was three years or six months at Oxford; or ascertains, if it be ascertainable, who was the man who wore the iron mask; or proves conclusively that the Girondins did not, the night before their execution, partake of a good supper, has done something for the promotion of truth that is worth doing, and no sensible man ought to grudge the credit due to even the minor laborers in the field of research. But, so high is the value placed by modern critics on research which may or may not be the result of great intellectual powers, that the time has come to remind the world that the laborers who collect the materials for history are not, of necessity, themselves historians; an honest brickmaker deserves credit for the goodness of his bricks, but he has no right to claim the admiration due to an architect of genius. On the recognition of this principle is based the verdict of popular admiration which gives to Macaulay his deservedly high place among England's men of letters. To the neglect of this principle is due at least one-half of the attacks on Macaulay by men of culture and refinement who fail to perceive that, deep as is the respect due to research, the capacity for historical exposition will always be held the mark of a great historian.

OCCULT EVOLUTION.

Principles of Western Civilization. By Benjamin Kidd. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

As the Roman Republic gave place to the Empire, the vacuum caused by the disappearance of the old religion and the old habits of thought was filled with many strange and barbarous superstitions. Juvenal paints in gloomy colors the outlandish cults and mysteries which captivated the populace and startled the serious and conservative. The gravity and decorum which characterized the old republic were succeeded by wild orgies and insane excesses, and the earlier forms of worship, which, if hollow, were stately and dignified, were abandoned for bewildering rituals devoid of all rational content. Possibly some future historian will draw a parallel between that age and our own. We have seen the Salvation Army rally to its banners large masses of the English people, and successfully invade America. It has been followed by the cult known as Christian Science, which, if it have any relation to Christianity, has certainly nothing to do with science, but which numbers its churches by hundreds and its devotees by millions. Hardly less extensive, perhaps, is the modern cult of Evolution, a word which fascinates the vast horde of the half-educated, and deludes them with the notion that they can understand the past and future development of the world with as little mental effort as they need to read the daily newspaper or the latest novel.

There seems to be no iniquity which is not now condoned or defended by some sciolist as a "phase of Evolution." It makes little difference whether it be the original enslaving of the negroes or their lynching to-day; whether it be the extermination of Indians, the slaughter of Filipinos, the subjugation of Boers, the massacre of Chinese in their own land, or their exclusion from other countries—Evolution excuses everything. The categories of right and wrong have no place in this interpretation of history. Force is virtue, and success is righteousness. Men are graded as superiors and inferiors, and Evolution means that superiors may deal with inferiors as they will.

In the world of science, Evolution, of course, has an altogether different meaning; but the book before us, which is typical of its class, is not a scientific treatise. It is scientific neither in style, nor in method, nor in substance. The author has misinterpreted Quintilian's advice that the orator should create a favorable disposition towards himself among his hearers, He supposes that this result may be obtained by belittling others who have dealt with his subject, and by frequently intimating to his hearers that they are ignorant of its true meaning. No doubt the class addressed is secretly conscious of its delinquencies, and will submit to just contumely; but disparagement of rivals seldom helps those who resort to it. Nor do the showman 's arts of exaggerated laudation of the wonders of his exhibition, their unparalleled novelty, and infinite superiority to anything to be seen elsewhere, carry more conviction when the subject is the futurity of the world than when it is a mermaid or a sea-serpent.

Incredible as it seems, the author of this treatise has actually fallen back into the slough from which Darwin, with infinite labor, extricated biology. We are almost ashamed to repeat that Darwin's service consisted in exploding the hoary superstition that ideas, or types, or species were entities of the same nature as tangible and visible objects. By patient accumulation of facts, he established the profound truth that living beings have their present form, not in fulfilment of specific purposes, not in

correspondence with archetypes, but because of variations which were so related to surrounding conditions as to favor the survival of the individuals possessing them. "Natural Selection, it should never be forgotten," said Darwin, "can act solely through and for the advantage of each being." It only "takes advantage of such variations as arise and are beneficial to each creature under its complex relations of life." In testing this theory Darwin spent his life. His labors were almost superhuman, his observations wonderfully extended, his inferences careful and conscientious; and it has been supposed that he had demonstrated the truth of his conclusions.

According to Mr. Kidd, such a supposition is mistaken. Darwin was altogether wrong in maintaining that natural selection acts for the advantage of existing beings; it is future beings which it favors. There is "a principle in the evolutionary process compelling ever towards the sacrifice on a vast scale of the present and the individual in the interests of the future and the universal." Final causes dominate nature; types must be realized and perfected, evolution proceed in accordance with the speculations of Plato. For propounding doctrine of this kind in the name of science Owen was savagely punished by Huxley; but Owen at least reasoned from facts. This author is more prudent; he deals with conclusions rather than premises. His method is of that extra-logical kind known as the assertatory. The theory which he propounds "must" be true.

"The winning qualities in the evolutionary process must of necessity be those qualities by which the interests of the existing individuals have been most effectively subordinated to those of the generations yet to be born. . . . In the strenuous æons of time, during which progress followed its upward path, it must have been, on the whole, in the evolution of the qualities contributing to the interests of the vast majority in the future that the controlling meaning of the deeper life-processes always centred. It must have been in the interests of this majority that Natural Selection, in the long run, continuously discriminated. . . . Nay, we may go so far as to say that, under the law of Natural Selection, as we come to understand it in this light, the interests of the individual in those adjustments 'profitable to itself,' which filled so large a place in the minds of the early Darwinians, have actually no place, except in so far as they are included in, and have contributed to, this larger end in the future."

What Darwin proved was that a species becomes permanent when the individuals belonging to it are more vigorous or more favored by natural conditions than others. What this author asserts is that these more vigorous individuals must succumb before feebler ones in order to carry out his theory of "an inherent necessity in the evolutionary process." In the endeavor to impress his readers with the wisdom of this view, the author employs language of most oracular obscurity. Never before, he gravely tells us, has a principle of such reach as this of his emerged into view. It has brought on a "cosmic struggle"; "one of the most remarkable situations in history." It has a deep, a profound significance; it involves a gigantic problem; it is "the ultimate principle to which the history of philosophy is related"; all the phenomena of our social development must stand in subordinate relationship to it. Every few pages the reader is invited to be overcome with amazement at the stupendous discovery, and to inspect with admiring awe the revelation of the hitherto inscrutable purposes of the Creator. It must be admitted that these verbose vaticinations have not been without effect, as at least one critic falls prostrate before their author, reverentially exclaiming: "For this is the enthralling interest of his theory—that it accounts for the very moment at which we stand to-day in the process of the world's development."

Having disposed of Darwin with a few Delphic utterances, our author makes short work of Huxley. That narrow-minded and unenlightened person belongs, like Herbert Spencer, to "the pre-Darwinian period of knowledge." Spencer's conceptions are marked by "extraordinary triviality and superficiality," and Sidgwick was little more profound. As to John Mill, his theories belong "simply to the literature of a pre-scientific epoch when men possessed as yet no real insight into the character of the natural forces at work in the evolution of society." His principle implied that all sense of responsibility was divorced from the incidents and results of competition, or the struggle for gain. The ascendency of the interests of the present, with total disregard of the future of mankind, characterized Mill's philosophy. He was absolutely unconscious of the profound difference between the State and Society considered as a living organism, "undergoing, under the influence of Natural Selection, a vast process of slow development in which all the interests of the existing individuals are lost sight of in wider issues." "As the evolutionist . . . rises from the study of Mill's writings, the superficiality of the whole system of ideas represented profoundly impresses his mind."

To students of Mill's writings who are not evolutionists of this school, these statements will seem slanders too ridiculous to deserve refutation. If there ever was a philosopher profoundly interested in the future welfare of mankind, in the uplifting of those classes on whom present conditions bear hardest, it was Mill; and in his chapter on the "Stationary State," which causes our author to become quite inarticulate with superior wisdom, he points out that in that state society would contain a well-paid and affluent body of laborers, and few enormously rich men; that there would be "a much larger body of persons than at present, not only exempt from the coarser toils, but with sufficient leisure, both physical and mental, from mechanical details, to cultivate freely the graces of life."

After all, has "Western civilization" anything better than this to promise? It has, indeed, to judge from this book, extremely little to promise that is intelligible. The author is really compelled at last to offer some definite explanation of what he has called a movement of stupendous significance. But it is a parturition of ridiculous outcome. He mumbles something to the effect that Henry George's theories about confiscating the "unearned increment" must be applied, and that the industries of the people must be carried on by the officers of Government; and this is what we get from all these pages of oracular declamation. It has been cleverly said of Henry George's theory of land tenure that he defended it on the ground that every people had some time tried it and given it up; and certainly collectivism has hitherto made but a dismal showing for itself. As we contemplate this result we feel like exclaiming, in the author's words: "There rises in the mind an overmastering conviction of the extraordinary incompleteness and insufficiency of all the conceptions of the science of society we have been here considering."

As to that "majestic process of cosmic ethics" which consists in "the projection of the controlling meaning of the world process beyond the present," we are satisfied, after much study, that it amounts to that regard for the future which we call prudence and parental devotion, and that respect for the rights of our fellow-creatures which gives its name to justice. We need hardly say that many previous writers have observed the existence of these virtuous tendencies, nor contend that they have not been peculiar to Western civilization in the past and will not be in the future. It is not improbable that the class of readers to which this writer appeals perceive that they possess these virtues in some degree, and experience a pleasurable elation at being assured that they are thereby participating "in the evolutionary process which must, sooner or later, subordinate the present and all its interests to the interests of a future which is infinite." Whether they are wiser than they were before they learned this, is another question.

Roman Africa: An Outline of the Roman Occupation of North Africa. Based chiefly upon inscriptions and monumental remains in that country. By Alexander Graham, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. With thirty reproductions of original drawings by the author, and two maps. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

No country in the world, not even the interior of Asia Minor, presents so striking a contrast between past prosperity and present desolation as does that part of the North African coastland which we now call Tunisia and Eastern Algeria. Under the Carthaginians and again under the Roman Emperors, it was studded with thriving cities, and was so rich and so well cultivated as not only to support a large population, but to export vast quantities of grain to Italy. No province produced a greater number of men of letters in heathen times, of theologians and energetic ecclesiastics in Christian times. None was covered with a larger number of costly and splendid public works. Eighty years ago no region in the Mediterranean basin was so barbarous, so thinly peopled, so waste and miserable as this ancient home of culture. And even now, when France has held Algeria for some seventy years, and Tunisia for twenty, the country, although beginning to be opened up by railways and rendered perfectly safe for travellers, remains backward and in most districts very scantily inhabited. It is recovering very slowly from the results of twelve centuries of Muslim rule.

This is the region whose Roman remains Mr. Graham describes in the volume that lies before us. He entitles it a 'History of Roman Africa,' but it is really rather a series of archæological studies than a narrative history. The author seems to be an architect by profession, and has journeyed a good deal through Tunisia (his book entitled 'Travels in Tunisia' was pub-

lished in 1887). He is a good observer and an agreeable writer. But he is not strong as a Latin scholar, and not stronger as an historian. There are many small historical errors scattered through the book, and expressions are used which betray an insufficient knowledge of Roman history. No one, for instance, who had mastered that history would write such a sentence as this (p. 25): "The establishment of the principles of monarchy, dating from the time when Cæsar and Pompey acted in unison to overthrow the aristocratic constitution of Rome, became permanent after Cæsar's decisive victory at Thapsus." No trained historian would, in speaking of Carthage, fail to refer to Aristotle's remarks on its Constitution, would omit an account of the Donatist schism (the Donatist quarrels are barely referred to), would say scarcely a word about the Vandal conquest of Africa, and give only a few lines to its reconquest by Belisarius. The book is, in fact—and this is why it is necessary to make these criticisms—not a history of Roman Africa, but an account of the inscriptions and monuments which commemorate the Roman Emperors who reigned over North Africa from Augustus to Honorius. As such it has its value. The inscriptions have been well selected from the very large number discovered and transcribed in recent years, especially by the diligence of French scholars. The drawings not only are carefully executed, but show the skill and knowledge of the trained architect.

The arrangement of the book is chronological, not topographical. Each city in which Roman remains have been found is taken in the order of the succession of the Emperors to which its inscriptions relate, or in whose time its chief surviving monuments were erected. Thus, Theveste (now Tebessa), an inland city to the west of Kêrwan, is taken in connection with the Emperor Vespasian, because its earliest inscriptions date from his time, although it became far more prosperous and important at the end of the second century A. D. Its neighbor Thamugas (now Timegad) is noticed under the reign of Trajan, because that Emperor caused a city to be erected there, where previously only a fortified frontier post had existed. Thysdrus (now El Djem), famous for its magnificent amphitheatre, is described under the reign of Gordian III., as Lambæsis, the great frontier camp city, had been under that of Marcus Aurelius. Though there are some conveniences in this plan, we think that, on the whole, a topographical arrangement would have answered just as well, for the inscriptions and ruins do not come sufficiently into the general annals of the time to make it necessary to place a description of them at the point where they first emerge into the broad daylight of history.

The accounts given of the ruins which our author deals with are full of interest, and throw a great deal of light on the conditions of what was doubtless one of the most populous and prosperous of all the western provinces of the empire. The four cities we have named above, Theveste, Thamugas, Lambæsis, and Thysdrus, besides other once flourishing towns, such as Sufes and Sufetula, all lie in a strip of country about 250 miles long, from Thysdrus on the east to Lambæsis on the west. They are far in the interior to the south and southwest of Tunis. All this region is now almost desolate; that is to say, though poor villages are scattered here and there through it, it is nearly all uncultivated, and inhabited chiefly by nomadic or semi-nomadic tribes little removed from barbarism. It must have been, however, as the existing remains show, both well cultivated and well peopled; much of its wealth, at least in the eastern part, consisting in the wide-stretching plantations of olives, from which vast quantities of oil were exported to Europe. The best witness to its wealth is to be found in the amphitheatre of Thysdrus, a structure about as large as the amphitheatres of Verona, and somewhat larger than those of Pola and Arles. It is inferior only to the great Flavian amphitheatre at Rome, which we call the Coliseum. It is one of the most superb Roman works in existence. It covers four and a half acres of ground, and could seat more than thirty thousand persons. Mr. Graham thinks that it was built by Gordian the Third, in honor of his grandfather Gordian I., who was a native of the place, and doubts whether it was ever completed. But, completed or not, it must have been meant to serve a very large population. To-day, Thysdrus is represented by a wretched group of hovels called El Djem, and there are not 10,000 people within a radius of twenty miles from this majestic ruin, which was used as a fortress against the Arab invaders under Sidi Okba in the seventh century A. D., and had one-fourth its circumference destroyed by cannon used against rebel tribes, who had taken shelter in it in 1697.

Mr. Graham's account of the ruined cities does not purport to be exhaustive. He says little about the mosaic pavements, a species of decoration in which North Africa is peculiarly rich. He tells us less than we should expect about Carthage, where, to be sure, the ruins are scanty, and barely mentions the interesting Roman remains at Uthena (now Oudena), fifteen miles south of Tunis. He confines himself almost entirely to Tunisia and eastern Algeria. But of the principal ruins in that very interesting region, the most civilized part of Roman Africa, he gives an account sufficient to enable his readers to realize the part it played in the ancient world. And he dwells with proper fulness and emphasis upon the reigns of Trajan, Hadrian, Marcus Aurelius, and Septimius Severus (this last Emperor himself an African) as brilliant epochs in North African history. Perusing his pages, one wonders when and by what race prosperity will be restored to these naturally rich regions. At present there is hardly any colonization, for the French, though they have secured order, made railroads, and done much in the way of archæological research, have not yet tempted settlers from any of the industrious races of southern Europe, nor induced the half-civilized natives to reclaim the long-abandoned fields, or to restore to any considerable extent the ruined irrigation works on which cultivation so largely depended in Carthaginian and Roman days.

Old Diaries: 1881-1901. By Lord Ronald Gower. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

Horace Walpole's letters, especially those addressed to Mann, were really diaries, and one is sometimes reminded of Walpole in reading these diaries of Lord Gower. Lest we mislead the reader, it should be said at once that the resemblance is due to certain qualities which are usually classed as defects, and that Lord Gower's diaries are vastly inferior in every respect to those of Walpole. The frontispiece shows him to be possessed of an aristocratic but effeminate face, and there is a lack of virility in his views of life which is even more striking than in those of his celebrated predecessor. He shares Walpole's fondness for the nobility, and takes too obvious a pride in his connection with ducal families and in his possession of thirty-two quarterings. But here the resemblance ends. It is true that both writers deal with persons rather than things, but Walpole took a keen interest in political matters, and constantly referred to the events of the day and their effects on men's minds. Lord Gower, on the other hand, confines himself to records of travel, of the hotels he lived in, and of the people he met. He has nothing to say of politics, nothing about questions of finance or sport, nothing about social problems or many other things that interest most men. It is true, he takes a dilettante interest in art, and his skill in sculpture may be seen in the Shakspere monument at Stratford; but an invitation to dinner with the Queen at Windsor or with the Dowager Empress of Germany at Homburg was the source of his greatest happiness and his most genuine inspiration. His style is exceedingly slipshod. He writes of "Count Stolberg *whom* Herbert Bismarck told me is the owner," etc., and of "John Symonds *whom* I had heard was ill," etc. He constantly refers to houses as *livable*, and confuses *exceptionable* and *exceptional*. He has lived much in France and Italy, yet his quotations in French and Italian are generally incorrect. It may be that a gentleman with thirty-two quarterings is apt to become reckless in matters of style, but to the ordinary reader such blunders are annoying.

Having pointed out the inherent weaknesses of the book, it is only fair to show by a few extracts that it is not devoid of interest. Many readers will agree with Gray's words, "I love the people that leave some traces of their journey behind them"; and, though it does not fall to the lot of every diarist to provide material for the historian as Walpole and Arthur Young did, nevertheless such chronicles can scarcely fail to be of some value.

In 1884 Lord Gower was in Boston and called on Oliver Wendell Holmes, who told him that "Americans had not cared for Carlyle's denunciation of the North in the civil war more than one does for a dog that yelps after a carriage." In 1885 he met Dr. Schliemann, who said that he had not had time these last eighteen years to keep himself *au courant* of anything but Homer and Troy. Here is a description of Nile scenery:

"I was up early, and saw the moon, still brilliant, giving way majestically to the rising sun. In front of my cabin rose a noble row of palms, the river flowing by in front; these trees stood out red against the rising sun, which paled the moonlit sky. On the right a lantern on our dahabeah threw out a bright track of light across the water; thus there were three lights all combined—a difficult subject for a painter to attempt."

And here is an account of Renan:

"He is one of the uncouthest and uncanniest-looking of mortals—all head and

belly, no legs to speak of—a general look of a half-frog, half-human being. He is most amiable and courteous in manner, but he has a tiresome way of apparently agreeing with whatever is said."

Lord Gower once asked Millais whether he should call him "Sir John" or, as Lady Millais did, "Sir Everett." He answered: "Well, you see, my dear fellow, my wife married John Ruskin before she did me, and that makes her dislike the name of John." Gladstone, in speaking to Lord Gower about different royalties, said that all the Georges except George III. were scoundrels, and that no royalty he had ever met had such charm and tact as the then Prince of Wales. On another occasion Gladstone referred to meeting Macaulay in Rome in 1837. Macaulay spoke of taking a daily walk in St. Peter's, and on Gladstone asking him what most attracted him in that place, he replied, "The temperature." Lord Gower wrote to the Duke of Norfolk for some information about the Tower of London, and the Duke replied: "It is a subject in connection with which our family have often lost their heads so completely that you can hardly expect me to give any very clear information."

In his preface, Lord Gower claims that nothing in his book will be found to be "set down in malice," and this claim seems to be justified.

Mary Boyle, Her Book. Edited by Sir Courtenay Boyle. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The death, in 1890, of Mary Boyle, one of the famous Boyles of the family of the Earls of Cork and Orrery, threw half of London society into slight mourning, and caused a faint ripple on the surface of London literary life. "Few have paid more visits to the country houses of the upper classes," said a writer in the *Academy*, with more accuracy than good taste. Mr. Theodore Watts-Dunton, on the other hand, who wrote her obituary notice in the *Athenæum*, dwelt on Miss Boyle's friendships with literary men, and assumed that these intimacies, rather than her own achievements in literature, or her social position, had made her "almost prominent." It is the fate of certain persons who possess great social charm and sympathetic manners to be appreciated solely for themselves during life, and after death to shine, if they shine at all, by a reflected light. If Mary Boyle had not written a spasmodic journal in a naïve and entertaining style, she would now be buried fathoms deep in the indices of the biographies of her brilliant friends. She was the familiar friend of Dickens; but who would gather the fact from the two slight references to "Miss B." in the index of Forster's 'Life'? Landor admired her, and said of her, with more enthusiasm than judgment, "Mary is more than clever; she is profound"; but one does not think of Mary Boyle as one of Landor's set. Tennyson, whose son married her niece, addressed a poem to her in 1888, which is printed in the introduction to the present volume. The last stanza contained a prophecy soon to be fulfilled for both:

"The silver year should cease to mourn and sigh—
Not long to wait—
So close are we, dear Mary, you and I,
To that dim gate."

We do not remember that this poem, entitled "Spring Flowers," is mentioned in Lord Tennyson's 'Life,' where but slight notice is taken of Mary Boyle. She was a frequent and welcome visitor at Casa Guidi, and was intimate with the Carlyles. In fact, there were few English literary men of distinction with whom, in the course of her long life of eighty years, she was not on more or less friendly terms. Charles Lever knew her in Italy, and of him she tells a story that should have pleased Mr. Bret Harte:

"On the table lay a volume of Bret Harte's parodies of popular novelists, and I, volunteering to read a passage aloud, asked if he could recognize the authorship. It was the narrative of a cavalry officer who, in the heat of an engagement, took a flying but unwilling leap over a horseman in a dark cloak, cocked hat, and white feathers. As far as I can remember the words —'My horse cleared the obstacle well; I lifted my eyes, and found myself for the first time in the presence of Field-Marshal the Duke of Wellington!' Never shall I forget Lever's burst of laughter, which seemed to flood the whole room with sunshine. 'Upon me soul, I believe it's meself; it's uncommonly like me.'" (P. 214.)

Mr. Watts-Dunton speaks of Miss Boyle's charm as indescribable and perhaps unique. Witty all allowed her to be; we quote from the introduction an instance of a ready repartee:

"It was at Ashbridge that, some years before the present Bishop of Ely [Lord Alwynne Compton] put on lawn, there flashed forth one of those keen answers with which she often delighted her hearers. They were discussing some important point of High Church—Low Church—Moderate Church. As luncheon was announced, a prudent critic of the discussion said: 'Well, after all, it is very true that *via media securum iter*.' 'You don't know what that means, Mary?' 'Oh, yes, I do! That is what Lord Alwynne says: "Caution is the way to secure a mitre."'"

Mary Boyle's fame was not strong enough for exportation; so delicate a vintage was for home consumption, and probably few people in America are familiar with her name. Her journal is worth reading for the pleasant if superficial impression of many interesting people, men of affairs, actors, poets, and novelists. The Boyle family is connected with the best blood in England, and in the country houses which she calls her "extra homes" Mary Boyle spent much of her time. Thus we get glimpses of life at "Burghley House by Stamford Town," Bowood, and Longleat. Her poetical drama, "The Bridal of Melcha"; her poem, "My Father's at the Helm" (once greatly in vogue); her novels, written under the influence of Scott and G. P. R. James; her art criticism, have not survived to the present day. She lays little stress on that side of her activities, and is singularly free from the vanity of minor writers.

The volume is attractively got up, and has some pleasing illustrations.

Nathan Hale, 1776: Biography and Memorials. By Henry Phelps Johnston. New York: Privately printed. 1902.

Nathan Hale was hung as a self-confessed spy, when in his twenty-second year. In his short life few incidents above the ordinary are to be found, and the materials bearing upon his early years are naturally slight and much disjointed. He was of good New England stock, and his training was of the usual quality of his time. His entrance into Yale College, his service as a teacher until the Revolution called him into the field, and his ready response to the call of patriotism—such are the known incidents of his life. A shadowy romance is traced, and his friendships aid us to form some idea of his thoughts and ambitions. Yet a youth who had passed his life in a quiet Connecticut town in colonial times must have been immature, and whatever expansion of character came to him was due to a sound training and his experience in camp. In the latter place he met men from other colonies, and notably from the southward, whose habits were very different from his own. The school-teacher, with half-formed ideals, developed rapidly until he was ripe for martyrdom; and when the final test came, he is found fully equipped for meeting it with a simple dignity that proved his worth.

Professor Johnston has made the most of his material, and has carefully garnered every reference to Hale or the regiment in which he served. Step by step his movements are traced from the camp near Boston to New York, in the spring of 1776, and the most trivial facts have been skilfully used to round out the story. Naturally, where so little of Hale's own writing remains, great dependence is had on the scattered chance references to him and on the general conditions of army and people at this time. The background of the picture is so carefully filled in as sometimes to detract from the prominence intended for the young hero. With the military operations of the campaign of 1776 Mr. Johnston is familiar, having made a special study of them. He will not admit that Washington made a tactical blunder in placing so large a force on Long Island, where escape was difficult and the chances of defeat almost certain. He believes, however, that the result was a "disaster," and that is only the truth, as the day cost Washington upwards of eleven hundred men. In the battle Hale had no part, but it was because of the defeat and uncertainties following it that Hale found his mission and death. What connection Washington had with his journey into the British camp is uncertain, and it is hardly possible that it was immediate. The details of the "secret service" were held by others, and not even to the members of Washington's own military family were the names of the agents known. Further, the machinery of this intelligence system could hardly have been perfected at the time of Hale's venture. The position of Tory and Whig in New York was not determined, and the subsequent long years of internecine strife in Westchester County and New Jersey proved how evenly balanced the two factions remained. A suggestion from headquarters and a performance by Knowlton would be sufficient, and we cannot but think that Mr. Johnston errs in seeking to give Washington a prominent share in the undertaking of Hale's journey. Heath and Clinton seem to have been in charge of the spies.

The known facts of Hale's life are so few that the imagination is drawn upon for material. Exploits, such as the capture of a provision sloop under the *Asia's* guns, are assigned to him, with just sufficient probability to make it difficult to disprove them. Calmness and judgment in time of danger are assumed to belong to him, and, in the light of the final tragedy, rare qualities of temper and operations of mind are

conferred upon him. He is made to look upon what is passing around him not in a natural and even casual way, but with the intensity of an impending disaster. The story is told sympathetically, and with a detail that proves the industry of the writer. The entries from the British orderly-books and from the logs of the British vessels near New York enable Mr. Johnston to correct the current story of Hale's capture, and this may be considered the most important contribution made to history by the present volume. Hale's diary while in service is given in full, and the many admirable illustrations and the beauty of print make the volume a worthy tribute to the memory of the man.

Robespierre: A Study. By Hilaire Belloc, B.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Beside Mr. Belloc's volume on Danton may now be placed a study of Robespierre which is conceived in much the same spirit and executed in much the same style. The spirit is that of reverence for the Revolution; the style is that of one who is endeavoring to reconcile poetry with prose, and the demands of historical accuracy with an aspiration to interpret the hidden truths of character and motive. Here are deep problems, or rather they would seem such did not Mr. Belloc attack them so lightheartedly. Whatever the shortcomings of this book may be deemed to be by those who admire the National Convention less than Mr. Belloc does, it is instinct with energy. However closely it may seem to identify original power with the love of strange words and unusual phrases, we cannot truly say that the author, in his search for picturesqueness, has merely discovered mannerisms. Striking language will be found in every chapter and on every page. Whether or not it gives pleasure must depend largely upon individual taste. Those who like a copious and fervid diction may be greatly impressed—those who do not may be inclined to close the book at the end of the preface. For ourselves, we have found that Mr. Belloc's strain, as it rushes on from paragraph to paragraph at a sustained pitch of declamation, is somewhat exhausting, but we would not deny him for a moment the merits of good scholarship, ingenuity, and rhetorical skill. Though good taste may be at times overshadowed by assertiveness, this volume pays homage to an idea which now if ever we need to emphasize—the idea, namely, that if historical research is a science, historical composition is an art.

For the average man the name of Robespierre connotes the Terror, and particularly the Great Terror. But here Mr. Belloc intervenes to distinguish between creating and using. "It is a grave historical error to confuse Robespierre with the Terror—indeed, it is an error no longer committed save by historians whose ignorance of the French language and of recent research preserves them in a traditional net." In our opinion the test point is Robespierre's responsibility for the law of 22 Prairial, An II., which "deprived the accused of defenders, dispensed with witnesses, and substituted moral for material proofs [Aulard]." Concerning the fact of his connection with this measure there can be no dispute. He drafted it himself, although Couthon was the agent who presented it. What happened during those ghastly forty-nine days, when 1,376 victims were hurried to the guillotine, is, in one sense, but too well known; yet as to Robespierre's direct part in the carnage some misapprehension still exists. During the last weeks of his life he seldom attended the meetings of the Committee, and no list save that of 2 Thermidor bears his name. Mr. Belloc's hypothesis is, that in the early summer of 1794 he wished to stop the Terror and come forward as the saviour of France. In support of this view, which he admits is not capable of definite proof, the author appeals to some words of Barère: "Robespierre perished because he would have stopped the great career of the Revolution." It seems a risk to lay much stress upon one of Barère's phrases, but Mr. Belloc's point is that the Committee, before waiting to be destroyed, anticipated Robespierre and used the power which was given it in a way he did not approve. Where he had thought himself the master, he found Carnot, Barère, and Prieur, with different aims and considerable determination, in control of the machine. He quarrelled with them and he fell.

Mr. Belloc bases his book chiefly upon the material which was collected by Ernest Hamel, but he does not go nearly so far as Hamel did in vindication of Robespierre. We quote one passage which shows this, and which also shows Mr. Belloc's style when it is not quite at its best:

"The hopeless oneness of structure that is for living things a negation of life, the single outlook and exiguous homogeneity of his mind, made him in the first troubling hopes of the Revolution a shaft or guide, in its dangers and betrayals, an anchor, in its high last and vain attempt to outstrip our human boundaries, a symbol, and in its ebb of return to common living a tedium and a menace. For when men of human complexity reposed at last in victory, and had leisure to balance things again, he was seen to have neither instructive human foreknowledge nor the sad human laughter, and there was no exile in his eyes."

It would be a capital omission in giving an account of this book to neglect Mr. Belloc's personality. Where the writer keeps himself in the background, the reviewer has no excuse for dragging him upon the stage, but where, as in the present case, a large number of confidences are frankly offered, there can be no reason why one should not take notice of the fact. In a word, Mr. Belloc shows signs of possessing a certain quality which he shares with Cicero, Rousseau, and Charles Sumner. He is neither reticent about expressing his own sentiments nor weakened by any distrust in the value of his own judgments. Thus, a good deal of his eloquence suggests the college debating society, while the marks of youthfulness may be seen from the first sentence, in which he sits "alone at evening before a fire of logs in a room near the Rue St. Honoré," to the last in which he refers to himself as one who hopes for better things. Were Mr. Belloc devoid of talent, it would not be worth while to notice a fault of manner which threatens to become serious. We only criticise this aspect of the book because we have a sincere belief that, if the author is willing to use a little more repression, he can write considerably better than he has done as yet. Of course, every man must develop his own style, and no one should demand that individuality be unduly checked; but, in this instance, the danger does not lie on the side of self-effacement.

This is not an ordinary biography, but an interpretation of character, which, as respects the treatment of literature and history, follows canons of its own. If in some ways it is marred by affectation, it cannot be termed commonplace, and from time to time it reaches the pitch of eloquence which it so constantly strives to attain.

The Georgian Period: Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work. By Frank E. Wallis, C. Bertram French, E. P. Morrill, E. Eldon Deane, Theo. H. Skinner, C. M. Bill, and others. Part IX. American Architect & Building News Co. 1902.

In repeated notices in these columns the great excellence of this collection has been pointed out. Sometimes the number is devoted to large plates, mainly copies of line drawings; sometimes it is rather to photographs of the existing house or church that its space is given up; sometimes there is a sheet or two of text with inserted illustrations. The number before us partakes of all of these characteristics. Mr. Paul Waterhouse, an English architect, contributes an article, which is illustrated with photographs by W. Galsworthy Davie—a well-known compiler of important architectural books. The title of it is "The Relation of Georgian Architecture to Carpentry"; and the half-tone prints, nineteen in number, of European origin, though some of the American examples invade the English writer's text, is followed by what appears to be an editorial note on Seventeenth Century Houses, and that by an article on Dutch and German eighteenth-century work, all apparently in America. There is also an article by Theodore H. Skinner on the University of Virginia, and one by James Eastus Price on the Cape Fear district of North Carolina. The illustrations in these papers are partly half-tone prints and partly reproductions of drawings. After we have turned over the five sheets of printed matter (folio size, let it be remembered), we come to the plates, these again partly pictorial views taken by the camera from nature, but in this instance much more frequently reproductions of line drawings made with the T-square and triangle in the orthodox architectural way. Those rigidly drawn details are pretty sure to be accurate—at least it is a point of honor among persons who make *relevés* of this kind to give the exact curve and the right number of flutes or of billets, and so these drawings at least do not belie the character of the original. So much is not to be said of the drawing of the very interesting front door and steps of the Cowles house at Farmington, for here that which is in reality a smooth and smug piece of neoclassic work, with well-levelled and well-pointed brickwork and glossy, white-painted wooden door, columns, entablature, festoons, and fanlight—all as neat as the tool could make it—is turned by the draughtsman's art into something very picturesque indeed, like a fourteenth-century front door in Normandy. Nothing but praise, however, can be given to the drawing of the church tower in Plate 19. There, in despite of the temptations to a false picturesqueness, the hard, square-edged, boxy look of the original tower is preserved, and there can be no higher praise than that when we

are considering, not landscape art, but the facts of existing architecture.

A small prospectus laid within the cover states that there will be only three parts more of the work. The price of publication is not clearly given in this prospectus; but that is indifferent, as information can be obtained by writing to the American Architect & Building News Co.

What Is Christianity? Lectures delivered in the University of Berlin during the Winter Term, 1899-1900, by Adolf Harnack. Translated into English by Thomas Bailey Saunders. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901.

In his preface to the English edition of this important work, Professor Harnack says that theologians "only half discharge their duties if they think it enough to treat of the gospel in the recondite language of learning, and bury it in scholarly folios." But not all who can use the recondite language can, at the same time, express themselves in such a simple and straightforward manner as does Professor Harnack in these lectures. Many who have followed him through the laborious dulness of his 'History of Dogma,' will wonder at the ease and freshness of his present form. They will wonder more when they read in Mr. Saunders's preface that these lectures were delivered extemporaneously. An enthusiastic hearer took them down in shorthand and presented Professor Harnack with a complete report of what he had said. A few corrections were sufficient to bring the lectures into their present shape. Harnack is not a prophet without honor in his own country. It gives some idea of his vogue that these lectures were attended by 600 students from all departments of the Berlin University.

Perhaps their most interesting aspect is the comment they afford on the pious flurry which, not long ago, was occasioned by Professor Harnack's critical estimate of the chronology of the New Testament books. The more conservative hailed that estimate as reactionary to a remarkable degree, and those who knew least of the details of the criticism were most vociferous in their delight that the learned professor had become as one of them. In fact, the criticism was reactionary only as related to such an extreme throwing forward of New Testament dates as that of F. C. Baur; it remained farther from the traditional standpoints than the radical criticism of Renan, notably with reference to the Fourth Gospel, which Professor Harnack cannot assign to the Apostle John. But what was most significant in the jubilation over Professor Harnack's "reaction" was the inference from his earlier dates that everything in the New Testament must be taken at its face value, with the effect of a complete endorsement of the traditional theology. To read these lectures is to become aware how far any one entertaining such ideas reckoned without his host. For Professor Harnack the New Testament literature is a distorted shadow of things actually said and done—not an exact report of them—while his construction of the nature and character of Jesus is far less conservative than the older Unitarianism in America, or than the English type even.

While Prof. Harnack is commonly regarded as an eminent representative of the Ritschlian school, there is little here to identify him with it beyond his frank distaste for an elaborate Christology. To the doctrine of Christ's double nature he has a particular aversion. After a preliminary chapter, the next following discusses the sources of information and certain prominent aspects of the history. We read of the Fourth Gospel that it "does not emanate or profess to emanate from the Apostle John," and, though "not altogether devoid of a real, if scarcely recognizable traditional element, it can hardly make any claim to be an authority for Jesus's history." Strauss's mythical theory is rejected in set terms, while at the same time immense concessions are made to it. All the birth-stories are frankly brushed aside, and the accounts of miracles are reduced to "the sifted sediment of a residuum." Cures may have been effected by the spiritual force of Jesus, but nearly all the miracle stories arose from misconceptions of one kind or another. Of the traditional evidential miracle—a violation of natural law—no shred is suffered to remain. At the same time, it is contended that the Synoptic Gospels give us a clear account of Jesus's teachings, of "his life's issue in his vocation," and of the impression which he made on his disciples and which they transmitted. Good reasons are given for denying to Jesus any sympathetic relations with the Essenes. Those for the absence of any Greek influence are less satisfactory, and seem to suffer something like contravention from Professor Harnack himself.

The message of Jesus is declared to be one of great simplicity—that the kingdom of God was coming; the infinite value of the human soul; the higher righteousness. and the commandment of love. It is conceded that, over against the kingdom of God, Jesus saw a kingdom of the devil, sharing this idea with his contemporaries. There is something very naïve and pathetic in Professor Harnack's plea for a kindly judgment of this mistaken view. He is quite sure that our modern opinions have their husk as well as kernel, and that we too shall require kindly judgment of our posterity. Surely this is about as far from the identification of Jesus with the infinite God as a genial scholarship can go.

In a succession of interesting chapters we have the teachings of Jesus considered in their relations to asceticism; to the social question, especially as affecting the poor; to questions of law and order; to civilization in general; to Christology; and to matters of doctrine and creed. In several of these chapters, were Tolstoy never mentioned, we should know that Professor Harnack had him vividly in mind. But he refers to him frequently, and it is mainly against him that he endeavors to free Jesus from the implications of asceticism, a drastic view of property, and opposition to all legal requirements and the use of force. Clearly upon this ground Professor Harnack does not fight as one who beats the air. Among his six hundred students, doubtless there were many Tolstoïans, socialists, anarchists. One cannot but admire the deftness of his exegesis, while unable to agree with him that the teachings of Jesus are perfectly evident. Where it requires so delicate an instrument as Professor Harnack's exegesis to separate Christ's apparent teachings from the real, it is not strange that so many have gone quite astray. The general contention is that Christ's concern was entirely with the individual, and that we have no right to go to him for answers to specific social questions or for particular political programmes.

Coming to Christological matters, the simple humanity of Jesus is set forth in terms of unmistakable lucidity: "This feeling, praying, working, struggling, and suffering individual is a man who, in the face of his God, associates himself with other men." "The gospel as Jesus proclaimed it has to do with the Father only, and not with the Son." There is a lack of clearness at one point: we are told that Jesus did not claim to be the Son of God, and elsewhere we are told in what sense he made this claim (pp. 138, 156). The view of his Messiahship is opposed to Wellhausen's, which Martineau adopted, viz., that Jesus did not think of himself as the Messiah. Professor Harnack's view appears to us much more credible than the view to which it is opposed. Of the teaching that to appropriate the gospel a man "must learn to think rightly about Christ," he says, "That is putting the cart before the horse."

The most central interest of a chapter on the Apostolic Age pertains to the resurrection of Jesus. We are assured that faith in immortality is independent of "a foundation unstable and always exposed to fresh doubts." We cannot be so much as certain that Paul knew the story of the empty grave. Paul has a chapter to himself. It denies with equal confidence that Paul founded Christianity and that he corrupted it. He continued it in the spirit of its founder; but his metaphysical treatment of Jesus was the source of many ills. Of these we hear much in the chapters on Greek and Roman Christianity. Especially in the former, Professor Harnack's foot is on his native heath, he has so carefully, in his 'History of Dogma,' elaborated the development of the Catholic Church through its struggle with Gnosticism. The part played by theological fictions in this development is not concealed, nor does Professor Harnack refrain from the damnable heresy that the chief of these was the identification of the Logos with Jesus with which the Fourth Gospel sets out. The indictment of Greek and Roman Christianity is very stern. Both are pronounced foreign to the gospel, which they only accidentally preserve. It is conceivable that a Greek or Roman Christian would have written these chapters differently; the one on Protestantism, also—though Professor Harnack puts his finger, there, on many ailing spots.

Chine Ancienne et Nouvelle. Par G. Weulersse. Paris: Armand Colin.

The author of this lively work, who has a good French style, enjoys a travelling fellowship of the University of Paris. He gives here his reflections and impressions of the oldest nation, that may yet be the youngest in the list of the world's surprises. At Hong Kong he was struck with the extreme originality of a modern city which includes two great civilizations, Oriental and Occidental, and was mightily impressed with the grandeur of England in the East—her unnumbered ships and the wonders

which she has accomplished in sixty years. At Kowlun he noted the enormous number of "go-downs"—those stone storehouses so characteristic in countries where fire makes such ravages. He gives a long description of Canton, takes us to Shanghai and Wu-sung; and with his own keen eyes we seem to see everything, new and old. In the Yangtse valley at Hankow and Nanking he is deeply impressed with the immense commercial future for this river region, which excels all others in China. He was unable to get to Tientsin or Peking, on account of the Boxer uprising and the Boxer-like attack of the "Christian nations" on the Taku forts.

All his descriptions are bright and informing. By far the most interesting to readers of the present day are the studies (in Part ii.) which he has made of the economic situation. He faces the supposed Chinese peril by acknowledging the great natural resources and the industry of the people, but points out the defects as well as the qualities of the Chinese workman. The inferiority of the production in China as compared to the richness of the natural resources seems to him almost incredible, despite the evidence immediately before him. While the political administration remains hopelessly corrupt, there is little danger to the West from the menace of an economical invasion. The phantom of the yellow peril will be nothing but a phantom so long as the Chinese people are in the grip of the mandarins. Nevertheless, the steady invasion of Western ideas in China is destroying the power of the literati, and none know it better than these devotees of a hoary system. Discussing education and the teaching of the missionaries, especially of the Jesuits, whose colleges he visited, M. Weulersse notes also the modern official Chinese curriculum, especially at the College of Nan-yang, which was established in 1898, during the hundred days' reform. In the English or American schools the English language is taught from infancy, so that correct pronunciation and idioms are mastered. There is a French school at Shanghai, and it remains for the French to develop it for the profit of France and China.

With unsparing frankness the author, in examining the commercial situation, shows why the exports from France are so much less than from other countries. The articles are too dear, the exporter too timid, and the means of transportation inferior. At home the Frenchmen imagine that because what they get from China is luxuries, the Chinese must therefore be rich; whereas, taken altogether, they are very poor. The Americans and Germans know the reality, and understand the Chinese and their customs better. The only line of French steamers is the Messageries Maritimes, and these are in a state of decay. On the Yangtse River alone, while the English have several great lines, the Japanese one, and the Germans two, the French have none. Our author pleads for more energy and intelligence in his countrymen, if commercial success is to be won. Amid the preponderance of English, Japanese, and Russians, French influence is wofully lacking because of a certain want of cohesion among the French themselves. They are not vividly interested. They do not seek to penetrate the problem of country or people, but exercise a sort of "moral absenteeism." France in China is deprived of the organs necessary to action and resistance. A college for French youth, a business college for commercial apprentices, and a strong French newspaper are crying needs. In the chapter on diplomacy, it is shown that the diplomatic servants of France are badly paid. In the eyes of the Chinese the French have "lost face," and count no more as a naval power. In spite of all criticism, France need not despair of commercial expansion in this, one of the finest fields. M. Weulersse would have the unproductive north of China left alone. Concentration of influence and commerce should be made in the region of the Yangtse valley. With a French colony in Indo-China, and a base of operations, there should be for the French permanent interest and rights in China.

Treating of the moral interests of the Chinese Empire, M. Weulersse pays a high tribute to the Jesuits, who have organized the meteorological service of China, while the most recent studies of the hydrology of the Yangtse are by them. Yet he doubts their success spiritually. His analysis of the causes of the Boxer uprising shows subtle discrimination of the strength and weakness, both of the Catholics and the Protestants; the former with their immovable doctrines, and the latter with their more supple teachings. Yet he declares that the onset was against foreigners rather than Christians. The deepest cause of chronic disturbance is the interpenetration of Western civilization in every form with Orientalism; in a word, the eternal conflict between the Orient and the Occident. Incidentally, he shows how the preoccupation of a great Power like England with a handful of farmers in South Africa gave the Boxers their immediate encouragement to strike.

Altogether this is a bright and timely book.

The Memoirs of François René, Vicomte de Chateaubriand. Translated by Alexander Texeira de Mattos. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

This translation of the famous 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' could hardly have found a more favorable moment for its appearance. During the last few years, French critics of royalist or ultramontane leanings (notably M. Brunetière, among the latter) have attempted, with some success, a sort of Chateaubriand revival. To the majority of English readers his name suggests rather tales of the last of Moorish chivalry or the idealized redskin than the series of early nineteenth-century scenes and portraits of which, in French literature, the only rivals are to be found in the pages of Saint-Simon. It is possibly the sense of the difficulties involved in the rendering of a highly individual style that has hitherto kept off the incompetent, thus leaving to Mr. Texeira de Mattos the opportunity for an English version which, in spite of the translator's uncompromisingly foreign name, is almost entirely free from blemish. We have not for many years come across a translation of any important work from French into English showing an equally delicate grasp of word-equivalences joined with the comprehension of the idiomatic demands of the language into which the work is to be rendered.

In proof of this, the reader may safely turn to such memorable passages as the account of Chateaubriand's boyish reveries (i., 85), the author's wanderings among the North American Indians (i., 217), the love episode at Beccles (ii., 86), or the execution of the Duc d'Enghien (ii., 256). Gallicized sentences, such as the following, are rare: "Whether it be that the language has made progress, or that it has gone backward, or that we have advanced in civilization or retreated towards barbarism, it is certain that I find something threadbare, antiquated, grizzled, cold, and lifeless in the authors who were the delight of my youth" (i., 133). We have consequently no hesitation in pointing out a few manifest slips. Madame de Caud (ii., 314) writes to her friend: "Les Blossac m'ont confié dans le plus grand secret une *romance* de toi." The italicized word is not commonly translated as novels (ii., 314). Again, we cannot recognize *precipitously* (iv., 161) as a suitable equivalent for "Les portes des loges s'ouvrirent *précipitamment*."

The four handsome volumes already issued are sufficient to stimulate our looking forward to the forthcoming two which are to complete the series. It is the fascinating record of a life varied beyond the lot of most men, and, in spite of its many errors and its all-devouring egotism, animated by a loftiness of ideal principle which remains associated with the memory of the best of the old *noblesse*.

The Sectional Struggle: An Account of the Troubles between the North and the South, from the earliest times to the close of the Civil War. First Period, ending with the Compromise of 1833. Part concerning the early Tariffs and Nullification. By Cicero W. Harris. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1902. Pp. 343.

Mr. Harris's volume seems to be a fragment of a considerably larger work whose publication in full is, for reasons somewhat obscurely hinted at in the preface, temporarily delayed. The plan apparently contemplates an elaborate history of the United States in all the relations in which the sectional issue between the North and the South has been in any way raised. The present instalment, whose scope is in part indicated by its title, is a minutely detailed study of the debates in Congress on the subject of the early tariffs and nullification; indeed, the matter consists almost wholly of virtual abstracts of the "Annals of Congress" and "Register of Debates" for the period covered. As such, the book has value, but it offers the material for history rather than history itself, and is hardly interesting reading. Even as historical material, too, Mr. Harris's work is incomplete. The important subject of the course of public opinion in the States regarding the tariff is hardly more than referred to, while the effects of tariff legislation on the opinions of members of Congress is inadequately pointed out. As to the growth of nullification sentiment in South Carolina, Mr. Harris adds little, save in the field of Congressional discussion, to what was known before, or which Professor Houston has not more clearly set forth in his 'Critical Study.'

In other words, 'The Sectional Struggle,'

though showing great industry and evincing a good temper, is, so far as the present instalment goes, uncritical and of limited usefulness. It lacks a discriminating summing up of results and an explanation of the bearing of debate on political action. It is to be hoped that Mr. Harris's later volumes may supply this lack.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aikins, H. A. The Principles of Logic. H. Holt & Co. $1.50.
Ballagh, J. C. A History of Slavery in Virginia. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Ballin, Mrs. Ada S. From Cradle to School. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Barton, G. A. The Roots of Christian Teaching as Found in the Old Testament. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co.
Bridgman, Clare. The Bairn's Coronation Book. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 60c.
Bullen, F. T. Deep-Sea Plunderings. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Contentio Veritatis: Essays in Constructive Theology, by Six Oxford Tutors. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Corbin, John. An American at Oxford. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Crane, Walter. Line and Form. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Davidson, L. C. The Confessions of a Match-making Mother. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Dickinson, Edward. Music in the History of the Western Church. Scribners. $2.50.
Duff, Archibald. The Theology and Ethics of the Hebrews. Scribners. $1.25.
Emerson, W. G. Buell Hampton. Boston: Forbes & Co. $1.50.
Fillis, James. Breaking and Riding. (Translated by M. H. Hayes.) Scribners. $5.
Forsyth, A. R. Theory of Differential Equations, Part III.; Ordinary Linear Equations. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Gordon, Samuel. Strangers at the Gate. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Harding, J. W. The Gate of the Kiss. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Isham, A. H. It Is It. Humane Publishers. $1.50.
Jacobs, W. W. At Sunwich Port. Scribners, $1.50.
Jessup, Alexander. The Best of Balzac. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 22, 1902.

The Week.

If May 20, 1902, was a great day for Cuba, it was also a day memorable and honorable in the annals of the United States. Four years ago, in a solemn appeal to the God of battles, this country renounced any intention of exercising jurisdiction over Cuba. It was, we vowed, to secure to the people of that island the blessings of self-government that we went to war, and on Tuesday we had the official notification of the President of the United States that the Government of Cuba was turned over to the people of Cuba. The vow is performed. We have changed not, even if we swore to our own hurt. The spectacle is one for general gratulation. We will not allow any of our fellow-countrymen to surpass us in rejoicing over the glory of our furled flag in Cuba. At the same time, we do not forget what is lacking to make the occasion one of unalloyed satisfaction as patriots. In spite of ourselves, and in the teeth of the good intentions of our people, we cannot be without a certain national shame that we are launching the Cuban republic on so unnecessarily troubled a sea. We have kept our main promise, but the subordinate pledges, the incidental duty, we have left unfulfilled. Only to our own President's message do we need to turn to find what command of "honor" in our relations to Cuba we have failed to obey. We have not been generous. We have not done our best to give the new Cuban nation a fair chance to live and grow. We have wished it prosperity, but we have withheld the means of prosperity. We have cast the bantling republic on the rocks. Everybody knows how this has happened. It is not that we have been ungenerous as a people. Americans, as a whole, would undoubtedly have been more than willing to match deed with word, and give the Cubans a livelihood as well as life. But a selfish commercial policy, which we adopted in the days of our provincialism, has remained to plague us now that our trade and our influence are touching the ends of the earth. Protection has, in the matter of commercial concessions to Cuba, given the crowning proof that it is, in essence, hostile to our true national power and dignity, and is smitten with that selfish blindness which made Spanish policy seem "decrepit and grotesque."

Some will see a pathetic significance in the chance which brought the coronation of the young King of Spain within three days of the date for setting up a Cuban republic. Yet there can be little doubt, and there are many in Spain to-day to assert it, that the loss of Cuba —especially of the Philippines—leaves the Spanish kingdom better off than it was with those colonial millstones hanging about its neck. The outlook for the boy King may not be particularly flattering, but it is far brighter than it would have been if he had come of age, say, in 1897. It is, by the way, interesting to read in that influential Spanish newspaper, *La Epoca*, a plea for the prompt recognition of the Cuban republic by Spain. It urges the Government not to make again the mistake which the Spanish authorities persisted in for so long—that of refusing to recognize the independence of Mexico and the various South American republics. Such a greeting of the new nationality would be very handsome on the part of Spain, and would doubtless arouse enthusiasm in Cuba; but we fear that the Spanish Government will not soon follow England's example in sending a minister to Havana. The reason is that the United States has so tied up the Cuban Government by means of the Platt amendment that the ordinary motives for establishing diplomatic relations with Cuba are destroyed. Foreigners will expect to transact their more important Cuban business in Washington.

The action taken in the Rathbone case does not imply that this offender is to have a new trial. It bestows upon the Supreme Court of Cuba the right to review the evidence taken, and to order a new trial should it find reasons for doing so, or should there be new evidence on behalf of Rathbone. This power of review and right of appeal did not exist, and had to be given at once by the President, as the Cuban republic was on the eve of establishment. The grant is in accord with legal procedure in this country. It will have one unpleasant result, in that the case will now drag its weary length along for many months more. When we think of the earnestness with which the Imperialistic press assured us, two years ago, of the speed with which the postal frauds would be punished, we cannot, in the light of the present freedom on bail of the most prominent offender, doubt that most of the moral effect of the punishment will be lost by the time that Rathbone's case is finally decided.

Far from disposing of the Danish West Indies in a hurry, the Landthing has put the whole matter over to September. This shows a gratifying independence of commercial considerations, for, in view of the precarious conditions of all the Lesser Antilles, any one having islands to sell would naturally sell them while it was possible to deliver the goods. It is said that St. Kitts and St. Thomas are beyond danger of volcanic disturbance, but this is a fairly hazardous assertion. In case of a calamity similar to that which has taken place at Martinique, might not the very interesting question arise, Who is to bear the loss—Denmark or ourselves? International law has, we feel sure, no precedent for the case of an island injured in transit. The offer of the United States is good until withdrawn, and probably the Government of Denmark might, following the example of conveyancers and express companies, disclaim responsibility for a depreciation in value fairly attributable to an "act of God." If this view of the case be just, the Danish Opposition can afford to delay proceedings for political purposes. Whether this is good business is very doubtful. If they were our islands, we should close with Mr. Hay's offer, and take the plébiscite to-morrow.

In connection with the blotting out of human life in Martinique and St. Vincent, we have seen much geological but very little theological speculation. Yet a hundred years ago the latter would have been the more prominent. The difficulty of accounting for such natural evils (as theologians call them in distinction from moral evil) was one which sorely tried the reasoning powers of the eighteenth-century divines who attempted to vindicate the ways of God to man. The cheerful optimism of the English Deists dealt with the matter in a different spirit. Pope enunciated their doctrine, which John Morley says was "only a particular way of repudiating Christianity." The "Essay on Man" takes the comfortable view that "plagues or earthquakes break not heaven's design." A common theory of the older theodicies was that natural evil did indirect good by promoting virtue. Such reasoning would maintain, we suppose, that the Creator destroyed 30,000 human beings in Martinique in order to cultivate the grace of generosity in the United States.

The Boston *Herald* calls attention to the fact that, of all the 350 cases of officers and men tried in the Philippines which were recently sent to Congress by Secretary Root, only one is that of a trial for torture. For hanging certain natives by the neck for ten seconds, a captain and lieutenant were found guilty and given the terrible punishment of receiving a reprimand. This was quite in keeping with the sentence of Lieut. Preston Brown for murdering a native. His pro-

motion to captain was delayed about three months. In the case of Capt. James A. Ryan, Fifteenth Cavalry, a special investigator sent by Gen. Chaffee reported of Ryan's victims that

"each individual, before being examined, had his arms tied to his body in such a manner that he could not protect his head when falling. Then he was stood up erect upon a wooden floor and had his legs knocked from under him; then his body was lifted and his head jolted against the floor once more, whereupon he was stood upon his head in a bucket of water for a certain length of time and then was examined. This process was employed three times in succession before Waldo Abing made his statement. About a dozen of the natives are said to have been tortured in this way."

Capt. Ryan was not put on trial by Gen. Chaffee until the latter was ordered to do so from Washington. Nothing quite so discreditable as this has yet been said about Gen. Chaffee, but there are plenty of less flagrant cases in which he has also failed to do his duty, and shown himself the poorest kind of disciplinarian. Not until Major Waller, an officer of another service, offended, did he find it his duty to ask Washington for a court-martial. Whatever the outcome of this whole question of misconduct in the Philippines, there can be no question that, if Secretary Root and Gen. Chaffee had taken vigorous measures to stop it, the thing would have been checked in its inception. There was plenty of evidence in the Brown case to show how far the demoralization had gone, for officers hitherto favorably known testified then that it was their practice to kill Filipinos without even hailing them. What was the use? they asked. We don't understand Tagalog, and the Filipinos do not know what "stop" or "halt" means.

That much-abused, high-minded, and benevolent assimilator, Gen. Jacob H. Smith, familiarly known as "Hell-Roaring Jake," would seem to be in trouble again. This time it is a miserable Civil Governor, in Leyte, a Capt. J. H. Grant, who accuses him; not one of those absurd humanitarians or weak-kneed Anti-Imperialists who protest against the killing of women and children. The Governor complains, it seems, because the military authorities sustained a severe fright after the massacre at Balangiga, and did many things to hinder the progress of civil government. One of "Jake" Smith's little jokes was the arrest of 150 refugees from Samar who had fled to Tacloban, and this without warrant or process of law. Owing to the nervousness of an officer in charge of a detachment, a number of innocent laborers were killed or wounded in broad daylight, and one citizen was killed as far back as September 30 last by a sentry. About all this Gov. Grant plaintively remarks, "Of course, the people do not understand why these things should take place under civil government." Worst of all, Gov. Grant hints that our noble "Jake" belongs to the Funston class of "newspaper generals," and accuses him of carrying with him his own reporters to blow his horn wherever he goes. These reporters naturally overlooked the fact that Gen. Smith had brought about no captures or surrenders in Leyte. Plainly there is something wrong with Gov. Grant. Like other offenders, he is perhaps "demented," and we expect that Senator Lodge or the *Army and Navy Journal* or other defenders of military crime will demand his scalp at once. They should have it. Any one who would attack our greatest hero, Jacob H. Smith, whose likeness to Sherman and Sheridan is now patent to all our people, should hold no office under "Old Glory."

Though Mr. Carnegie's offer to take the temporary assignment of the Philippines in the interest of peace was of an unusual nature, we think the New York *Times*, with its customary instinct for picturesque and sweeping condemnation, is unduly severe with him. His offer to reimburse the Government for the $20,000,000 stipulated in the Treaty of Paris, and his solicitude to assure the Filipinos that their desire for independence would be gratified, show certainly great generosity and insight into the larger moral issues involved Mr. McKinley could not well accept such an offer; he may well have been surprised at receiving it, but we may be sure that he never said or thought that the proposal was "reckless and wicked." If the *Times* would once rise above its joy in denunciatory rhetoric, it would see that Mr. Carnegie's offer, although impracticable to-day, may be the prophecy of a new era of insular government. How many islands now challenge the beneficence of our latter-day millionaires! Mr. Carnegie wished to buy in order to prevent an insurrection. Other great operators might prefer to purchase an active revolution and a field for diplomacy.

If any lingering doubt remains as to the abstract morality of Mr. Carnegie's insular ambitions, none whatever attaches to his friend Mr. Schwab's purchase of a portion of the south shore of Staten Island as a pleasure ground for the poorer children of the city. Richmond Beach is admirably adapted to that use, and Mr. Schwab will undoubtedly work out sagaciously the practical details of his unique charity. The plan, so far as it has been announced, contemplates the free carrying to the beach of from one thousand to two thousand children a day through the whole summer season, and provision for their comfort and amusement while they stay there. The project will have the cordial approval of all who are interested in work for children, but undoubtedly Mr. Schwab will value more highly the gratitude of thousands of youngsters relieved from the killing heat of the city, and transferred from bricks and asphalt to clean white sand and the refreshment of the sea.

The position of Grand Sachem of Tammany Hall is not an important one in the organization. It is not the rudder of the ship, but the figure-head. In choosing Justice O'Gorman, however, instead of ex-Mayor Van Wyck, Tammany did well. Mr. O'Gorman is a jurist of distinction and a citizen of good repute. So far as a figure-head can serve to give respectability to a thoroughly bad organization, Mr. O'Gorman's name may be of some advantage to the party to which he belongs. If there is a real reformation going on in that quarter, its results will be shown next fall when Congressional nominations are made. It is for the public interest that the representation of New York in the House of Representatives, both Republican and Democratic, should correspond in some measure to its importance in population and commerce, and not fall below the average of the rural districts of our own and other States. If Justice O'Gorman's election prefigures an improvement in that quarter, we shall welcome it when it comes.

Politicians, of course, always consider any new development with reference to its effect on the next election. Consequently the talk among them now is about the bearing of the upheaval in Tammany upon the contest over the Governorship next fall. There is general agreement among them that, as things look at this time, the Nixon incident and the party demoralization which it inevitably involves have destroyed whatever chances the Democrats had before of beating Odell for a second term, if the Governor shall accept a renomination, as everybody now expects that he will. But the results of the present disclosures about Tammany will extend far beyond next fall, and will have a great influence upon the municipal election of 1903. Mr. Nixon's ignominious failure in the attempt to serve as a respectable figure-head for Tammany has shown the city how helpless Mr. Shepard would have been in the mayoralty if he had been elected as the one good man, with his hands tied, in a Tammany Administration. This lesson will sink more and more deeply into the public mind as time passes and the election of next year approaches. It is already clear that no Shepard will then be willing to try the rôle of decoy for a gang of corruptionists, or that, if anybody can be found foolish enough to sacrifice his reputation, he will get only the vote which a typical Tammany man would poll. The question, a year from next fall, will be simply whether the city wants a continuance of

the good government it is getting under Mayor Low, or whether it prefers to wallow again in the Tammany mire. It is an immense gain to the reform cause that the issue is being made so plain.

The ratification on Monday, by the Steel Corporation's shareholders, of the proposal to convert $200,000,000 preferred shares into bonds was, we suppose, expected by everybody. The plan was endorsed by a larger vote of shareholders than the two-thirds required by the New Jersey law; this, too, was in accord with expectations. The Finance Committee did not formally propose the measure, we understand, until it had satisfied itself that such a majority vote of shareholders could be depended on. It is in order, therefore, to advance the argument that, the shareholders having formally approved, the directors have been justified in proposing the bond conversion, and that criticism ought to be stopped. We are unable to accept this argument; first, because if a financial proposal is wrong, it would not be made right even by a unanimous vote of shareholders, and, second, because the shareholders' vote was not unanimous, a minority of some 12,000 shares not only voting against the plan, but protesting in the meeting against it. The strong point of these dissenting speakers lay in their charge that no one had yet informed them why this action, entailing possibilities of great significance, had to be taken at all. You ask us, so said the opposition speakers at Monday's meeting, to run the company in debt to a large amount when we get no new assets whatever in return for it. You offer a commission of something like ten million dollars to a syndicate for the service of guaranteeing the operation, when the conversion could almost certainly be carried out without any intervention. Why were you forced to make so hazardous a move, and why must you pay so great a price for it? Judge Gary, Chairman of the Board, replied to the critics at the meeting in these words: "I am not going to argue the merits of this question now, though personally, and at another time, I shall be glad to explain to you the reasons why these steps were proposed."

Probably the fact that our excess of exports for the ten months of the fiscal year, up to April 30, has fallen off $148,000,000 from the year before, will startle some readers. It is startling, however, only because so much was made, in the three or four years preceding, of what the paragraphers used to call our "gigantic European credit fund." Analysis of the figures of the trade report shows $70,000,000 decrease in ten months' exports. But, of this decrease, fully $63,000,000 is accounted for by the corn and oat-crop failures of last season. Imports for the same period have increased $78,000,000; but recent detailed reports have clearly shown that much the larger part of that increase was in foreign raw material needed by our manufacturers. In the main, both movements are entirely normal. That they are looked on, in Wall Street, with some misgiving, is explained by the well-known fact that our "foreign credit fund" is being rather rapidly replaced by a "foreign debit." Calculations of economic experts, regarding Europe's indebtedness to us or ours to Europe, count for little in the face of a situation where our bankers and stockbrokers are borrowing in London by the million, day after day, to keep their various "deals" in motion.

A system of legislative representation which assigns one member to any town having less than 2,000 of population, two to a town of between 2,000 and 50,000 people, three to a town of 100,000, and four to a town in excess of 100,000, would be hooted at in any State except Connecticut. But the adoption of this system in the Constitutional Convention of that State is a measurable improvement on the existing plan, which ranks the town of 500 with the city of 100,000. What little of triumph there is in this result rests with the reformers in the Convention, who forced this small recognition of population in representation. Fears of the verdict of the voters contributed as much as argument to this end, but the belated recognition of public opinion shows that the Bourbons of Connecticut are learning. At the outset nothing would satisfy them but a recognition of the flat equality of the towns, and the concession now made is born of the political necessity of saving the State to the Republicans. Control of the Legislature is retained in the hands of the little towns, although the representation of many of them is cut one-half. How the Connecticut voters will receive the mongrel representation system adopted remains to be seen. Probably the Republican managers in the State will welcome the outcome as a relief from a threatening political situation, while the voters generally may accept the little reform offered, with the abandonment of the town-equality idea, as a vantage-ground from which to contest for more.

The opening in Berlin on April 15 of a bureau of information for Germans intending to emigrate has given rise to considerable comment on the part of those who see in this undertaking an effort to direct the stream of German emigration into South America or the Imperial colonies. This impression has been heightened by the appointment, as head of the bureau, of a gentleman who has lived many years in South America. The cost of the office is paid partly by the Government and partly by the German Colonial Society. The Berlin *Tageblatt* emphatically denies that there is the slightest desire to discriminate against the United States, and says that the bureau will advise all asking for information to go where the economic conditions are most suitable. Most of the applicants will, it believes, be largely influenced by reports from relatives or friends who have preceded them. At present the *Tageblatt* thinks that the opportunities in Brazil are somewhat better than those in the United States. It believes, however, that the average German is far more attracted by the prospect of living in an Anglo-Saxon community than in a Latin one. In Brazil and elsewhere the immigrants find themselves so little drawn to the people of the country that they are forced to build up communities for the companionship and society of their fellows. It is by no means certain that such communities are of as much service to the Fatherland as is the body of intelligent German-Americans in this country, While acquitting the German Government of the slightest desire to work against the United States, the *Tageblatt* thinks that, instead of striving to make emigration easier, it should find out the causes which drive Germans away, and seek to remedy them by proper industrial and agricultural programmes and laws.

An article in *Blackwood's Magazine* upon the British irregulars enlisted in Cape Colony at the close of 1900 reveals one reason why the Boer opposition to the English has been so bitter and unyielding. Believing that the war was over, hundreds of men, all of them belonging to the much-abused Outlander class, about which Mr. Chamberlain and his party felt so keenly, emerged from their places of refuge in the hope of free transportation to the gold fields. "A mass of degraded manhood," "Greek, Armenian, Russian, Scandinavian, Levantine, Pole, and Jew"; "jail-bird, pickpocket, thief, drunkard, and loafer"—these were the men, it seems, who formed the irregular corps which swept through the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, burning farms, destroying supplies, and carrying out the policy of reconcentration, while "sullying beyond recognition," by associating with them, "old, honored, and existing regiments." Even so pro-British a military paper as *Broad Arrow* admits that "this scum of humanity under British enlistment gave new life to our enemy," who saw in these English recruits men to whom "surrender brought no qualm or disgrace, being possessed of no faculty sensible to shame." These were the men whom England went to war for, and asked to aid her in taking their country away from the Boers.

CAPTAIN MAHAN ON IMPERIAL FEDERATION.

In the current *International Review* Captain Mahan calls attention to the fact, full of interest, as he says, for all Americans, that Great Britain has passed, within the last twenty years, through two crises—that of Home Rule and that of the South African war; both of which he regards as mile-stones on the road to Imperial Federation. It might, perhaps, be questioned whether either crisis is at an end. The Irish question seems as angry as ever: the hundred and first coercion act is just going into operation; and the King, while he crushes the two commonwealths in South Africa, is afraid to set foot in a portion of his own realm. If South Africa is conquered, it is not settled or reconciled, or likely to be settled or reconciled, for many a day. But, waiving this, what have the two crises in common? Great Britain and Ireland are by nature linked together. Great Britain and South Africa are by nature placed wide apart. The same men have upheld the union with Ireland and opposed the South African war. Cecil Rhodes subscribed to Home Rule. The war was sure to rekindle Irish feeling against England; but any other quarrel into which England had got would have done the same.

Captain Mahan sees an analogy between the formation of the American Union and that of the British Empire, both being, as he thinks, brought about by constraining circumstances. The American colonies, he says, began their attempt under the difficulty of mutual alienation. The American colonies, however, were homogeneous in every respect except slavery, which at that time was of secondary importance. Territorially, they were in a ring fence; they were drawn to each other by the most imperative interest, and prepared for political union by confederation in a war for independence. What is there answering to this in the case of the heterogeneous and scattered members of the British Empire? Of what is this empire, the union and future confederation of which are supposed to be the manifest dictate of nature and destiny, composed? It is composed of the thirty-seven millions of people of Great Britain, whose union is complete, saving the semi-nationality of Wales and the strong provincialism of Scotland; the Canadian confederation, partly French, on one side of the globe, and the Australian confederation and New Zealand on the other; South Africa, now wrecked and disaffected; a group of extinct slave plantations in the West Indies, inhabited by two races utterly alien and sometimes bitterly hostile to each other; a provisional protectorate in Egypt; dominion over savage tribes in South Africa; some scattered fortresses; and three hundred millions of Hindu bondsmen, unassimilable aliens, who constitute about five-sixths of the whole population of the Empire. What common law, aspiration, or destiny, what common mission, divine, mystical, or diabolical, can be supposed to pervade, animate, and move such a miscellany as this? Australia is actually passing exclusion laws against the three hundred and odd millions of the black and brown subjects of the Crown. Apparently she intends to exclude them even from her mercantile marine. Dubbing the King an "emperor," which there is just now a passion for doing, will not produce unity where there is none; though it may have a sinister influence on the constitutional character of the British Crown.

Has there, in the thirty years during which Imperial Federation has been preached, been any visible advance towards its realization? The movement has been rather the other way. The jurisdiction of the imperial court of appeal, the Privy Council, which was about the only real vestige of the once imperial authority, has been curtailed by Canada and still more by the Australian confederacy. Australian federation, instead of being a step towards the union of the Empire, is a step towards more complete independence, and is avowedly regarded in that light. The South African war has called forth in the British population in the colonies a gush of British sentiment, largely mingled, however, with bellicose excitement and the love of military adventure. But when the Colonial Secretary invites the Canadian and Australian Premiers to a conference on military and commercial relations, the Canadian Premier answers that he is at liberty to confer on commercial relations alone, while the Australian Premier flatly declines military amalgamation, saying that Australia will provide for her own defence. Lord Salisbury is accordingly awakened to recommend caution and delay.

Captain Mahan admits that Imperial Federation cannot be worked without an organization of some kind. But what the organization is to be he deems it over-curious to inquire. Yet the inquiry is surely needful if the scheme is to get beyond vaporing and a practical effort for its realization is to be made. Where is the supreme power to reside? How are its decrees and requisitions to be enforced? Who is to have the direction of the foreign policy? What is to be done with the three hundred millions of Hindus? How are communities at opposite sides of the globe, knowing hardly anything of each other, to be brought to think and act in common? The fact is, that if you mean to have an empire, you must have an emperor.

"Imperialism," says Captain Mahan, "the extension of national authority over alien communities, is a dominant note in the world-politics of the day." In certain quarters it unquestionably is. There are people who, having discarded the morality of the past, and taken to obeying the indications of "the stars in their courses," are bent upon "imposing peace" upon the whole world, and, if they are Britons, upon "painting the world red." But this is a different thing from a spontaneous confederation, and its first practical applications have aroused very serious resistance.

> "Upon us has devolved, by an inevitable sequence of causes, responsibility to our conscience for an assemblage of peoples in moral and political childhood; and responsibility, further, to the world at large, and to history—the supreme earthly judge of men's actions—for our course in the emergency thrust upon us. As such, the United States has accepted the burden. Its duties are not to be discharged by throwing them overboard, or by wrapping our political talent in a napkin for our own national security and ease."

So the pious McKinley was always telling us, and, were he alive, would be telling us now, probably with increased unction, in face of the "water-cure" and the edict of extermination. But think of an honest tar like Captain Mahan talking such flummery! The other day the Boers were told that they must not call it war to the bitter end, but war to the sweet end; such luscious blessings were in store for such of them as might be left alive. Is not this enough to sicken Tartuffe?

The crisis in South Africa, by the way, can hardly be said to have strongly confirmed Captain Mahan's famous theory about the ascendancy of sea-power. A pair of parochial commonwealths, without a cock-boat on the sea, have for two years and a half withstood the entire force of the greatest sea-power that the world has ever seen. We do not venture to criticise Captain Mahan's theory from a professional point of view; but when it is viewed historically, its foundation appears narrow. Which of the great empires in ancient or modern history has been especially a sea-power? Can this be said of the great Eastern empires, Assyrian, Median, or Persian, of the Empire of Alexander, of the Roman Empire, of the Empire of Charlemagne, of the Saracenic Empire, of the Turkish Empire, of the Spanish Empire, of the Austrian Empire, of the Russian Empire, of the Empire of Napoleon? The great sea-power of antiquity was the Carthaginian, which succumbed to the land-power of Rome. The power of Venice was confined to the sea or to commercial factories, and was killed by a change in the line of trade. Great Britain is an island realm singularly happy in commercial position. Naturally she became a great naval power. But her dominion has been limited to the sea. When, in the great French war, she had destroyed the other navies (which, it must be remembered, had been disorganized by the Revolution), she was herself secure from invasion, and was enabled to pick off the outlying depen-

dencies of the enemy; but in the great struggle on the Continent she was powerless, or could do nothing but subsidize, till a footing on land was given her by the insurrection in Spain. In the struggle with Louis XIV. the fleet, though it gained a victory at La Hogue, played a very secondary part. The chief part was played by land armaments, to which Great Britain sent contingents under William III. and Marlborough. The naval preëminence of Great Britain, with its sources and effects, was already a pretty familiar fact. Is not this the principal basis of Captain Mahan's famous revelation?

LIGHT ON THE COAL STRIKE.

In the general confusion and ignorance about the causes and the merits of the coal strike, an article in the *Yale Review* for May comes as a real illumination. It is a survey of "The Anthracite Coal Situation" as it stood on May 1, and is from the pen of the Rev. Dr. Roberts of Scranton, Pa. We find in it, what we have seen nowhere else, a quiet and impartial account of the status of the whole controversy between miners and operators, with an intelligible statement of what the grievances of the miners really are, together with much light on the nature of employment in the mines, as on the peculiar constitution and the motives and ambitions of the United Mine Workers. All told, this short article is a light in a dark place.

To begin with the complaints of the miners, Dr. Roberts makes it clear why there was such a diversity of view in the convention that voted the strike, and why the sentiment of the northern coal-miners was so much more violent than that of the southern and middle fields. In the latter region, where the Reading Coal and Iron Company is supreme, there are practically no grievances, except against a few individual operators, and the men did not want to strike. The delegates from the Schuylkill districts were the conservative and moderating element in the April convention at Shamokin, as well as in the recent one at Hazleton. Yet at both they declared that if the grievances of the workers in the Wyoming and Lackawanna valleys were not redressed, they would join them in a strike, so as to present a united front for the whole Miners' Union. What, then, are the complaints of the miners in the northern coal fields? In a word, breach of faith on the part of the operators. They have not, so the miners assert, lived up to the terms of settlement of 1900. "The managers then promised that contract prices and allowances which had been reduced should be restored, that excessive dockage should no longer prevail, and that all reasonable grievances should be locally adjusted. This," the miners declare, "has not been done."

These local grounds for strike in the First District do not, of course, tell the whole story. They account for the greater intensity of feeling among the northern delegates, but do not cover the case. There are demands for new privileges as well as for redress of old grievances. The weighing of coal is insisted upon, with the ton reckoned at 2,240 pounds, instead of 2,700. A return to the old custom of loading coal even with the top of the car is also demanded, with the abolition of the eighteen inches of "topping" now required by the foremen. There are also details about uniform wages for working the same veins, uniform rates for contract work throughout each district, and uniform allowances for timber and water —that is, where a miner has to timber his own chamber or bail water. Finally, there is the demand for an eight-hour day, at present wages.

This last relates only to mine laborers, and thereby hangs a curious tale of the organization of the Union. It is really composed of conflicting elements—the boss miners and the laborers. The former pay the latter, so that when the laborers strike for higher wages, they are really striking against brothers in their own Union. The miners, for their part, dexterously shift the strike over to the operators. What they say is, in effect, "Grant us higher wages, and we will increase the pay of the laborers." Dr. Roberts reports other grievances of the laborers which are valid, not against the companies, but against the miners. Most of the laborers are foreigners, principally Slavs; the miners are Anglo-Saxon. Under the mining laws, after a laborer has worked two years he is entitled to a miner's certificate, and to be assigned a chamber of his own. But a vacancy must exist, and the boss miners see to it that one seldom occurs. The laborers discover that most of them will be kept laborers for ever. This makes them bitter against the miners, and they have often threatened an independent organization. Another grievance of theirs is the violation of the State mining law, which forbids miners to leave the laborers alone in charge of the chamber. This is habitually done in the northern field, where "the major part of the miners are home at noon," with their $3 earned, while the laborers work on for ten hours for $1.75. Thus it is clear that a large part of the trouble is what may be called internal to the Union. This is made up of two classes whose interests clash, and to adjust these the operators are called upon to pay higher wages.

Dr. Roberts also makes it evident that a strike now and then is almost the vital breath of the Union, as now constituted and led. We quote a significant passage:

> "The leaders of the miners' organization are kept busy devising means whereby the interest of the members in the Union may be maintained. Indifference, jealousy, and dissension are constantly invading its ranks. During the last year, when the industry was to a great extent peacefully conducted, the interest flagged. About 20 per cent. of the men neglected to pay their dues, and another 20 per cent. perfunctorily paid their money, and took no interest in the organization. When the last convention was called, and the rumors of conflict filled the air, the delinquents soon fell into line. The Union is only interesting to a large number of its members when a conflict is impending."

Evidence is adduced also of the inability of the Union to control its members, even when it is "recognized." They are a restless set. To keep them in line, 140,000 strong, and with all their diversity of race and of interest, seems impossible to any leader. Mr. Mitchell was asked by the president of one of the coal roads, "Are you able to hold your men in hand?" "Yes," he replied confidently. "But," said the other, "they had 123 strikes last year." This was true, says Dr. Roberts. In spite of the agreement of 1900, accepted by the Union, there were in 1901 no less than 123 strikes in the 450 mines operated—that is, one in every fourth colliery. And in nearly every case these local strikes were the result of utterly unreasonable demands made upon the employers. No wonder that the companies are shy of putting themselves in the hands of such a slippery labor organization.

Any one who will read attentively this informing article in the *Yale Review* cannot fail, we think, to conclude that this half-hearted strike was founded on about one part of real grievance to nine parts of an emergency within the Miners' Union. It was a case of strike or disruption. The discontent was more within the labor organization, and on the part of one of its classes against the other, than in the conditions of the mining industry as a whole. President Mitchell apparently did not want a strike, but was the victim of the unruly Union behind him, and of his own promises, made in undue reliance upon political pressure and the intervention of the Civic Federation. The inference is unavoidable that the strike should never have been declared, and should now be promptly settled on the best terms attainable, or "called off" in confession of mistake and failure.

THE REAL TAMMANY.

Mr. Lewis Nixon's selection as leader of Tammany Hall always seemed to us as absurd as the appointment of a New England deacon to the command of a pirate ship. Yet, with his ideas of naval discipline, he seemed to think that a good man on the quarterdeck would speedily reform the cutthroats in the forecastle. He ostentatiously hauled down the black flag. He made the crew throw away their cutlasses, and piped them regularly aft to prayers. They entered heartily for a time into the spirit of the joke—one of the best of their late captain's, Deadeye Dick, they thought it

—spruced themselves up, left off their grog, plotted their piracies and murders only between-decks, and undertook to be in public as sweet and submissive as a Pirate of Penzance. But this could not last. The free life of the buccaneer on the bounding wave, watching for his prey, soon reasserted its power over them, and they promptly notified their reforming commander that the little farce of his nominal leadership was over.

This is the real significance of Mr. Nixon's indignant retirement from the headship of Tammany. He has at last discovered, what he should have known from the first, that light hath no fellowship with darkness, and that an honest man, bent on good municipal government, is as much out of place among existing Tammany sachems and district leaders as a Sunday-school superintendent would be in the councils of Beelzebub. The whole thing was a fraud and imposture from the beginning. We do not say that Mr. Nixon was a party to the attempt to deceive the public. His character he has saved at the expense of his intelligence. He vowed from the first that he would not be a mere figurehead, though every one knew he was just that; and when even he found out that both Croker and the other Tammany magnates had been playing false with him all along, he did the only thing left for an honest man to do—openly said that an effort had been made to cheat and trick him, and that he would have no more to do with an obvious imposition.

The result is of the highest public utility. It leaves Tammany once more unmasked. We see it as it is. All the hypocritical pretences of change of heart and change of method are swept away. Mr. Nixon has, in fact, been of signal service to the city. It took just his peculiar combination of qualities to make the demonstration which he has now afforded us—namely, the complete demolition of the one-good-man theory. The wayfaring man can now perceive that a den of thieves remains a den of thieves even if presided over by a saint. Mr. Nixon seemed as if designed by a kind fate for the very work he has now performed. Even Croker's sagacity would have had to search long before finding another tool so perfectly fitted to his hand. Mr. Nixon was solemnly in earnest. He really seems to have thought that Tammany could be reformed, as the Duke of Wellington imagined England could be governed, by word of command. He had honesty and ability enough to admit that reform was necessary, but his perceptions were so dull, or his experience so slight, that he did not see how impossible it was for Tammany to commit suicide—for a self-reformed Tammany is necessarily a self-killed Tammany. His public utterances about his plans and purposes were, in truth, so exquisitely grotesque that his good character was established by his bad reasoning. As Curran said of an opponent, he could not argue so foolishly if his intentions had not been excellent, and the more he showed that his head was disconcerted, the more he convinced you that his heart was sincere.

Well, it is all over now, and a great moral lesson has once more been set the city. No one, we beg leave to say, ought to take it more to heart than Mr. Edward M. Shepard. In Mr. Nixon's fate he may see, in little, what his own great catastrophe would have been had he succeeded as Tammany candidate for Mayor. It is transparently clear now that, in choosing Mr. Shepard as a nominee, Croker was trying to hoodwink the voters of this city just as he tried to delude them later by the preposterous choice of Mr. Nixon as his own successor in an office which he had never really abdicated. He intended, and he almost openly plotted, to retain the real control of the mayoralty, if Mr. Shepard should be elected to it, as truly as it is now confessed even by Mr. Nixon that he meant to keep his powerful hand on Tammany Hall though another man was nominally in his seat. We never doubted Mr. Shepard's pure purpose. But what does he think now of those suspicions of the "sincerity" of the Tammany professions of reform, which he said in his canvass, and afterwards in his *Atlantic* review of the election, did so much discredit to those who entertained them? We maintain that the Nixon episode is a complete vindication for those personal friends of Mr. Shepard who would not accept even him at the hands of Tammany. There was no real thought of reform within the Wigwam. It put forward a splendid decoy, but what it meant to do with power, once got under false pretences, all can now see. With a Board of Estimate packed against Mr. Shepard, in the event of his success, his best exertions would have been in vain, and he would have been as openly shorn of real power, and as publicly humiliated, as Mr. Nixon has been, without that gentleman's resource of a wrathful flinging back in Tammany's face of a fraudulent commission.

The whole incident is most enlightening. We shall not again easily give credence to those who would persuade us that Tammany may rise above its source. Based on a theory of cohesion in plunder, it can know no community of interest except that of despoiling the community. Politics is only applied human nature. Given the character of the men who constitute a political organization, and you can tell what the character of the organization will be. A ruffian is a ruffian still, even if he has enriched himself through Tammany and poses as a political leader. Mr. Nixon has bitten this truth into the public mind most usefully. The immediate future of Tammany Hall does not deeply concern us. Whether Croker will be compelled to return to fight for his life; whether the anti-Croker revolt will prevail, we do not know, and we do not greatly care. The important thing is to have the mask of decency fall from the sleepless enemy of the city, at this stage of a reform Administration. One effect must be to multiply the number of those who will hold up Mayor Low's hands. Another will be to increase the tribe of those who are convinced that Tammany Hall, as it exists to-day, is past praying for politically, and that the only part of the liturgy applicable to it is "the compendious forms of the Commination Service."

THE STUDY OF ART IN THE UNIVERSITY.

Columbia University makes a significant innovation in detaching the Schools of Architecture and Music, respectively, from the faculties of Applied Science and of Philosophy. This change, apparently dictated by mere convenience of administration, is really the first stage in the formation of a School of Fine Arts. The scheme appropriately originated in the School of Music, by whose director, Professor MacDowell, it was presented to the governing body. It is probably the first time in the history of American education that the study of art has had full recognition from a university; and while Columbia has at present, aside from the Schools of Architecture and Music, chiefly good intentions and high ambitions to offer, those who believe that art is a proper subject of university study will at once welcome this hopeful beginning, and watch with keenest interest the further development of the scheme.

The statement that Columbia occupies the position of pioneer in this matter will doubtless provoke dissent. Many will say that Yale has a special Art School; that Harvard and Princeton, among others, have long offered excellent courses in the history of the fine arts; that the women's colleges particularly have always given art a prominent place in their curricula. But the aim of nearly all these courses has been collegiate or practical. A college may have especial facilities for teaching painters and sculptors—Yale has—just as it may have in its gymnasium especial provision for producing swordsmen; but either is quite aside from collegiate study, properly so called. A college may have general informatory courses to stimulate an interest in the fine arts, as it has similar courses in science and literature, but this again is something quite different from a university department of art. If the report of the Columbia Committee on Education and the recent action of the trustees meant nothing more than this, it would deserve only passing comment, but we assume

that the University intends, as soon as may be, to give to its School of the Fine Arts the general relation to its scheme of studies which instruction in the fine arts holds, for example, in the University of Berlin or the schools of Paris.

As the object of all university instruction is research, and as its methods are historical or experimental, it must be assumed that Columbia University wishes to produce primarily, not artists, but competent historians and critics of the arts. Professor MacDowell of the Music School does something more than produce pianists: he trains his students in the theory and history of music. So, too, the School of Architecture, when it takes its place in the new department, must do more than train practising architects; it must provide for those who wish to learn everything that is known about the history and theory of that subject, as well as its relations to general æsthetics.

Of course, study of this kind requires great collections of materials. On the experimental side, indeed, it is best conducted in the museums. When the French Government decided to train students in that concrete knowledge of objects of art which we call connoisseurship, it set up its school in its greatest gallery, the Louvre, from the curators of which it largely drew its teaching force. Unluckily, neither the organization nor the personnel of our American museums permits of that solution; but Columbia University is fortunate in being in intimate relations with the Metropolitan Museum, which must be its great storehouse of examples. For years Columbia has maintained admirable public lectures at that institution—a mutually helpful relation, which is susceptible of further development. A university school of art must have comprehensive collections of photographic and other reproductions illustrating art history. Here Columbia is already the fortunate custodian of the Avery Architectural Library, which may readily be extended to cover the entire field of the arts. The inevitable disadvantage of such a school is its distance from the great originals. This difficulty, however, may be measurably surmounted by a system of fellowships, which will permit the best students to attend the Continental schools, especially the American schools in Athens, Rome, and Paris.

How serious the undertaking is, and how different from the mere talk about the Correggiosity of Correggio, which is often—and properly, perhaps—the staple of the popular lecture, has been already indicated. But in emphasizing the difference between the ideals of university education in art history and theory, and those—quite as legitimate in their way—of collegiate and popular instruction, we have not meant to imply that these ideals are in any way incompatible. The training of connoisseurs and art historians should do much to disseminate information and promote taste throughout the land. Such critics are the very ones who in the intervals of their severer studies should find time to show the relation of art appreciation to culture and the genuine pleasures of life. If the Columbia School of Fine Arts only undertook to produce specialists, it would still require no apology; for this country is now in the position of acquiring art treasures, with few to interpret them, of founding great museums without competent curators to direct them. We need intermediaries between ourselves and the increasing store of masterpieces which we hardly have the time or the knowledge to enjoy.

Columbia has ever exalted her civic office, and there need be no fear that the new school will turn out unserviceable pedants. Its students should supply us with better professors for the colleges, better critics for the press, better curators for the museums, better writers and lecturers for the people. It should do much to lend a grace to our too material civilization. It is precisely because the interest of this educational innovation transcends merely academic considerations that we welcome it and bespeak for it the most generous support.

EDWIN LAWRENCE GODKIN.

The brief autobiographic sketch contributed fifteen years ago to the 'Cyclopædia of American Biography' needs little extension to cover the salient incidents in the life of Mr. Godkin, who passed away on May 20 in Brixham, South Devonshire, England.

"He was born in Moyne, County Wicklow, Ireland, October 2, 1831. His father, [Rev.] James, wrote a 'Religious History of Ireland' (1873). The son was educated at a grammar-school near Wakefield, England, and at Queen's College, Belfast, where he was graduated in 1851. He was a correspondent of the London *Daily News* in Turkey and Russia during the Crimean war, 1854-'6. In the autumn of 1856 he came to the United States, and in the ensuing winter made a journey on horseback through the Southern States, a record of which appeared in letters to the *News*. He studied law under David Dudley Field in New York city, was admitted to the bar in 1859, practised for a few years, and then went to Europe, owing to impaired health. He returned to New York at the close of 1862, and was a correspondent of the *News* and an editorial writer for the New York *Times* until July, 1865, when he established and became editor of the *Nation*, which in 1866 passed into the hands of Mr. Godkin and two other gentlemen [James Miller McKim and Frederick Law Olmsted] as proprietors. In 1881, the *Nation* was made the weekly issue of the *Evening Post*, and Mr. Godkin became one of the editors and proprietors of the joint publication. He is the author of a 'History of Hungary, A. D. 300-1850' (London, 1856), and of the work on 'Government' in the 'American Science Series' (New York, 1871)."

In his 'Random Recollections,' published in the *Evening Post* of December 30, 1899, he might have told of the honor of the degree of M.A. conferred by Harvard University in 1871; of D.C.L. by Oxford in 1897. It is necessary to add to his published writings 'Reflections and Comments,' a selection from his articles in the *Nation;* 'Problems of Modern Democracy,' from contributions to the magazines; and 'Unforeseen Tendencies of Democracy,' *Atlantic* papers. Mr. Godkin was twice married. His wife and a son survive him.

A great journalist has departed. His name, absolutely unknown to the American public in 1865, blazed up instantly upon the appearance of the *Nation*, at a moment when Bennett and Bryant, Greeley and Raymond were approaching the end of their careers, leaving no successors. He was not a great editor in the sense of being an organizer or manager. The *Nation* was avowedly patterned after the London *Spectator;* the *Evening Post* was already in its ninth decade when Mr. Godkin joined Messrs. Carl Schurz and Horace White in assuming editorial direction of it. He had, strictly speaking, no business instinct, no faculty for details, nor any liking for the task of coördinating the departments of a daily newspaper. He was *par excellence* a leader-writer, with an astonishing productiveness, and a freshness in handling old themes which won even the hardened proof-reader's admiration. The prospectus of the *Nation* laid stress upon the advantages of a weekly over a daily newspaper in respect of leisure for ascertainment of the facts and deliberation in comment; and the argument was as incontrovertible in 1881, when Mr. Godkin became one of the editors of the *Evening Post*, as it was in 1865. The change might not have come about had the *Nation* prospered so as to warrant an enlargement of its staff. The strain of writing from three to five pages for it weekly was felt at last to be too severe as well as too unremunerative, in view of the scrutiny to which Mr. Godkin was subjected while all but single-handed.

Apart from the resultant greater conspicuity, the merging of the weekly editor in the daily was not a promotion, for the *Nation* had already placed him in the front rank of American journalists even during the lifetime of the veterans we have mentioned. It was a familiar flattery to have his articles made over at a safe interval in a metropolitan daily; and in the country at large the practice was still more common. The *Nation* was eagerly read in every newspaper office of importance, and its ideas filtered down without acknowledgment through a thousand channels. On the other hand, in his new position, Mr. Godkin became inevitably a greater target for censure and abuse; the more because a New York daily must needs come to closer quarters with local corruption and misrule, and its editor be more exposed to pay with his person for incurring the wrath of organized iniquity. This Mr. Godkin did in his memorable campaign against Tammany.

Few journalists have labored less whose writing was of as high a quality as Mr. Godkin's. His pen was fluent and ready, but his diction never careless; rather it bore at all times the marks of training and culture of a high order. While able to develop a subject at any length, he had extraordinary aptitude for paragraph writing; his touch in either case was always light, his matter always pithy. His expression was very direct, vigorous, and trenchant; and he had

an exceptional gift for descriptive narration. His style, indeed, was adequate for every use to which he applied it, and passed without effort from the journalistic to the literary vein, treating nothing that it did not adorn. Such adaptability is seldom encountered, and perhaps the nearest parallel to his is to be found in the writings of Harriet Martineau, long an editorial contributor to the *Daily News*. Mr. Godkin's humor, which

"was ever
Lance and sword to him, and buckler and helmet,"

perplexed the simple-minded, while it enraged his enemies. Its droll visualizing quality lightened every page that he wrote for the *Nation*. On this side he has never been surpassed, if approached, and the effectiveness of his humor as a political weapon consisted in the freedom with which he directed it against the objects of a sham popular and partisan reverence. He owed this freedom, undeniably, to the foreign birth with which he was constantly reproached; but it was his humor which first pierced the glamour and enabled him to see men and policies in a dry light. Biting as it might be, it was never cynical. His conversation was naturally playful and seasoned with a hearty laughter, and his daily companionship most delightful.

As no American could have written Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' or Goldwin Smith's 'History of the United States,' so it may be doubted if any native of this country could have erected the standard of political independence which Mr. Godkin set up in the *Nation* and maintained in the *Evening Post*. He did this, however, not as a foreigner, but as an American to the core. A utilitarian of the school of Bentham, an economist of the school of John Stuart Mill, an English Liberal to whom America, with all its flagrant inconsistency of slaveholding, was still the hope of universal democracy, he cast in his lot with us, became a naturalized citizen, took an American wife—gave every pledge to the land of his adoption except that of being a servile follower of party. He brought to his high calling sound principles of finance, with which he fought the good fight of honest money, specie payments, and currency reform; of political economy, with which he combated protection and its attendant corruption; of popular government, which stood by him in the removal of the Reconstruction scandal; of office as a public trust, which made his journal the most potent medium for the promotion of civil-service reform and the exposure of machine and boss government. Nowhere is there such a body of useful doctrine for serious-minded youth seeking to fit themselves to be "perfect citizens" (as was said of the late John M. Forbes) as the files of the *Nation* contain during Mr. Godkin's thirty-five years' connection with it. Nowhere can the historically-minded man more profitably turn for light upon our latter-day decadence.

Many volumes of speeches are compiled, but few are read long after their publication, and the same oblivion more certainly overtakes the political editor's monument. His contention is for the hour; his triumph is in his shaping of passing events. Those, however, whom curiosity or study leads to examine the writings of Mr. Godkin, will find them distinguished by a philosophic cast not unknown to American oratory before the war, but so ominously wanting in the legislative debates of the past two decades. It may be that Mr. Godkin will be currently quoted hereafter no more than Greeley, but not for the same reason. His text abounds in broad general sentiments and reflections such as find corroboration wherever "history repeats itself," and which in fact have in them the essence of prophecy. The number of fortunate predictions, both generic and specific, was truly notable in Mr. Godkin's case.

His judgment, as was proper in one whose function was criticism, was as rare a faculty as any that he possessed. Applied to public characters, it was almost unerring; and to measures, seldom at fault. To say that it was wholly unaffected by the heat of controversy, or was free from occasional excess or unfairness, would be an unnatural claim. But time itself has already approved the more significant estimates placed by him upon the men of his day; and where the legend is more lenient, it will be found that the popular memory is defective. The application of his judgment to causes was, it is needless to remark, purely ethical, and divorced from considerations of the winning or the losing side. *Sed victa Catoni* was honor enough for him. Yet when one enumerates all the crazes past, all the dangers averted, and all the advances won in the struggle for good government on this continent, Mr. Godkin's mental balance is clearly apparent to those who remember his attitude towards each. And if we extend our consideration to foreign affairs, we can but admire his treatment of them in former years, when he followed them more closely and "saw what he foresaw." In this department his superiority was preëminent. In domestic affairs his judgment reposed on faith in the American character and in the ultimate sanity of democracy. If it was often disappointed, it was often gloriously vindicated.

There was occasion enough for melancholy in retrospect. Specific reforms with a definite aim in view attainable by legislation may reach a happy conclusion. Such was the fate of the anti-slavery agitation, and those who began it lived to see the fruit thereof. Their active labors lasted, including the civil war, but thirty-five years—little more than a generation. For precisely the same term Mr. Godkin strove—above all—to create a spirit of independence of party and to abolish the spoils system of government. The task was more difficult than the destruction of slavery. He witnessed a beginning of civil-service reform in the national domain and in one or two States; yet witnessed a ceaseless attack upon it in all, an evasion of it where possible, a betrayal of it by a President committed to the support of it—amid the general apathy of the people at large. He saw, at the Presidential election of 1896, party ascendency secured by pledges, made to be broken, which for the moment confounded party lines. He saw the Democratic party manifest at one time a miraculous power of self-regeneration, only to sink back into the deepest of its abysses; the Republican party all the while stolidly implacable towards its come-outers for conscience' sake. Worse yet, he saw public men of both parties involved in a repudiation of the fundamental maxims of our republican experiment, and the conversion of a self-contained, peaceful, industrious democracy into an earth-hungry belligerent, seeking points of hostile contact with the most warlike monarchies.

"He grew old in an age he condemned,
Felt the dissolving throes
Of a social order he loved,
And, like the Theban seer,
Died in his enemies' day."

It testifies to the fibre of a moralist whom the infirmity of age was consciously drawing from the scene, that he was neither soured nor dejected by such a prospect. It was in Mr. Godkin's mind to strive to the end. His formal retirement, however, from the *Evening Post* was none too soon for his failing strength of body. Though he recovered, beyond all expectations, from an apoplectic stroke incurred on February 4, 1900, and continued to write at intervals for this journal during another twelvemonth, he could not complete the revision of his Reminiscences, for which many publishers had besought him, and we shall never have his own summing up of his life-work—wherein it satisfied him to remember, where haply it fell short in method, manner, or temper, what title it gave him to good fame and lasting human gratitude. Some who first heard his trumpet-call and have had their spiritual natures determined by his lofty and disinterested teaching—call it preaching, if you will, and his press a religious press—have recently publicly confessed their indebtedness. More will be moved to do so now; and more still, alas!—a multitude—will never know what benefaction they have received from his hand, who moulded for good the generation from which they sprung.

CARMONTELLE'S PORTRAITS.

PARIS, May 7, 1902.

A new volume has been added to the magnificent catalogue of the works of art of the Musée Condé at Chantilly. The two first volumes contained a full description, with many admirable photo-engravings, of the pictures of Chantilly; the third volume was entirely filled with reproductions and descriptions of the famous "Horæ" of the Duke de Berry. M. Gruyer, the curator of the artistic department of the Chantilly collections, now gives a sequel to his great work in a volume entirely dedicated to the portraits of Carmontelle.

Carmontelle's name is not much known out of France, or even in France beyond a small circle of amateurs. M. Gruyer's volume opens with a very interesting biography of this portrait-painter. Carmontelle did not begin life as a painter; he had literary pretensions. He composed, under the name of "Proverbes," society plays which generally ended with a proverb. Grimm says of him in his correspondence: "Our friend Carmontelle furnishes plays as a pastry-cook furnishes cakes; the moral character of a proverb furnishes a theme for theatrical action which is represented at once as an impromptu. It is for the spectator to find the proverb at the end of the play." Madame de Genlis took the trouble to write a notice of the 'Proverbes' on their publication in three volumes.

Carmontelle was the manager of his own little plays, designed the costumes, made the decorations. He was thus led to make rapid portraits of the actors, and nature had given him an extraordinary faculty of obtaining a perfect likeness. He had

not the education of an artist; he rarely paints his actors otherwise than in profile, but his profiles have the undeniable character of life. His color (he painted in water-color) is extremely agreeable, and his portraits are real historical documents. Grimm wrote, on the 1st of May, 1763, in a letter:

"M. de Carmontelle has for several years made a series of portraits in water-color. He has a singular talent for catching the air, the attitude, the character of a face. It happens to me every day to recognize in the world people whom I have seen only in these collections. These portraits he makes in a couple of hours with surprising rapidity. Carmontelle has thus succeeded in taking the portraits of all the ladies in Paris, with their consent. His collections, which he increases every day, give also an idea of the variety of conditions of men and women of all ranks, from the Dauphin to the *frotteur* of Saint-Cloud.

M. de Carmontelle was born on the 15th of August, 1717. His real name was Louis Carrogis. His father was a shoemaker. We know nothing of his education or of his early years. He was thirty-nine years old at the beginning of the Seven Years' War; and M. de Pons-Saint-Maurice, the governor of the Duke de Chartres, who was in command of the regiment of Orléans Dragoons, took him with him to Westphalia. There is in the library at Chantilly a manuscript, written by a certain Chevalier de Lédans, in which we may read: "Carmontelle's whole military merit consisted in drawing plans with the greatest perfection, in carving very dexterously his general's fowl, and in making caricatures of all the *dragonaille* of the army." After the war, thanks to the protection of M. de Pons, he was admitted into the household of the Duke d'Orléans (the grandfather of King Louis-Philippe), as reader to the Duke de Chartres. "This function," says Madame de Genlis, "though honorable, was rather inferior, as it did not give him the right to take his meals with the princes, even in the country; but M. Carmontelle was soon particularly noticed, not only by the Prince, but by all the amiable and clever people who used to go to Villers-Cotterets [countryplace of the Orléans family]. He had much information, much reserve without embarrassment, an amiable gayety." Carmontelle amused the society at Villers-Cotterets with his "Proverbes." He was an excellent actor. He was allowed every evening to join the general circle, and to take ices with the Prince and the members of his court. He made portraits of all the visitors, and often gave them copies, but kept the originals for his own collection.

The Duke d'Orléans, whom he served for twenty-five years, died in 1785, but he remained in the service of the Duke de Chartres, who became Duke d'Orléans in his turn. The history of the new Duke is well known; he threw himself into the Revolutionary movement and became Philippe-Égalité, but could not avoid the guillotine. Carmontelle was ignored during the Revolutionary crisis. He had no enemies; he was allowed to end his life in obscurity, and he died in Paris on the 26th of December, 1806, at the age of eighty-nine. After his death, there was a sale of his pictures. We read in the catalogue of this sale: "There is an interesting item in M. de Carmontelle's productions, namely, his collection of 750 princes and seigneurs, princesses and titled ladies, ministers, soldiers, lawyers, ecclesiastics, scientific men, and illustrious personages of the reign of Louis XV., colored *à la gouache* from nature, on a scale of eight by nine inches." The Government did not buy this collection, and it was bought by the Chevalier Richard de Lédans, a retired officer, who had been a friend of Carmontelle and of many of the personages of the collection. He had to borrow money for his purchase. He hoped to sell the whole collection to Talleyrand, but his offers were refused, and he was obliged to sell the collection piecemeal to various families. After this amputation, there remained in his hands 635 portraits, which he classified in thirteen parts.

The Chevalier de Lédans died in 1816. At his sale, all these portraits were bought by M. de la Mésangère. La Mésangère, born at Baugé on the 23d of June, 1741, was ordained a priest, and became a professor of literature at La Flèche. In 1799 he became the editor of the *Journal des Dames et des Modes*. This journal had many colored illustrations, and is still valued on their account by bibliophilists. La Mésangère took good care of Carmontelle's portraits. He had them mounted in passepartout, their present condition, and, with the aid of the notes left by Lédans, he inscribed under them the names of the various personages. La Mésangère died in Paris on the 25th of February, 1831. Number 304 of the catalogue of his sale bears this mention: "A collection consisting of five hundred and twenty portraits drawn and colored by Carmontelle. They represent all the family of the ancient house of Orléans, the persons attached to that house, the gentlemen of that time, etc." They were bought in by the Duff-Gordon Duffs, and were kept in their family. They left Scotland in 1877 for Chantilly. The Duke d'Aumale bought them from Major Lachlan Duff-Gordon Duff of Drummuir, Keith, for the sum of £4,500, through Colnaghi in London. The Duke d'Aumale was already in possession of a few of Carmontelle's portraits which he had bought on various occasions. He added them to those which had been so long in Scotland. The whole series, 480 in number, is now kept in ten great volumes carefully bound. M. Gruyer justly says that in these volumes the eighteenth century lives again, in its second half, "with all its elegances and with some of its trivialities."

It was not an easy task to describe this collection. M. Gruyer had to make a classification. There is, in his work, a succession of groups, forming as many chapters. First come the princes and princesses of the royal house of France; the Dauphin, son of Louis XV.; the Duke d'Orléans, the Duke and Duchess of Chartres, the Prince de Condé; Mademoiselle, sister of Louise Philippe, the first of that name; Duke d'Orléans, grandfather of King Louis-Philippe; the Duke de Penthièvre, the Princess de Lamballe, etc. Next in order come the princes and princesses of foreign sovereign houses, among whom are to be noticed the princesses of Hesse-Darmstadt, who were particular favorites of Queen Marie Antoinette. As Carmontelle belonged to the household of the Duke d'Orléans, he took most of his models from this household, not only among the gentlemen and ladies, but also among the most humble followers of the little court of the Palais-Royal, of Saint-Cloud, and of Villers-Cotterets. Among the ladies, we may cite the Countess of Polignac, the Marchioness du Crest, the handsome Madame de Séran, who was much admired by Louis XV., but whose reputation almost remained unimpeachable. Carmontelle did not forget the military friends whom he had made in the campaign in Westphalia, and we find them all in his collection, along with some distinguished men whom he knew afterwards. But the most brilliant part of the collection consists of the portraits of the great ladies of the time, some of whom had a great reputation for beauty, such as the Duchess of Chevreuse, the Countess of Egmont, the Countess of Boufflers, etc. Certain others were victims of the Revolution, and won admiration by their heroic death, such as the Duchess de Gramont, the Duchess de Lauzun, the Marchioness du Plessis-Bellièvre.

I cannot cite here the names of all the personages whose physiognomies Carmontelle preserved for us—diplomats, churchmen, philosophers, men of letters, musicians, actors and actresses, financiers. M. Gruyer has added notes to his description of the portraits which are very detailed, and give real historical value to his magnificent work.

Correspondence.

OUTLINE CATALOGUE OF EARLY PAINTINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the very interesting article "A Library of Art Reproductions" (*Nation*, April 24, p. 321), I beg leave to state in your columns that I have been engaged for some time in preparing an illustrated index of ancient pictures ('Corpus Picturarum Concilio Tridentino Antiquiorum'). The first quarto volume, containing 2,000 outlines, chiefly from little-known paintings, and costing only 12 francs ($2.40), is to appear in 1903. Although possessing much available material, I should be greatly obliged for the *loan* of good photographs from ancient paintings in American museums and private collections, and would return them, duly registered, to the owners, less than three weeks after reception. Paintings later than 1550 do not fall within the scope of my present work.

Faithfully yours, Salomon Reinach.

Musée de Saint Germain-en-Laye, May 6, 1902.

FOGG MUSEUM ART PHOTOGRAPHS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with your article of April 24, entitled "A Reference Library of Art Reproductions," and the communication of your issue of May 8 on the same subject, it seems worth while to call the attention of your readers to the collection of photographs of works of art which forms, perhaps, the most important part of the equipment of the Fogg Museum of Art at Harvard University, inasmuch as this collection offers an opportunity for the systematic comparative study of the history and principles of art, of which the public appears not yet fully aware. It was begun in the year 1895, and was, I believe, the first extended collection brought together for this purpose. It has, moreover, served as a model for others formed since that

time, such as the one in the Boston Public Library. There are embraced in this illustrations of works of art of all periods and of all countries, and it already numbers over 30,000 photographs, which are freely accessible, not only to students of Harvard University, but also to the general public. They are arranged in the cases according to periods and countries, with subdivisions into painting, sculpture, and architecture, and are carefully cross-catalogued according to periods, artists, places, and subjects; so that a complete series of the available photographs illustrating any phase of the development of the fine arts which a student may wish to examine, may be had at a moment's notice.

That such an opportunity exists for practically first-hand (photographs are authentic so far as they go) study of great works of art, ought, I think, to be more widely known.—Very truly yours,

ARTHUR POPE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., May 13, 1902.

MILTON'S IAMBIC TRIMETER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reviewer of Mr. Bridges's book on Prosody seems to think that Milton's use of the iambic trimeter, or alexandrine without the medial cæsura, in place of the ordinary alexandrine, was an innovation or experiment. It was common enough long before Milton's time. In the first canto of the 'Faerie Queene' there are eight alexandrines like this:

"Upon his foe a dragon horrible and stearne,"

or, with the diiambus:

"That soone to loose her wicked bands did her constraine."

There are others where the natural pause and the diæresis disagree, as—

"The fearfulle dwarfe; 'This is no place for living men' '';

which also has the diiambic structure.

In fact, the free handling of the alexandrine goes very far back. In the 'Poema Morale' (about 1200), which consists of mixed alexandrines and fourteeners, we find such lines as

"Werse he doth his gode wines than his fiendes—
And al tho the aniwise deuel iquemde'';

which are ditrochaic.

WM. HAND BROWNE.

[Our review said: "It might be conceivable that Milton wrote this kind of line unconsciously, as a spontaneous variant on the alexandrine, having hit it off by ear and repeating it from unreflecting liking for it."

Any poet writing free alexandrines (Spenser, for instance, as Dr. Browne points out) would naturally be prone so to form such a variant occasionally—likely to do so often. Many before Milton and more since have made such lines. This the reviewer assumed as obvious.

The point about Mr. Bridges's presentation of his scrutiny of Milton's verse is his apparent claim (page 39, as quoted in the review, and the word "always" page 40, line 4) that most of Milton's twelve-syllable verses are of this cast. There is much difference between writing numerous free alexandrines, many of which run into this variant, and creating twelve-syllable lines a noticeable proportion of which are apparent accentual iambic trimeters. Mr. Bridges seems to imply that he has found something like this in Milton.

To settle this matter it would be necessary to scan each of Milton's twelve-syllable lines and ascertain in what proportion of all are those of the iambic-trimeter form; to make a similar study of the alexandrines of a long series of English poets, from early times to the present; and to compare the average proportion with that found for Milton. Without making such an investigation, and accepting Mr. Bridges's statements as they stand, it seems to us not unlikely that Milton may have been more influenced by his classical studies than by English tradition.—ED. NATION.]

A BRITISH ACADEMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A reference to an early "British Academy" is to be found in a letter from John Evelyn to Sir Peter Wyche, written in 1665. In that year, Wyche, whose diversified talents had won him a reputation as diplomat, geographical writer, and linguist, was appointed, by the Royal Society, chairman of a committee to consider the improvement of the English tongue, and on this occasion Evelyn addressed him, at some length and, we infer, by request, upon the subject; prefacing his remarks with the regret that, to his "owne misfortune" and "greate infelicity," he should be prevented, by public duties, from attending the meetings of the Society on Tuesday afternoons.

Evelyn, in his letter, finds the changes in the English tongue to have been brought about through the following causes: "Victories, Plantations, Frontieres, Staples of Com'erce, Pedantry of Schooles, Affectation of Travellers, Translations, Fancy and style of Court, Vernility & mincing of Citizens, Pupils, Political Remonstrances, Theatres, Shopps, &c."; and he essays the difficult task of reform in the twelve following propositions:

1. I would therefore humbly propose that there might first be compil'd a Gram'ar for the Præcepts; which . . . might onely insist on the Rules, the sole meanes to render it a learned & learnable tongue.

2. That with this a more certaine Orthoggraphy were introduc'd, as by leaving out superfluous letters, &c.: such as *o* in Woomen, People; *u* in Honour . . . &c.

3. That there might be invented some new Periods and Accents, besides such as our Gram'arians & Critics use, to assist, inspirit, and modifie the Pronunciation of Sentences. . . .

4. To this might follow a Lexicon or Collection of all the pure English-Words by themselves; then those which are derivative . . . then, the symbolical; so as no innovation might be us'd or favour'd; at least till there should arise some necessity of providing a new Edition, & of amplifying the old upon mature advice.

5. That in order to this, some one were appointed to collect all the technical Words. . . .

6. That things difficult to be translated or express'd . . . were better interpreted than as yet we find them in Dictionaries. . . .

7. That a full Catalogue of exotic Words, such as are daily minted by our *Logodœdali*, were exhibited. . . .

8. Previous to this it would be enquir'd what particular Dialects, Idiomes, and Proverbs were in use in every several Country of England, for the Words of the present age being properly the *Vernacula*, or Classic rather, special reguard is to be had of them.

9. And happly it were not amiss, that we had a Collection of the most quaint and Courtly expressions, by way of *Florilegium*. . . .

10. And since there is likewise a manifest rotation and circling of Words, which goe in and out like the mode and fashion; Bookes would be consulted for the reduction of some of the old layd-aside words and expressions had formerly *in deliciis*. . . .

11. Something might likewise be well translated out of the best Orators & Poets, Greek and Latin, and even out of the Moderne Languages. . . .

12. Finaly. *There must be a stock of reputation gain'd by some publiq writings and compositions of the Members of this Assembly, so that others may not thinke it dishonor to come under the test, or accept them for judges and approbators; And if the designe were arriv'd thus far, I conceive a very small matter would dispatch the art of Rhetoric, which the French propos'd as one of the first things they reco'mended to their late Academitians.*

Very truly yours,

HENRIETTA R. PALMER.

PROVIDENCE, May 15, 1902.

"AMERICA."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As somewhat germane to the citations which Mr. Albert Matthews adduces and publishes in your issue of May 1, to show the phases through which the term "The States," as applied to our country, has gone, permit me to mention a curious custom prevailing in Nantucket, at least among the older natives of that island. They speak of the continental portion of the United States as America. When there I was told that on a fair day one could see America; that, consequent upon the decadence of the whale fishery and the loss thereby of population, many vacant houses had been placed on gundalows and towed over to America; and taking the steamer for Hyannis was quite generally spoken of as going to America. Perhaps this custom arose from the prudent neutrality of the islanders during the Revolutionary war. JOHN JAMESON.

WOBURN, MASS., May 14, 1902.

SHAKSPERE'S DESCRIPTION OF THE TORTURE BY WATER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Shakspere gives a very adequate description of the sensations which must be experienced by a victim of the water torture, in "King Richard the Third," Act I., Scene III:

Clarence. "As we pac'd along
Upon the giddy footing of the hatches,
Methought that Gloucester stumbled; and, in falling,
Struck me, that thought to stay him, over-board,
Into the tumbling billows of the main.
O Lord! methought what pain it was to drown!
What dreadful noise of water in mine ears!
What sights of ugly death within mine eyes!
. . . . . .
. . . and often did I strive
To yield the ghost; but still the envious flood
Stopt in my soul, and would not let it forth
To find the empty, vast, and wandering air;
But smothered it within my panting bulk,
Which almost burst to belch it to the sea."

Yours truly,

BERTRAND SHADWELL.

CHICAGO, May 18, 1902.

RATLINGS IDENTIFIED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to my note in the *Nation*

of March 27, and in *Notes and Queries* of April 12 anent the word *ratlings* (*rattlings*), a writer in *Notes and Queries* for May 3 gives what seems to be the origin of this obscure word; he identifies it with *raddlings*, a term still in common use in Somerset, England (cp. 'West Somerset Word-Book,' p. 609). The verb *raddle* means to interweave rough brushwood; for instance, a hedge made with roughly interwoven untrimmed sticks, he says, is *raddled*, and the material which would otherwise go for kindling and be tied up in bundles is, when so used, called *raddling*. *Raddles* are small wood or sticks split like laths; whence *ratlings* meaning 'kindling.'

CHARLES BUNDY WILSON.

IOWA CITY, IOWA, May 16, 1902.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about to publish 'Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic,' by Henry Austin Clapp; 'Lee at Appomattox, and Other Papers,' by Charles Francis Adams; 'Charles Eliot, Landscape Architect'; 'The Literature of American History,' edited by J. N. Larned (an expert judgment of all books on this subject); 'Poems of Edward Rowland Sill,' in a limited edition; a Life of Longfellow, in the American Men of Letters Series, by T. W. Higginson; 'September Days on Nantucket,' by William Root Bliss; 'The Desert and the Sown,' by Mary Hallock Foote; and Fielding's 'Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon.'

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, are preparing a novel sort of "Familiar Quotations," namely, 'An Index to Recitations, Readings, and Dialogues,' by title, author, and first lines. The volume may prove considerable in bulk—some 800 pages.

"Our Annual Execution," "a forgotten essay by William Makepeace Thackeray," from *Fraser's Magazine*, together with a critical review from the same periodical, "A Word on the Animals," will be published by H. W. Fisher & Co., Philadelphia, who call in the Merrymount Press for a limited edition.

Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia, will bring out directly 'In Quest of the Quaint' (in Canada), by Miss Eliza B. Chase, and a list of 'Quaker Arrivals in Philadelphia, 1682-1750,' compiled from the records of Philadelphia Monthly Meeting of Friends by Albert Cook Myers.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have nearly ready 'Home Thoughts, Second Series.'

Additional announcements from John Lane are 'An English Girl in Paris' and 'In a Tuscan Garden.'

All who have learned anything of the life of St. Francis are in a degree Franciscans, so that Montgomery Carmichael's 'The Lady Poverty, a XIII. Century Allegory,' should not lack readers. The book is a translation of the Franciscan tract the 'Sacrum Commercium,' "an allegory simple in form and charming in conception, telling how St. Francis wooed and won that most difficult of all Brides, my Lady Poverty." The little book is daintily made by John Murray (New York: Tennant & Ward), contains notes on the history and transmission of the text, a chapter on the "Significance of Spiritual Poverty," by Father Cuthbert, and, as frontispiece, an excellent reproduction of Giotto's great allegorical painting at Assisi—"The Espousals of St. Francis to the Lady Poverty."

The De La More Press of London sends us a very handsomely printed small quarto volume entitled, 'Siena: Its Architecture and Art.' The author, Gilbert Hastings, offers no preface to his little work, but begins at once with an introduction of thirteen pages, dealing in a general way with the relations of Siena to the art world of Italy, with a few words of sympathetic description of the city itself and its remarkable, even unparalleled, topographical position on a "series of ridges all radiating from the central Castelvecchio," with "all the buildings of importance . . . situated along the crests of these ridges and round their meeting-point." The division of the book proper is, then, simply enough, into two chapters, one of which has the title "Architecture" and is illustrated by seven photographs of well-known buildings of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance with their details, while the other, chapter iii., has the oddly exclusive title "Art," and is devoted to painting alone, and illustrated by six photographic illustrations. This nomenclature reminds one of the curious old fashion prevalent in our American cities twenty years ago, but which we had supposed was abandoned even there—the odd way of speaking of the artist as if he were always a painter, and of the painter, portraitist or landscapist, as if he alone were the artist. A brief bibliography is added by Mr. Hastings, and there is an index which occupies two pages and may prove to be sufficiently full for this very small but interesting and sympathetic treatise.

That very successful writer of brief astronomical monographs in understandable form, Mr. W. T. Lynn, formerly of the staff of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, has just issued the tenth edition revised of his 'Remarkable Comets,' being a survey of the most interesting facts in the history of cometary astronomy (London: Sampson Low, Marston & Company). It is simply a handy work of reference to comets that may be considered remarkable either for their brilliant appearance, their periodic returns, or for any other circumstance respecting them. Of comets due the present year, none are expected to be sensational in their advent. One was originally discovered by the late M. Tempel at Marseilles in 1869, and rediscovered at its second subsequent return in 1880 by Swift, then of Rochester, whose name the comet has ever since carried. It is a shy body, having dodged the comet-hunters at half its returns, but there is hope of its being caught again this coming autumn. Another comet due this year, though unfavorably circumstanced for observation, is one long known as Lexell's lost comet, which Mr. Lynn characterizes as "a truly unfortunate body from the way in which its motions were disturbed by the giant planet Jupiter." Messier at Paris first discovered it in 1770. Its orbit was elliptical with a period of about five and a half years, but the powerful attraction of this planet has since completely changed its path into one of seven years' duration.

The Bibliophile Society of Boston has issued two volumes out of nine in an edition of the Odes and Epodes of Horace, edited by its own members, and sumptuously printed at the Riverside Press in Cambridge. Mr. Howard Pyle has furnished the embellishment; Prof. Clement Lawrence Smith has edited and annotated the text. Translations face the original; some from the pens of members. One volume will be occupied with bibliography alone, and will be illustrated by facsimile reproductions from the British Museum MS., the *editio princeps* and other early editions. We might dwell on this undertaking, which is a labor of love, but the limited edition is, with a few exceptions, procurable only by members of the Society. One set is to be auctioned off here and another in Boston.

The 'Selected Essays and Addresses' by Sir James Paget, edited by Stephen Paget (Longmans), form a fitting supplement to the Life of Paget noticed in these columns last month, and sustain the opinion there expressed as to the broad intelligence of the writer; his wholesome sanity of thought and judgment; his simple, lucid, and effective style. It is unnecessary to discuss the various papers at length, inasmuch as they are mainly republications of medical articles, and addresses delivered many years ago. Some of them are quite technical, but all are of lasting value. Those of greatest general interest are the Hunterian Oration of 1877; "The History of the Discovery of Anæsthetics," 1879; "Theology and Science," 1880; "The Contrast of Temperance with Abstinence," 1881; "National Health and National Work," 1884; "Errors in the Chronometry of Life," 1891; and "The Use of the Will for Health," 1891. The appreciative account of John Hunter, with whose aims and methods Paget was bound to be a sympathizer, gives an impressive picture of a wonderful character. The essays on "Animal Experimentation," on "Theology and Science" and "National Health and National Work" are liberal and intelligent in motive and instructive in detail. A short essay on "The Use of the Will for Health" is a lay sermon of wide application, and reflects the energy and fine purpose of its author. Another essay, on "Elemental Pathology," deals with diseases of plants, and while it describes little that is strictly new, the application to clinical pathology is valuable and suggestive.

Recently the firm of Julius Groos of Heidelberg (New York: Brentano's) has added to its well-known series of conversation grammars several dealing with Oriental languages. That especially of the modern book-Arabic by Harder was a real contribution to Semitic linguistics. The last to appear is a modern Persian grammar by W. St. Clair-Tisdall, which, if not so scientific and thorough as Harder, can yet be very fairly commended. It is strictly of modern Persian, colloquial and written, has an adequate collection of exercises, eighty pages of neatly lithographed reading-book, a full English-Persian vocabulary, and over twenty pages of lithographed Persian letters. There is no other book at all like it, and, within its limits, it should prove most useful. Mr. St. Clair-Tisdall's knowledge of Persian is undoubted. Over his Persian book on the sources of Islam, it may be remembered, there was an interesting tilt in the *Nineteenth Century* rather more than a year ago between Sir William Muir and Moulvie Rafiüddin Ahmad.

From Brentano's, also (still by way of Heidelberg), we receive a 'Portuguese Conversation-Grammar' by G. L. Kordgien and

E. Kunow. It is one of a series composed on the Gaspey-Otto-Sauer method, which is not markedly distinguished from many another. Those who must depend upon themselves for instruction in a language easy to read but difficult to speak and to pronounce, will find this manual adequate within the capacity of such helps. Some reading exercises are appended, and an English-Portuguese vocabulary. The inside of the covers has been utilized for maps showing the domain of spoken Portuguese, in Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America—the most considerable remains of former "sea-power," and a by-product of it that must appear relatively contemptible to Capt. Mahan and his disciples.

Alfieri & Lacroix, Milan, are issuing the "Divina Commedia" in a sort of double post-card series (ten to an envelope when not folded), engrossed in monkish fashion, with rubricated initials and illuminated design for each canto. The idea is Attilio Razzolini's, and it has been beautifully carried out; but the close-packed lines in hair-line letter forbid continuous reading.

The historical manuscripts of the May Bulletin of the Boston Public Library refer mainly to the Jackson-Adams campaign of 1828, the most interesting being one from Henry Clay, written after the election. He regards the result as adverse "to the cause of human freedom," and is unable to view it "under any aspect whatever without awful apprehensions. Still, we have yet our liberty. And it should be our aim, by the exertion of all our energies, to preserve it, and to destroy the pernicious influence of the example which a majority of our countrymen have passionately and thoughtlessly established. For myself I desire life no longer than I possess liberty." George M. Dallas, on the other hand, writing in August, 1828, is confident that Jackson will succeed because "our democrats—and with them at least one-fifth of the federalists—are convinced that corruption was at work in the election of Mr. Adams, and nothing would bribe them to endure it." He refers to the perfect organization of the Federal party in Pennsylvania, and asserts that "it is the nature of our's to submit to very little organization, but to accomplish a great deal, apparently, through the exercise of individual and independent effort."

The Quarterly Statement for April of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains a contribution to the controverted question of Golgotha and the Holy Sepulchre by Sir C. W. Wilson. His conclusion is that the name is derived from a "local legend which connected it with a skull, possibly that of Adam, as all the early Christian Fathers who mention the subject assert," and that the theories which identify "the place of a skull" with a public place of execution, or with a spot which resembled a skull, "are of later growth and probably of Western origin." Col. C. R. Conder treats of the Hebrew weights and measures, and there are the usual reports on excavations and inscriptions, and some observations on the seasonal and annual variations in the level of the Dead Sea. Attention is called to the rifling of tombs and ransacking of ancient mounds near Hebron by the fellahin, with such deplorable results that the whole district has been archæologically ruined. There are indications that this evil is spreading.

The Dûsuns, a forest people of North Borneo, as described in the *Spectator* by Mr. Hugh Clifford, the late Governor of that territory, furnish a most perplexing enigma for anthropological science to solve. Downtrodden for ages, they have that "peculiar expression, at once patient, fearful, and utterly despondent, which belongs to the lost races," and in habits and manner are nearly at the lowest level of humanity. At enmity with all men, they kill for the mere love of bloodshed, and the roof-trees of their cubicles "fairly groan under their loads of dried human skulls." "It is curious," remarks Mr. Clifford in this connection, "that Borneo, which, for a tropical country, is singularly free from the more savage of the beasts, should produce more men instinct with this wanton homicidal mania than any other place of its size in the world." Yet, though hopelessly and irredeemably a savage, the Dûsun speaks a language which, in its inflections, declensions, and conjugations, its elaborate system of prefixes and suffixes, bears marks of a refined and fastidious civilization. And he has successfully resisted the persistent efforts of his Malay master to turn him from his own religious belief to the faith of Islam. A single article only of his creed, his theory of the creation, is given, but this shows thought far deeper than that of any barbarian. It is a most interesting contribution to mythology, and agrees with the Bible in attributing the origin of evil to a woman. Moved by jealousy, she created the world and rules it, and hence its grievous imperfections. "Wherefore among the Dûsuns women hold all sacerdotal offices even to this day, and, though the people pray to the great god Kinohringan, they know that all evil has its source in the goddess whose pride and untimely interference alone prevented the creation of the perfect world."

A recent number (Heft 4) of the *Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft* (Munich) is an exceptionally rich one. A second article, in English, by Professor Huddilston, "The Life of Women Illustrated on Greek Pottery," is accompanied by two plates in terracotta and black. Several of the remaining twenty-three full-page illustrations are reproductions of paintings in private collections, among them an "Adoration," by Gerard David, and a very interesting work, until recently unknown, by Lorenzo Lotto, "The Portrait of a Goldsmith."

A recent number of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen contains an account of a study, by Prof. Sophus Bugge, of a Norwegian runic inscription, which has a special interest for American readers. The stone containing the inscription was found in 1817, on a farm in Ringerike, Norway. Some years after its discovery, the stone disappeared, and has not since been found. Fortunately, the inscription was copied in 1823, and a copy of this drawing, the original drawing having also disappeared, is now in the Bergen Museum. The absence of the name, both of the person to whom the stone relates and of the cutter, seems to imply that the original inscription consisted of two parts, cut on different stones. Professor Bugge's Danish rendering may be translated as follows: "They came out [on the ocean] and across great stretches, and, needing clothes to dry themselves, and food, away towards Vinland and on the ice in the uninhabited region. Evil can take away joy, so that one dies early." This is clearly an epitaph over a young Norwegian from Ringerike, who had been wrecked with his companions, and, after wandering over the ice, had finally yielded up his life near the coast of Vinland. The character of the runes indicates that the epitaph was cut between 1010 and 1050—that is, within half a century of the discovery of the Western continent by the Norsemen. It is, therefore, the earliest document known to us containing a reference to America. The striking nature of Professor Bugge's conclusions has roused fresh interest in the search for the lost stone, which must be regarded as, from the cultural side, the most important in Scandinavia. Of even greater importance would be the discovery of the companion stone, if the theory with regard to its existence be correct.

The Russification of Finland now going on is believed by many to be only a preparatory step in the extension of the Czar's empire to the North Atlantic, and is to be followed by the subjugation of the northern provinces of the two Scandinavian kingdoms. The inhabitants of this region, Mr. Edmund Gosse says in a letter to the London *Times*, have long been keenly alive to this danger, and have guarded against it in a way characteristic of a brave people who love liberty. By an ancient privilege the men of the Norwegian provinces of Nordland and Finmark "were exempted, in consideration of the precarious nature of their business and the extreme poverty of the soil, from the duty of serving in the army." About eight years ago they requested the removal of this privilege, and now serve as soldiers, exactly as do their comrades in the south, and show remarkable eagerness in the discharge of their military duties. Their organization is already efficient, and they have drilling grounds for recruits, schools for non-commissioned officers, and annual manœuvres. Sweden also has provided an important defence for her threatened province by a fortified railway, by far the most northerly in the world, which runs from Victoriahavn, latitude 68°, on the Atlantic, through the iron ore districts in Sweden, almost to the Russo-Finnish frontier. Mr. Gosse asserts that the accusation that there exists a Russophile party in the public life of Norway is simply laughable, that "there is not a country in the world where the methods of Russian nationalization would be less likely to meet with partisans."

The decline in the popularity of the "stereoscopic view" since the days when Dr. Holmes was high-priest of the cult, would bear discussion by the expert. No doubt the strain of the lenses on the eye had something to do with it, and again the trouble of compact and orderly stowage of the views, with their varying sizes; then, in many kinds of pictures—as of foliage—the want of atmosphere, the exaggerated detachment and "solidity," with the effect of deadness which, in the case of portraiture, tended to become ghastly. But a better explanation is, no doubt, the manifold development of photography itself, enabling every individual in the community from childhood up to work his own camera. Be this as it may, an attempt is making to revive interest in the "stereograph." The

London and New York firm of Underwood & Underwood address themselves to the schools and to stay-at-home tourists in a very systematic manner, furnishing, say, a neat box of views in Switzerland, with a series of maps showing the point of view and scope of each numbered stereograph, and a book which is Cook's "personal conductor."

One such collection which they submit to us is devoted to President McKinley, exhibiting him in his Canton home, at the White House surrounded by his Cabinet, on his Southern tour, his Pacific Coast tour, and a great variety of public occasions down to the lamentable end. Each stereograph is apt to have some sentiment quoted at the foot from the speech illustrated. There is a book, bound in cloth, in which these incidents are described, and which closes with a general biography. It cannot be denied that all this is a "human document" more impressive than the kodak snapshot, more easy to study than the St. Vitus's dance of the kinematograph. The physiognomy of crowds is very instructively recorded; and here to perfection is set down that grab-bag handshaking from the rear platform which dispenses the Presidential car from being fitted with gymnastic apparatus as on the Siberian Railway.

—The authorship of Lord Durham's Report (of which a new edition has just been published by E. P. Dutton & Co.), though not surrounded by the mystery which enshrouds the Letters of Junius, is a difficult and interesting question. The intrinsic value of the document and the importance of its effect upon British colonial policy, give it a place among the classics of modern political literature. Its ideas are bold and positive; in form it is often animated and always forcible. Who, then, wrote this state paper which is of such quality that it would bring honor to any colonial governor or colonial secretary of the last hundred years? The old jest is as follows: "Wakefield thought it, Buller wrote it, Durham signed it." In Canada for a long time past it has been held to be the work of Charles Buller, though Sir Richard Hanson's statement to Greville that he and Wakefield wrote the paragraphs on Clergy Reserves and Crown Lands has not been overlooked. In England there has been a disposition of late to credit Lord Durham himself with a much more considerable share in the work than was accorded him by contemporaries. Then, too, Wakefield, who was by common consent the chief authority of those days on colonial questions, has always received credit for some of the most important ideas that the report contains. Partly by accident, partly by the prominence of colonial questions just now, the discussion of authorship has been renewed within the past few weeks on both sides of the water. It will be remembered that the names of Judge Dunkin, Mr. Turton, and Dr. Thom have recently been suggested by correspondents in our columns as those of probable collaborators, while Mr. Morgan of Ottawa has recalled how Joseph Howe and Sir John Macdonald ascribed this "Magna Charta of Canadian liberty and freedom" to Charles Buller. However, the most important article on the subject which has yet been published appears from the pen of Dr. Richard Garnett in the April number of the *English Historical Review*. The propositions here advanced are that the opening part, with one or two other passages, is by Lord Durham himself, that the entire middle portion is by Buller, and that some twenty-five pages towards the close are by Wakefield.

—With regard to the question of mutual sympathy between the three men, Dr. Garnett quotes with much force some words of J. S. Mill which occur in a letter to Sir William Molesworth. These were first published in 1901 by Mrs. Fawcett. "Buller and Wakefield appear to be acting as one man, speaking to Lord Durham with the utmost plainness, giving him the most courageous and judicious advice, which he receives both generously and wisely." Apart from Dr. Garnett's willingness to credit Lord Durham with the rhetorical parts of the report, the most interesting point in his article relates to the difference in view between Buller and Wakefield regarding one matter of the utmost moment. Here again Mrs. Fawcett's 'Life of Molesworth' is made tributary for a letter written by Wakefield from Quebec on September 29, 1838. "Buller has been true to his avowed principles. He has ever been the advocate of mercy and justice against policy. Not so I, who have had deeply impressed on me the opinion first suggested by you—that the Canadians were a miserable race, and that the country must be made English by one means or another." Buller wished to conciliate the French Canadians, leaving them still French and with the means of perpetuating their language. Wakefield thought that they should be Anglicized, and the part of the report which Dr. Garnett sets down to his share is a long section that may be termed a comment upon this view. We have said little about the Canadians who have been suggested as possible collaborators. In our opinion the element which they collectively represent is a negligible one. Judge Dunkin was a very able and distinguished man, but the report was written in England while he remained in Canada. Dr. Thom may have rendered assistance in some capacity, but we think it unlikely that he contributed anything material to the document as a whole.

—The second issue of the 'Architectural Annual' (Philadelphia, No. 931 Chestnut Street) reaches us in April, 1902, although bearing the date 1901. A letter from the editor, Albert Kelsey, gives the assurance that, although there was indeed some delay, yet there had been no intention of issuing the number dated 1901 until two or three months after the close of that year, it being the editor's purpose to review in each issue the progress of the year last preceding. There is some interest in comparing the frontispieces of volumes one and two, for each is a portrait and a record of an architect who may be taken as typical. It seemed odd when the first volume appeared with the motto on the cover, "Progress before Precedent" as the motto of the Architectural League of America, that the first portrait given should be that of an architect who more than almost any other stands for the opposite doctrine, for the doctrine of the supreme importance and value of tradition, and of the advisability of exact copying of the past rather than of any rash experimenting. The volume for 1901, however, gives as its frontispiece the portrait of the most daring innovator among all the architects of celebrity in the United States, and now it may be thought that the balance is even. The names of the architects in question are Charles Follen McKim and Louis Henry Sullivan. The contents of volume two could be appraised only by a minute examination of many subjects. There are three hundred pages, of which much more than half the aggregate space is occupied by illustration of a very general sort, including much that is very interesting, with no especial favor to designs which embody "progress before precedent." On the other hand, it was a good thought to give the Château d'Eau of Longchamps, Marseilles (even if the name had to be spelled wrong twice), for, although that building is twenty-five years old, its interest does not flag; and so it was a good thought to give a view in Hudson Park, New York, where an attempt at a formal garden was made under unwonted conditions. There is much attention given to gardens and parks, and, on a page not easily identified because none of the pages entirely occupied by illustration is numbered at all, there is given a map of the Boston parkway system—an admirable thing, which every one ought to study. A certain number of the illustrations have critical remarks included in their legends. These are judicious and interesting, but it is perhaps not wholly regrettable that this custom cannot be uniform. The reader who is inclined to be hypercritical may easily set up the theory that it would be far less agreeable and less safe to criticise in this way one design rather than another, and yet this seems to be an argument rather for abandoning the criticisms than for increasing their number; for how could we look for such boldness on the part of any editor as that he should criticise "with equal hand" the twenty-year-old work of a foreigner and the contemporary work of a fellow-citizen?

—The 'Stephen A. Douglas' in the "Riverside Biographies," by W. G. Brown, is one of the best volumes of a series that has some excellent numbers. The distinction of its quality is that it is written with a dramatic sympathy which does not for a moment confuse the writer's moral discrimination. We fear at first that it is going to do so, or that Mr. Brown is not going to take a side, one way or another; but our fears are dispelled when we come to the compromises of 1850, and, four years later, to the Kansas-Nebraska legislation. In the former we have Douglas faithfully represented as the most powerful and efficient advocate of those measures which were the latest fruit of Clay's unprincipled and superficial mind. In the latter we see Douglas taking a leading part in the renewal of the conflict to which the compromises had sung a temporary truce, "calming," as Rufus Choate said very handsomely, "with instantaneous and mighty charm the madness and anxiety of the hour." Douglas's characteristic note was moral indifference to the character of slavery. He did not care, he said, whether slavery was voted up or voted down. But we are invited to admire the splendid force with which he drove home the logic that, from the compromises of 1850, deduced the repeal of the Missouri legislation of 1820. We can admire with less qualification when the Lecompton measure put Douglas to a resort which, relatively to the Buchanan policy, was morally attrac-

tive, and was accepted by Horace Greeley and some others as the best way out. The influence of Douglas in disintegrating the Democratic party, and thus making Lincoln's election possible, is vividly brought out; so, too, his influence upon the Northern Democracy, tending to the creation of a war party from its ranks, but for which Lincoln's task would have been harder than he could perform. At various points the parallel between Douglas and Lincoln is exhibited in a striking manner. The former's rapid advancement is contrasted sharply with the latter's long delays. The closing page will satisfy those who like to have a moral clearly drawn. But why do we not have a full biography of Douglas as good as this, adequate to the brilliancy of his daring and the tragedy of his defeat?

—Mr. C. T. Whitmell of Leeds, England, reports an expected opportunity to make a unique observation, about the 17th of July next, of the visibility of the main body of the planet Saturn through what is known to astronomers as the Cassini division in the ring. According to Professor Barnard's estimates, this division of the ring is 2,270 miles in breadth; and, assuming that the ring is fifty miles in thickness, Mr. Whitmell computes an effective opening of rather more than 800 miles, corresponding to an arc of 0.2″ as seen from the earth. Under these conditions, the earth and the sun being at that time equally elevated above the plane of the rings, a line from the sun to the earth will pass through the rift in the ring to the planet; and an observer here, if suitably placed, should be able to view through this rift a portion (very small, it is true) of the planet's surface lit up by the ray of sunlight which has passed through the rift, and is reflected back by the planet through the rift and to the observer. What is expected to happen, then, is that a small portion of the arc of the Cassini division crossing the planet will appear bright instead of dark. This observation, never before made, will naturally be one of peculiar delicacy and difficulty. On account of the present south declination of Saturn, it may be caught by astronomers in the southern hemisphere, while a view of it may be denied to our northern observatories. There is, of course, for Saturn at the same time a solar transit of the earth, nearly twelve hours in duration; but the Saturnian inhabitant who would see it must be armed with a good telescope, for the earth, although 8,000 miles in diameter, is so remote from Saturn that it will be projected on the sun as a minute black speck about the size of a golf ball two miles away.

—A Tupi-Portuguese dictionary of 1795, which was almost forgotten on account of its scarcity, has just been remodelled and republished by Julius Platzmann. Although the name of the author is not mentioned on the title-page, nor anywhere else in the volume, its intrinsic merits have caused its republication by the celebrated Leipzig firm of B. G. Teubner, and Mr. Platzmann has not failed to enrich the volume with accounts of his Brazilian voyages and South American linguistic bibliography, in which he is as much at home as in the geography and ethnography of that distant continent. The translation of the Portuguese definitions into German was the editor's purpose —a task not only tedious but eminently difficult for a large portion of the work. A great number of botanical, zoölogical, and other physical terms had to be presented in another language, and this implied in many instances a special knowledge of the natural objects to be mentioned. The verbatim or literal German translation of the Tupi term often differs from the one to be used in literary German, as Platzmann is well aware when he confronts the two definitions in the same item. No second or Portuguese-Tupi part ever followed, so far as known, the publication of the first; but from this first one the editor has assiduously compiled a German-Tupi part, which fills about the same number of pages and will prove indispensable for a thorough study of Tupi. This Indian language is now heard only in a few parts of Brazil, and in the corrupted form called *Lingoa geral*; for wherever Tupi was formerly spoken in the older and purer form, it has been mostly displaced by Portuguese. The title which Platzmann has given to the book is 'Das Anonyme Wörterbuch, Tupi-Deutsch und Deutsch-Tupi.' The map is affixed to the volumes mainly to show the sites now occupied by the ancient and modern Tupi tribes.

HELMOLT'S UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

The History of the World: A Survey of Man's Record. Edited by Dr. H. F. Helmolt. With an introductory essay by the Right Hon. James Bryce. [English translation.] Complete in eight volumes. Vol. I. Pre-History—America and the Pacific Ocean. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902.

The *Weltgeschichte* is a type of history which the German loves to produce; but it must not be thought by those who have yet to make their acquaintance with Helmolt's 'Weltgeschichte' that this encyclopædic work is but another example of a well-known species. In fact, it resembles the *Weltgeschichte* of Ranke or of Weber no more than it does the 'Histoire Générale' of Lavisse and Rambaud. It differs from all predecessors both in conception and in manner of treatment. It starts out from a new idea, and it is executed in a style which corresponds with the novelty of the motive.

By way of contrast we are taken back to Hegel and his 'Philosophy of History.' It will be remembered that this distinguished metaphysician, when lecturing upon history, paid little regard to any other continents save Asia and Europe. Australia, according to his view, was physically imperfect; in Africa, man had been dwarfed by nature; the civilization of America was only a faint reflection of European civilization. Even when he had reduced the range of his vision to Asia and Europe, he found his principal interest in the states of the temperate zone. As it passes from China to Germany the *Geist* proceeds in a straight line through certain elect nations, and the rest of humanity is relegated to the dusky hinterland of oblivion. Hegel lectured more than two generations ago, and a good many things have changed since his day, including our outlook upon the subject-matter of history. We have burst through the trammels of the notion that history is past politics. We have passed beyond Asia, Europe, and America. Not only do the data accumulate, but the intellectual circle is constantly widening, until now, when we think of history, we call up a hundred fields of activity and all mankind.

Helmolt's 'Weltgeschichte' is cosmopolitan in the broadest sense. Unlike the Oncken series, it is more than an *Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen.* The editor begins by recalling those centuries when historians had no thought of the races which lived just beyond their own national neighborhood.

"Fortunately," he proceeds, "the standard for judging events in the world's history has become far more comprehensive than would have been considered possible a few years ago. Therefore the time has come for us to think of such a work. Universal history is the history of the development of mankind in the aggregate. Previous works bearing this or a similar title have fallen short of their promise; the relation of any one of them to a true universal history is that of the autobiography of a man to the history of his time."

Here, then, is the central idea. "Universal history is the history of the development of mankind in the aggregate." *Weltgeschichte* should be made to mean the history of the whole human race on the earth. Dr. Helmolt is under no illusions regarding the difficulty of his task, and the impossibility of producing any results which are more than tentative:

"The high ideal of writing a complete universal history will never be attained; for the more extensive our investigation, the more often shall we discover unexpected doors which open only to mysterious voids and obscurity. But there are ample materials for a work that only claims to be a preliminary study for a universal history; and the greatest joy of a conscientious worker lies in the thought of that which will be accomplished by his successors."

Having fixed upon a purpose, the execution remains. Out of several possible courses which were open, Dr. Helmolt chose that of arranging his scheme with regard to ethnographical divisions. Here one sees the influence of Professor Ratzel, who is an important contributor to this work, and who forecasts, in the introduction to his 'Völkerkunde,' the preparation of a new history on the present lines. Having accepted the principle of ethnographical division, the question next arises, Where shall the survey begin? Ratzel again furnishes the answer by pointing out, also in his 'Völkerkunde,' that when we look at a map on Mercator's projection, the Americans are seen to occupy a position on the eastern wing. They are "opposite to and most distant from those whose habitation is on the eastern edge of the dividing abyss of the Atlantic Ocean." Accepting this fresh interpretation of *ex Oriente lux*, Dr. Helmolt commences with the inhabitants of America, including races of European origin; then passes by Oceania to Asia, crosses that continent from east to west, enters Africa from western Asia, and ends his course in Europe. Though other continents come first, Europe receives five volumes out of eight, and there is no disposition to accord either primitive man or the backward races which lie upon the fringe of history more space than they really deserve. Dr. Helmolt has been ably supported by the younger historians of Germany and Austria. His staff of collaborators includes more than thirty scholars, some of whom possess an international reputation.

The English translation of Helmolt's 'Weltgeschichte' is now beginning to appear, and we have been led to make the foregoing statement concerning the scope of the work because the original, while known to scholars, has not yet forced its way to public notice on this side of the Atlantic. Not long ago, indeed, we saw it likened in a learned periodical to Ranke's 'Weltgeschichte,' and placed in the same category. The subject involves a good deal of general statement, and general statements in German have not the literary finish and compactness which they wear in French. Accordingly, the task of the translator is no easy one, and we have noticed in the version before us a tendency to follow the German idiom somewhat too closely. However, we are not pointing out a serious blemish. The work possesses great importance from being the first serious and systematic attempt on a large scale to write the history of mankind in the aggregate. It considers geographical and ethnological factors with special care, and lays much stress upon interrelations, collective forces, and international tendencies.

The publishers prefix to the present translation a note from which we shall extract one sentence:

"They [the publishers] have been fortunate to find in Dr. Bryce an enthusiastic admirer of the monumental work which modern research and scholarship have created, and they feel confident that Mr. Bryce's eloquent exposition of the plan of the present work, and the whole philosophy of the world's history, will not merely be read for its own interest, but will win many readers and students for the work itself."

While this sounds like an advertisement, the statement made is not couched in language which is much too strong. Mr. Bryce has written something more than a preface. He has written a general introduction, and if it is not an exposition of "the whole philosophy of the world's history," it is none the less a thoughtful essay of more than forty quarto pages on the history of the world, or, we might better say, of man in his relation to nature. Dr. Helmolt has a long chapter of his own on "The Matter and Aim of a Universal History." Mr. Bryce has discussed the same subject in a different way and with much greater incisiveness. His introduction is remarkable for its command of salient points in historical geography, but it is more remarkable still for the wisdom of its concluding observations on the increase of human resources, the evolution and development of man "from the side of his relations to space," and the course of history as establishing a general law of progress.

Mr. Bryce's paper covers a wide range of interests, and contains material that would amply furnish forth a separate article. It is the utterance of one who has reflected long upon the larger problems of history, and has not suffered his perception of outlines to be blurred by a too close scrutiny of details. The majority of historians live in the concrete, or, more often, in the highly concrete. Theorizing, when it is attempted, does not seem to be their strong point. Mr. Bryce comes forward neither as a philosopher nor as a prophet, but the sagacity with which he is endowed makes him suggestive even where he is least dogmatic.

Into an account of the views that are here expounded we shall not enter, for they cannot be condensed briefly, and every historical student should read the whole essay; but the concluding passage we wish, for several reasons, to quote. Though Mr. Bryce is averse from the mania of prophecy, he brings forward a few negative predictions, after which he concludes as follows:

"It may seem natural to add the further prediction that the great states and the great religions will continue to grow and absorb the small ones. But when we touch topics into which human opinion or emotion enters, we touch a new kind of matter, where the influences now at work may be too much affected by new influences to admit of any forecast. Conditions might conceivably come into action which would split up some or most of the present great states, and bring the world back to an age of small political communities. So, too, though the lower forms of paganism are fast vanishing, and the four or five great religions are extending their sway, it is conceivable that new prophets may arise, founding new faiths, or that the existing religions may be split up into new sects widely diverse from one another. Even the supremacy of the European races, well assured as it now appears, may be reduced by a variety of causes, physical or moral, when some centuries have passed. Whoever observes the predictions made by the most observant and profound thinkers of the past, will see reason to distrust almost all the predictions, especially those of a positive order, which shape themselves in our minds to-day."

SIX NOVELS.

The Master of Caxton. By Hildegard Brooks. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Fighting Bishop. By Herbert M. Hopkins. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company.

The Son of a Fiddler. By Jennette Lee. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Mary Garvin. By Fred Lewis Pattee. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Aliens. By Mary Tappan Wright. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Angelot. By Eleanor C. Price. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The libraries of the future will be constrained to set aside whole departments to the Virginia novels that are pouring from the press. Colonial, ante-bellum, post-bellum, inter-bellum, red, black, and white, they come in inky troops. We know them like our pockets, from curled cavalier to braided pickaninny. Yet Hildegard Brooks, in 'The Master of Caxton,' a novel of Virginia (for we take it that Rolfe Courthouse can be in no other State), has contrived to give a new turn to the familiar theme by showing us the best-hated class in a winning aspect. The heroine, born of poor white parents, is brought up at the North; she returns to her home when she is grown, and casts her lot with her family, bringing Northern thrift and method to the civilizing of three brothers, amiable, but congenitally irresponsible. Far from wishing to elevate them socially, she discourages their acquaintance with the neighborhood aristocrats, and shows herself as respectful of caste as any patrician. She succeeds in imparting to her young fauns some degree of business conscience; trying to strangle their love affairs and her own, she fails; in failure or success, she is a strong, likable, and human creature. "Virgie," her high-caste friend, in every way her inferior, is an admirably drawn example of her kind, fascinating, and at heart faithful; of whom it may be said that the laws of logic, responsibility, relevance "look in their faces to forget their errand." "Bud," the chief of the three brothers, is excellently depicted in his illiterate and sweet-natured elegance. The German-Americans are less well done, but very good is the seemingly shiftless, halting hero, Don, with his contradictory masterfulness and hesitancy. He is a puzzle that is comfortably explained at last. If the dénouement is not absolutely exciting, yet it is of a certain originality, and sets the seal of a graceful distinction on a novel that is both unpretending and unhackneyed.

"This story of a family," as Mr. Hopkins calls his book, in dedicating it to his two sisters, is about Cæsar or nobody. That is to say, it is not greatly a story unless it is about Bishop Hopkins, who, like Bishop Ambrose of the book, was essentially a fighting Bishop, particularly when the abolitionists were his opponents. He was a man of varied talents, which included musical composition, and he had a son who, like the Stephen of the novel, devoted a goodly talent and an eccentric nature to the advancement of choir-boys and the calumniation of German music. But though as a novel the narrative rambles, the Bishop's portrait is an impressive one, whether from life or not, in its fierce strength and pugnacity, its unexpected tendernesses, its usually too late repentances, and its wholly unforeseen reasonablenesses. The large family of sons, in their varying relations to this fond but terrible father, are more or less real in effect. The most rebellious of them could never quite attain to independence of the father's authority. In his presence they were always little boys, naughty or good. But the Bishop was too large a man not to submit to the march of events. When, against his convictions, the slaves were freed, the "indomitable old soldier of the Church Militant" recognized that things had happened, and girded on his armor at seventy to work for Church colleges and an educated negro ministry. Here we leave him, not sorry to have made the acquaintance of so rugged a nature. If personal affairs have been disclosed too freely for a "story of a family," it is not for the outsider, the reader of the story, to complain.

A book entitled 'The Son of a Fiddler' claims attention first of all on its musical side. The fiddler, who had run away with an actress, returned to his parents on the farm, bringing his two-and-a-half-year-old child. "He had come home to die, and he wasted no time about it." He had his fiddle, and he played for the farm hands a week before he died. First he played "the story of wandering," then "a clumsy, rhythmic gavotte," which set the village fool to doing "a giant heel-and-toe." Then "the bow stole forward in a low brooding sound," then "deepened and broadened and grew to a pastoral melody full of a rich, sweet assurance." Then it "melted away—and emerged again. It grew more definite." Then "the notes played on." Then Cousin Lois, who had come to the door carrying the child in her arms, with trembling lips and a look of questioning in her eyes, "took the melody in a full, rich voice, 'Home, home, sweet, sweet home!'" Then "the men stirred uneasily for a moment. Then one by one they joined in, singing with free, hearty vigor." Cousin Lois hid the

fiddle when the fiddler died, but later the boy found it, replaced the strings, and repaired the bow—evidently a violin-mender by heredity. At the age of thirteen he is found playing out of doors on a May morning. Though quite untaught, he brings "a wail of protest and courage" from "the long shape." Next he closes his eyes while "the bow groped, and rose and fell," and the notes "crowded fast and faster, in a joyous clatter of sound. The robin in the apple-tree perked an amazed eye through the blossoms." We do not criticise the robin; his conduct was natural. Indeed, we feel like that robin as we read of Alec's later feats. Through heredity, too, he remembers the clumsy, rhythmic gavotte, for when he played it in Boston a few years later for a German musician, Herr Mynter tells him that it was himself who played that tune for the fiddler's father "dwendty years ago, vun day"; adding, "I neffer put dat tune on paber." In Boston, Alec hears music and sees acting—how abundantly, we may infer from finding that, at the first performance he attended, the programme included Don Juan, a new garland dance, and a musical afterpiece.

Once he entered an empty theatre to play "the mood of the streets"; two actors entered, and he flooded the house and bore them "on a sea of light—out through space—beyond space—where the stars grow dim and the soul is freed." At another time, in the theatre, he flooded the house some more till the sound "gripped the heart-strings, . . . the listeners forgot to listen. They forgot where they were. They forgot that it was music"—and perhaps it wasn't. By Herr Mynter's advice, Alec and his bride sail for "Shairmany" in the last chapter, that he may study in Leipzig with the only man who "can teach petter as Mynter." As they are sailing out of the harbor, Alec's little daughter asks him, "What is a fool?" His reply is, "I could play it on my violin. But I can't tell you. Ask your mother." There is a pastoral side to the book, full of eggs and hay, and a city side, full of actresses and ballet, with good nature everywhere. There are two technical fools, with others. And never in one plain, kind American novel have been met together so many illegitimate children. The style is fidgety, the clauses short but thick. As for the adverbs, they are for profusion like the water that comes down at Lodore.

The power of music is further exemplified in 'Mary Garvin,' where the hero is first attracted to the heroine by hearing her "rich alto in minor key," and where his final corralling, after great wanderings, is accomplished (six hours by the clock past the other girl) through the "helpless, hopeless passion and quivering pathos" of "Annie Laurie." For the rest, the story is a thoroughgoing New Hampshire drama, rising in maple sugar and setting in mince pie. There is a good deal that is fresh and interesting in the pictures of farm activities and of the great abandoned farms of New England, and this serves as relief from the comic relief furnished by Joel and others, who, indeed, according to their lights, provide good sayings and stories and wholesome philosophy. Witness Asa on Sunday work: "I've known lots er folks to pitch right in on Saturday 'n' mow down about all the grass they hed, then claim that it wuz absolutely necessary to work on Sunday to save it from spiling."

'Aliens' stands out prominently among novels of the South for breadth, for impartiality, for force. The region is the cotton belt; the time, contemporaneous; the motive, a showing of how little reconstruction has reconstructed, and of how worse than useless are many of the attempts to foist Northern ideas on Southerners of either color. The little colony of Northerners living in the town of Tallawara fall under the witching spell of the South, yet grow daily more and more aware of the unbridgable chasm between them. The conscientious New Englanders cannot understand why the negroes should not hold meetings; the Southerners cannot convince any outsiders that the mere word insurrection suggests to Southern ears enough to account for the ostracizing of Northern mission-school teachers. Mrs. Wright appears capable of understanding both points of view—so capable that her book makes a profound impression. As a story it is absorbing, in spite of some floating threads of diffuseness and disconnectedness. As a political document it is profoundly sad; its very freedom from exaggeration and morbidness only serving to deepen the shadow. Copies of Booker Washington's writings ought to accompany it if it is not to make sorrowing pessimists of its readers. The story is not technically one of unmitigated gloom. There is infinite humor and variety in the types depicted; hardly one which, however familiar its genus and species, is not developed into individuality. The Southern flirt is even more originally flirtatious, unreasonable, and charming than usual. The New England women are human, though pronounced. The Southern politicians grind their axes with a difference. A few of the private problems lack decisive handling, as the relation between Professor Thurston and his wife. A few of the characters are not needed at all. But never has the butterfly man been better delineated than in Trenholm, who—says Zoë—"is a part of our education; sooner or later every one of us falls in love with him. We've got to have it, like the measles or the whooping-cough. . . . I'm a scarlet-fever case myself." In fine, 'Aliens' is emphatically a book to be read. It haunts the thoughts, and it leaves the reader with a patriotic but perhaps wholesome heartache.

In 'Angelot' Miss Price has written an interesting story of the Anjou of 1811, when Napoleon was every one's creed, whether as god or devil; when the imperial peace edicts were no less complicating than conscription; when the behavior of the disaffected, the submissive, the adoring, kept society in a ferment. The field is not new, but always rich, and Miss Price has made it seem new by her happy choice of material, investing the book with interest as a story and as an abstract of the time. Perhaps the narrative is sometimes repetitious; perhaps the type is sometimes insisted on at the expense of characterization; but on the whole the social, political, and historic elements are nicely balanced, with desirable emphasis on the love story and in the refreshing style of a gentlewoman. The little book may be heartily commended.

Mexico as I Saw It. By Mrs. Alec Tweedie (*née* Hurley), Author of 'Through Finland in Carts,' 'George Harley, F.R.S.,' etc. Illustrated from photographs by the author. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

Vivacity and the power of enjoying one's self under all conditions are qualities invaluable to the traveller and not useless even to the writer of a book of travels. They constitute a good part of the merits of Mrs. Tweedie's book. Its title is eminently appropriate, for the authoress does not set out to describe Mexico as it is, but rather to tell her readers what she did and what she saw in Mexico. Her remarks on the country and the people are incidental to the narrative of her own progress—we might almost say her triumphal progress—through the territories of the Mexican republic. She has a quick eye and a facile pen—an eye and a pen well trained by previous travels and by previous essays in authorship; so she is able to convey a fair notion of the more obvious surface aspects of things, and her pages can be read not only without effort, but with some admiration for her energy and her good spirits.

Having evidently had a "real good time" in Mexico, she succeeds in conveying a part of her own enjoyment to the reader, who must not complain if he does not find in her well-printed and copiously illustrated volume either the vivid descriptions or the solid information or the philosophic views which she never undertook to give him. Nevertheless, she does sometimes touch upon economic and commercial topics. She deplores the decline of English trade and sees danger in American competition. She is impressed by the failure of the English free-trade system, and has a simple explanation of the phenomena:

"American [locomotive] engines, bridges, printing-machines, and automobiles are flooding our [*i. e.*, English] markets. This great Steel Trust is going to close many of our doors, and we intend to allow its produce to land upon our shores free!

"Other countries are growing rich by means of protection; and England without it is now struggling to keep her head above water. All countries should be free, or all protected, otherwise our handicap will surely prove more than we can stand.

" 'Why is America so rich?' I asked one of the greatest statesmen in the States.

" 'Because of the duties you pay us and the goods we send you free!'

"And he knows."

Evidently there is no more to be said.

It would be a good exercise for a college student to be set to piece together a connected account of Mexico from the isolated facts and summary judgments which lie scattered here and there through these four hundred and sixty pages of the largest octavo. The effort would resemble that of hunting through Shakspere's plays to find the materials of Bacon's 'Novum Organon.' Nevertheless, the thing may be done. We have gathered from Mrs. Tweedie certain impressions of Mexico. They are somewhat as follows:

The country presents singular contrasts of civilization and barbarism; but the barbarism is not confined to the agricultural Indians. Some essentially primitive superstitions and usages appear among the richer and better educated inhabitants of the cities. The Indians are good workers when

they work, but naturally lazy and addicted to gambling, as indeed everybody is in Mexico. Gambling is the characteristic vice of the country among pure Spaniards, among the half-breeds, among the native tribes. The Indians are now generally quiet, under the stern discipline of the present Government, which, when a crime has been committed, shoots the suspected persons with little or no trial unless they can prove their innocence. But they are vindictive; and a harsh or unjust employer may probably perish by the knife at last. They are extremely superstitious, and in many places scarcely weaned from the worship of their ancient deities. The small Europeanized upper class is exclusive. Their courtesy is wonderful, their society delightful. They never see one another quietly in one another's houses. If a party is given, it becomes a banquet, for their hospitality, though not frequent, is lavish.

"Mexicans are very Latin by temperament. They become wildly enthusiastic over some person or thing which excites their interest for the time, but they soon weary of the new hobby, and the passion dies out almost as quickly as it was kindled. They are excitable in conversation, gesticulate freely to emphasize their words, and one feels the warm blood of a Southern race is tingling in their veins. They say all manner of delightful things, but, of course, they never mean them."

The extreme generality of this last sentence must, we suspect, be due to the modesty of our authoress, who did not wish her readers to suppose that she believed all the delightful things which the Mexicans are here recorded to have said about her.

The country is extraordinarily rich in its agricultural products and in its mines, but there has been so much trickery and fraud practised—not by the native Mexicans, for they don't undertake this kind of enterprise, but by foreigners—in bringing out mining companies, that English investors ought to be very careful to make inquiries before they take shares on faith of a prospectus. The three great wants of the country are labor, fuel, and water; the last being especially deficient in the northern provinces, since even where rain falls during the wet season no proper arrangements are made for storing it.

The drawbacks to travelling are the absence of good inns and the prevalence of dust-storms. Apropos of travelling, a piece of advice is given which Englishmen may need, but Americans do not: "Never refuse the offer of a private car." Thieving is extremely common, but highway robbery has been effectively repressed by the stringency of the Governors and by the efficiency of the *Rurales*, a gendarmerie which the President has formed out of those who were formerly bandits.

The favorite diversions of the people, besides gambling, are bull-fights and cock-fights. Mrs. Tweedie went to see both, in order to determine whether or no they are cruel sports. She pronounces that the bull-fight is not cruel (except so far as the gored horses are concerned) when the matador is skilful and can kill his bull by one well-planted thrust. Neither, in her judgment, is a cock-fight cruel when one of the birds kills its antagonist immediately. If the conflict is prolonged until both are badly wounded, cruelty may be said to come in. This seems a rather indulgent view. There is no better test of the true character of a nation than its sports; and the passion for bull-fighting, cock-fighting, and gambling among the civilized townsfolk throws an unpleasant light on the mind and tastes of the average Mexican. It is, however, to be remembered that a century has not yet elapsed since the Inquisition was abolished. Cruelty needs some time to get out of a people. We are told—and are glad to hear it—that the President of the Republic and his wife do not approve of bull-fights. Mrs. Tweedie dilates more than once on the merits and services of Gen. Diaz. She thinks him "the greatest dictator of modern times," and doubts whether any other man in the nineteenth century has done so much.

"As a soldier he has quelled war and established peace. As a ruler he has made a country—formerly insecure even to its own inhabitants—safe for all. As a diplomat he is at peace with the world. He has paid enormous debts and created solvency—now even developing into wealth—in Mexico." . . . "Has any man of humble origin, practically self-educated, raised himself to such a position, and brought his country from battle and murder to peace and prosperity?"

Porfirio Diaz is no doubt a remarkable man, one of the most remarkable of our time, whose character and career well deserve to be described by a more exact and critical pen than our authoress claims to wield. There does not seem to exist any good history of Mexico, and the subject may be commended to one of those ambitious young students whom our universities are now turning out in such numbers. Gen. Diaz has achieved great things, not for himself only, but for the country, and those who know it seem to think that his work, or at least a great part of it, may survive him, for he has accustomed the people to realize the benefits of order and to desire to advance the material prosperity of the republic.

We must not forget to add that Mrs. Tweedie's volume is embellished by a large number of photographic views, mostly of figure subjects, but to some extent of buildings also. Her interests lie in man rather than in nature, and the only elaborate description she gives is of the extraordinary caverns of Cacahuamilpa.

The Moors: A Comprehensive Description. By Budgett Meakin. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xxii, 504. 132 illustrations.

A Ride in Morocco among Believers and Traders. By Frances Macnab. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. xii, 368. 10 illustrations and map.

Seventy-one Days' Camping in Morocco. By Lady Grove. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. xii, 176. Portrait and 32 illustrations.

Mr. Meakin's Moroccan trilogy is now completed, and, in spite of all the criticisms which we have made or may yet make, our thanks and congratulations must be most heartily extended to him. There can be no grain of doubt that his book is a great one, and fills very worthily a felt gap in our means of information as to the East. That it has come exactly in time is also certain; before many years Morocco will be a friction-point of the first importance. Already the eagles are gathering, and the tourist is writing his little books of patriotic protest against the evil machinations of all the nations but his own.

The present volume is easily described. Its aim is to do for Morocco what Lane did for Cairo. It is a description of manners and customs, and differs from Lane's model book only with the difference between Lane and Mr. Meakin, and between a city and a widely extending and broadly varying country. These differences, in truth, are large enough, and the user of this book will need, especially if he is not a professed Orientalist, always to bear in mind that Mr. Meakin's knowledge, indeed, has come with the seeing of the eye and the hearing of the ear, and so far may be trusted, but that he has also been wofully handicapped by a lack of thorough Arabic, and evidently has made no fundamental study of the institutions of Islam. The strength which Lane drew from his labors in law, literature, and theology under the guidance of the shaykhs of the Azhar is wanting here. In consequence, to judge from a twice-repeated error on p. 226, he does not seem even to have learned that in Arabic a noun in the construct cannot take the article; and on page 308 he speaks of "nahu, sarf, and ájrûmîyah" as elements of grammatical knowledge, which is much as though we were to divide grammar into syntax, accidence, and Lindley Murray.

But, having said this, no further criticism need be made. Mr. Meakin's work is full and conscientious, and his estimates of the Moorish character and of the present Moorish conditions are incisive and exact. As examples of details, in spite of an evident liking for the Jews, he perceives—and all do so who have been long in contact with the East—that their practice of usury, their greed, and grinding of debtors, have much or everything to do with the outbursts of fury against them; that it is not foreign protection which is needed for them, but education and social development among themselves. In this volume also he is as emphatic as in those which have preceded on the value and necessity of mission work in Morocco. The knowledge of the resident of years is laid against the snapshots of the traveller. Finally, and above all, he is to be congratulated on the manly and straightforward preface, in which he sums his own opinion of his work. It will go far to annul and disarm criticism.

Miss Macnab's book is in a very different class. She is evidently an old traveller and a practised writer; she has roughed it diversely, and possesses the gift to describe her sensations and experiences well. But she was never in the East before, and so could look at the Moors in a more human way than can any sated Oriental wanderer. To her they were really "folks," if rather akin to "niggers," and not simply another lot of Mohammedans. Miss Macnab's heart, too, is large, even going out to mules, and so she has laid down here a most sympathetic record of her rambles. Fairly, the only beings outside of the pale of humanity for her appear to be missionaries. Towards them she has no bowels of compassion; they are utterly, absolutely odious. From hints dropped she would seem to be what the Scotch call "a daughter of the manse"; if so, it was a very "established" manse, with high objections to dissenters and all unattached evangelists of dubious upbringing and more than dubious social standing. But, on another side, her interest in trade and her belief in its civilizing value are great, and that may be

another explanation. The merchant and the missionary seldom, except when both are most exceptional, work together easily. From trade, too, springs her enmity to consuls and diplomats generally. They are, it is true, somewhat nearer to salvation than missionaries, but still a most useless and reactionary body of men. They, with the Foreign Office, give no adequate support to British trade. Of course, the same indictment is laid by the merchants of every other country against their own governments.

But, leaving such phases of the wrath of even the most heavenly minds, this book is one of a very remarkable value. With all her lack of Oriental experience, Miss Macnab shows a breadth and depth of insight into conditions of life, a possibility of getting upon terms with a people of unknown tongues and ways, a readiness of sympathy, a knowledge of economic possibilities in trade and agriculture, that are simply marvellous. There is not with her the plodding industry of Mr. Meakin—for that she had no time; but there is a quickness and certainty of grasp which is assuredly of kind with genius. Not statistics does she deal in, but appreciations. And all is enveloped in an exquisite medium of caressing humor, which carries the reader along into and through this new, if narrow, world. For, geographically, the ground covered by Miss Macnab was not extensive—Tangier to Tetuan, and back, then down the coast to Mazaghan, then to Marrakesh, or "Morocco City," back to the coast at Mogador—the usual tourist round; but it was done all the way in the closest contact with the people, and the book which has come from it is a delight and an illumination.

It is a pity that little of the like can be said for Lady Grove's venture. Without doubt it will be found very readable by her friends, who can understand the allusions and personalities, amiable and semi-amiable; but, for the unprivileged outer public, these must remain somewhat pointless. A lively onslaught on the irrepressible Mr. Cunningham-Graham is to be highly approved, and an interview with the Sultan—a beatitude which Miss Macnab did not reach—has its side of humor. Other result from the prettily gotten-up book cannot be registered.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Matthew. Dramatic and Early Poems. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Ball, R. S. The Earth's Beginning. D. Appleton & Co. $1.80.
Barton, G. A. The Roots of Christian Teaching as Found in the Old Testament. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co.
Brenton, Hilda. Uncle Jed's Country Letters. Henry A. Dickerman & Son.
Clark, S. S. The Government: What It Is, What It Does. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Davis, W. M. Elementary Physical Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Davison, C. S. "Selling the Bear's Hide." Richmond Hill (L. I.): Published by the Author.
Emerson, E. R. A Lay Thesis on Bible Wines. Merrill & Baker.
Fairbairn, A. M. The Philosophy of the Christian Religion. Macmillan.
Gow, William. Drift of Isla. London: Elliot Stock. 2s. 6d.
Helmolt, H. F. The History of the World. Vol. IV. The Mediterranean Countries. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Irwin, Wallace. The Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám Junior. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard. 50 cents.
John McGovern's Poems. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord. $1.
King, Mary E. Bread and Wine. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Libraries of Greater New York: Manual and Historical Sketch of the New York Library Club. Published by the Club.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Buried Temple. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.40.
Norton, J. P. Statistical Studies in the New York Money Market. (Yale University Department of Social Sciences.) Macmillan.
Page, W. H. The Rebuilding of Old Commonwealths. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Rodkinson, M. L. New Edition of the Babylonian Talmud, Vol. VI. New Talmud Pub. Co.
Sanborn, F. B. The Service, by Henry David Thoreau. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.50.
Scheibert, J. Mit Schwert und Feder. Berlin: Ernst Siegfried Mittler und Sohn; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Spencer, Herbert. Facts and Comments. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Tappan, Eva M. Our Country's Story. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 65 cents.
Tarver, J. C. Tiberius the Tyrant. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
Taylor, B. L. Line-o'-Type Lyrics. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord. 50 cents.
"Veritas." The German Empire of To-day. Longmans, Green, & Co. $2.25.
Wall, W. W. British Railway Finance. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Wiggin, Kate D. The Diary of a Goose Girl. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Wilson, Theodora W. T'Bacca Queen. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Wynne, J. F. A Blighted Rose. Detroit: The Angelus Pub. Co. $1.50.

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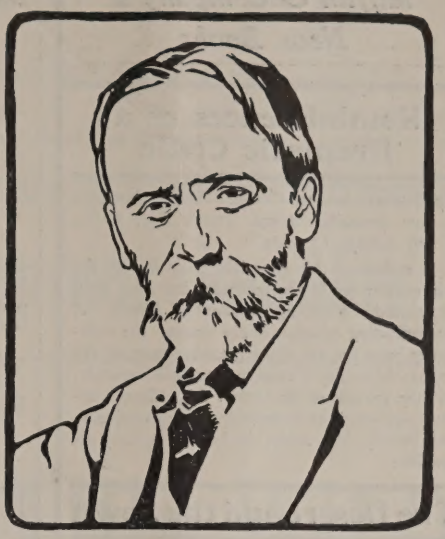

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 29, 1902.

The Week.

Why do the Imperialist newspapers keep on day after day writing down Senator Hoar's speech? This seems to us a mistake in strategy. Their first day's attitude was the correct one—a kind of pityingly generous sparing of the errors of a well-meaning but sentimental old gentleman. Of course, they could rake him fore and aft—but there! they would not hurt the veteran's feelings. This was the true line for them to take, but, once adopted, it required consistency in holding to it. Instead of that, our brothers of the Imperialist press have taken to refuting the Senator's speech again and again—doing it seriously, even in anger. To our humble lights, this appears to be a sad blunder. Do they not see that this course will make their readers think that there was something in the speech after all? Will not their repeated confutations wear painfully the air of gnawing a file? Really, if they persist, they may incite people to go and read the speech for themselves—and that is the last thing an Imperialist editor could desire.

Under the antiquated law which governs courts-martial in the army and navy, a reviewing officer can do no more than state his views if he disagrees with the findings in any trial. This applies whether the reviewing officer be the President of the United States or a general commanding an army in the field. Gen. Chaffee, having convened the court which tried Major Waller and Lieut. Day of the Marines, was required to pass upon the findings, and has done so in a manner extremely creditable to him as a man and as a soldier. In his opinion, neither Waller nor Day should have been acquitted, but he concedes that Waller was not guilty of the charge of murder, in view of his mental condition. As to Lieut. Day, Gen. Chaffee believes that he should have assumed the gravest responsibility which can come to any soldier—that of disobeying the commands of his superior officer. Lieut. Day had reason enough for this action. Not only was his superior ill from exhaustion, but other weighty grounds, as Gen. Chaffee puts it, "so tainted" the order given by Waller, among them reasons of simple humanity and Christianity, that Lieut. Day should have refused to put these men to death had he had either heart or judgment. As it was, he failed to seize the opportunity to prevent what Gen. Chaffee rightly terms "one of the most regrettable incidents in the annals of the military service of the United States."

What have the so-called "detractors and calumniators of the army" said that was as bad as this? Should not Gen. Dodge, the *Army and Navy Journal*, and all the other newspaper defenders of torture, of military crime, and of violations of the rules of war, demand Gen. Chaffee's immediate recall? Plainly the Anti-Imperialist virus has entered his blood. He has joined the "werewolves barking at the heels of Old Glory's defenders," and has placed an official stigma upon Major Waller and Lieut. Day which will never be effaced from their military records, no matter how many swords their misguided townspeople may bestow upon them. Gen. Chaffee has done more than this. He has shown that the murders were committed, not in the heat of battle or on the fearful march across Samar; but in camp when the danger was over, and that the helpless victims were stevedores who carried the Americans' baggage. By doing this, and by showing that Major Waller could have telephoned Gen. Smith for his sanction before executing his victims, Gen. Chaffee has swept away every possible argument which could be advanced on Waller's behalf, except that of temporary insanity.

That Methodist Bishop who was summoned as a witness by the Senate Committee on the Philippines was himself responsible for the way in which the hearing glided into a theological discussion. Asked what he knew about conditions in the archipelago, he promptly replied that our occupation of the islands was "an act of God." He did not use the phrase in the legal sense, ordinarily meaning a calamity. He referred to the Divine guidance which took us to the Philippines, though almost in the same breath he said that Mr. McKinley had told him how everything in that President's power had been done to prevent annexation. The Democratic Senators, however, are expert theologians, and soon had the Bishop wandering in the mazes of "permissive" as distinct from "ordained" evil. The Hebrew prophets occasionally spoke of "acts of God" that were evil. "Shall evil befall a city, and the Lord hath not done it?" It is one thing to refer to the divine will "whatsoever cometh to pass," and quite another to assert that everything men do is approved by the Creator. The same "act of God" that took us to the Philippines may yet bring us away. Frail mortals cannot tell what the completed divine purpose is in that regard. Of one thing we may be sure, and that is that whatever the country does will appear to a certain order of clerical minds as *vox Dei*. But this, of course, simply means that the God it worships is the "God of Things as they Are."

Some curious facts as to the religious policy of our authorities in the Philippines are presented in the *Evangelist*, which vouches that its authority for every statement is "at first hand and thoroughly reliable." It appears that the Commissioners resolved to be entirely neutral as between the Roman Catholic Church and Protestant denominations, and they concluded that the only way for Americans to demonstrate such neutrality would be to have nothing whatever to do with churches of any sort. Accordingly, instructions were issued to most of the civil employees that they should not take active part in any religious work. One of the high officials had been an active member of the Methodist Church at home and took a letter of commendation to Manila, but, in obedience to the official opinion, he has never entered a church since his arrival. A prominent leader in educational work refused to address a meeting in the Young Men's Christian Association; and another, who had made an engagement to speak at a public meeting for Americans only, was requested to cancel it because it was under the auspices of the Evangelical Union. The Commissioners themselves decided that they would never be present at any religious services; "and, as far as is known, they have not attended a regular service of any of the Protestant churches." So unprecedented a policy could hardly be justified in the mind of anybody except by its success, but the *Evangelist* testifies that it has proved a complete failure, the most important result being that "among the people of the islands the impression prevails that Americans have little or no religion."

Cuba's first difficulty will be to live within her income. Our military Government turned over the Treasury with only about $500,000 in it, and with the certainty that increased expenses and diminished revenues would for a time confront the new republic. It will have to pay salaries for work previously done by our army officers at the same time that the stagnation of trade, caused by the delay of Congress in acting upon the Cuban tariff bill, is making receipts fall off. The situation is one calling for skill and firmness on the part of the Cuban Government, as for sympathy on the part of our own. There is renewed talk at Washington of voting a lump sum to Cuba, and leaving the tariff alone. That would be, to say the best of it, like giving alms when we might give work. The most effective sympathy we can show the Cubans is to enable them to earn their

own living. To do this was the generous and statesmanlike recommendation of President Roosevelt; but his protection-ridden party in Congress has thus far refused to follow his leading.

The question whether the island of Martinique shall or shall not be abandoned is now agitating the public mind in France, as well as in the island itself. The question whether it ought to be abandoned is an entirely different one; but if we judge the future by the past, we may confidently predict that the ground will be reoccupied soon after the volcano becomes quiescent. It is the uniform testimony of history that men forget the danger almost as soon as it passes away. The burying of Herculaneum and Pompeii did not prevent the inhabitants of Campania from rebuilding their houses on the mountain sides. The outbursts of Mont Pelée and the Soufrière half a century ago did not deter the islanders from repeopling the devastated regions. The great Lisbon earthquake did not prevent the citizens from rebuilding their tenements over the very ground that had swallowed up their kindred. The Galveston flood of 1900 only spurred the people to renewed occupation of the sandspit from which their property had been swept away. So we may feel tolerably sure that neither Martinique nor St. Vincent will be abandoned. Even if the owners of the desolated fields and towns should leave them, others would flock in and take their places as soon as the immediate terror had subsided.

Jealousy among Representatives of the growing power of the Senate over Congressional legislation explains the unusual action of the House on May 20 in instructing its conferees on the Army Appropriation Bill, before meeting the Senate conferees, to refuse acceptance of certain amendments to the bill made by the upper branch. The traditional custom is to have first a "free conference," when, in case of a disagreement, either Senate or House may instruct its spokesmen to insist upon any provision on which it is set. For the House to ask a conference of which the aim is to secure an agreement, and at the same time formally and deliberately to notify the Senate that it will never agree to certain things, is contrary to all rules and precedents. It was done last week only because a great many Representatives sympathize with the views expressed by Mr. Heminway of Indiana, who "made a brief speech upon the decadence of the power of the House and the growing power of the Senate in determining legislation, and called upon the House now to take a determined stand against a further invasion of its prerogatives by the other body." The difficulty about the situation of the House is that Representatives themselves are largely responsible for the decadence of its power, because of late years they have more and more generally consented to the hasty passage of ill-considered bills with the understanding that the Senate would discharge the duty which the House had neglected by licking such measures into shape.

At the same time that *Die Nation* of Berlin was saying that Germany would welcome monuments to Washington and Lincoln, Representative Stephens of Texas was introducing a resolution to prevent the acceptance of the Kaiser's proposed gift, a statue of Frederick the Great. The peculiar kind of provincialism which lies behind Congressman Stephens's motion is in not very flattering contrast to the cosmopolitanism of Dr. Barth's journal. This resolution has just enough right in it to make one wonder how it can be so wrong. "The acceptance of such a statue by this Government would be a repudiation of its basic principles, as enunciated in the Bill of Rights and Constitution, an insult to the memories of our Revolutionary fathers, an admission that one man may govern a nation without the consent of the governed, and after his death have his statue erected in our republic, and the divine right of kings to rule thereby approved." So reads the resolution. These words have a ludicrous resemblance to sound patriotism and to common sense. They merely happen to be neither. A republic which sets up a statue to a king at most asserts that he has reigned, and it celebrates him for certain personal qualities and achievements which have become "the permanent possessions of all enlightened humanity." Let us look at the effects of Congressman Stephens's resolution: it would prevent the French among us from erecting a statue of the great law-giver Charlemagne, the Italians from doing the like honor to the heroic Victor Emanuel, nay, the Irish from perpetuating Brian Boru in bronze. Some saving sense of humor there must be in Texas which will tell Congressman Stephens that even for the offence of kingship there is a statute of limitations.

The recent Bankers' Convention at Kansas City has furnished an interesting theme for the Western press. The amount of attention given to the subject of branch banks by the newspapers, both East and West, during the past fortnight, is quite surprising. While the subject is still warm, it is fitting that attention should be directed to the clear-sighted discourse on this subject delivered by Mr. Forgan, President of the First National Bank of Chicago, a short time since, in Milwaukee, the press reports of which were rather imperfect. In this address Mr. Forgan pointed out the great economy in cash reserves that is possible under the branch system of Canada, as compared with our system of independent banks. He showed that the Bank of Montreal, with a capital of $12,000,000, carries on its business with a cash reserve of only 15 per cent., while a half-dozen national banks of the United States, taken at random, having a capital of $8,750,000, hold 41 per cent. of cash reserve. In other words, the Bank of Montreal is able to invest 85 per cent. of its total resources, while our six banks can invest only 59 per cent. The reason for this, as Mr. Forgan shows, is that the Canadian bank, with its forty-eight branches, can do its entire domestic exchange and collection business within itself, and has no occasion to deposit any of its funds with other domestic banks. The difference between investing 85 per cent. of its resources and 59 per cent. is equal to a 5 per cent. dividend on the capital of the Bank of Montreal.

When the Atlantic shipping combine was first divulged, the opinion was generally held that, since it was merely an Anglo-American Trust, and not complete or exclusive even as between the United States and Great Britain, there was no danger of a monopoly in ocean navigation. It was an element of reassurance that the great German lines running to Bremen and Hamburg were still independent. The North German Lloyd and the Hamburg-American companies were abreast of the times in every particular, if not a few paces in advance of the other "ocean greyhounds" plying the North Atlantic. As long as their competition could be relied upon, there was no danger of monopoly, and it was commonly supposed that they were beyond the reach of the Trust. It turns out that both these companies are locked in the embraces of the combine. It is the opinion of the London *Times* that they have been brought into the arrangement by compulsion—that the competition of the Trust would have been too powerful for them to resist. Whether this be the true explanation we have no means of judging.

The details of the new combination, as published in Berlin, are not quite comprehensive. It is made plain that there is to be an interchange of earnings between the two German companies on the one hand and the combination on the other, and a guarantee on the part of the latter of a certain amount of earnings to the former. Also, there is to be a "division of territory," if that phrase can be applied to the waters which compose the chief part of the earth's surface. The present service of the German companies at English ports may be continued, but not enlarged, and the combination agrees not to send any ships to German ports. The German companies may establish lines running in new directions,

calling at English ports en route, but in so far as these become competitive with lines hereafter established by the combination, the earnings shall be pooled. Future extensions are to be the subject of joint discussion. Other arrangements are made to cover contingencies and to meet possible disputes, the aim in each case being to pool earnings and to prevent competition. One clause provides that the consolidated company shall not acquire shares in either of the German companies without its consent, but "if interests antagonistic to those now contemplated by the management should attempt to obtain control, the consolidated company shall be free from its obligation in this respect." This clause seems to be very loosely constructed, since it would be quite feasible for any individual in the consolidated company to incite somebody to buy shares in the German companies, which buying might be interpreted as antagonistic, and hence as terminating the obligation. This is a minor matter, however. The great fact staring the three nations—the United States, Great Britain, and Germany—in the face is, that here is an audacious attempt to parcel out the ocean traffic of the North Atlantic Ocean and make it a private monopoly.

Lord Pauncefote's death removes an Ambassador who knew how to win the regard and friendship of Americans without any arts but those of discretion and transparent good faith. He did not make speeches in public, as is expected of our Ambassadors to England. British Ministers in this country have never had that habit. Nor did Lord Pauncefote grace academic occasions, as the French and the German Ambassadors have done. Yet, by unfailing tact and perfect diplomatic propriety, he succeeded in convincing Americans of his good will for this country. Few here believed in the reality of that initiative against us which the revelations of the German Foreign Office last winter made him appear to have taken in 1898. On that subject Lord Pauncefote's lips were sealed; but all who knew him were confident that the whole thing was a misunderstanding of his attitude and his acts. Certainly, in all that relates to a better understanding between the United States and Great Britain, his labors were most intelligent and humane. He put his name to several treaties of the highest importance, in the negotiation of which his interest was always that of preserving peace and strengthening friendship. If the most notable of these —the arbitration treaty—failed through the Senate's unwillingness, though urged by both President Cleveland and President McKinley, to reduce the danger of war to a minimum, that does not detract from the praise due Lord Pauncefote. He was a stanch friend of peace, and we should like to think it was for that reason that he was so unvarying a friend of this country.

Lord Rosebery's return to England in full cry against any Tory meddling with free trade is doubtless one more indication of his willingness to lead the Liberal party again. He certainly has a much better chance to do so on the question of taxation than on the delightfully vague issue of "efficiency" which he proposed in his Chesterfield speech. The cool reception which that met with drove him sulking to the Continent, but the new food tax and the Bury bye-election have brought him back to sound the note of party unity once more. Here is something that Englishmen can understand—can understand even Lord Rosebery when he speaks about it; and he himself has told us that "the English love a statesman whom they understand, or at least think that they understand." Liberal harmony is yet a great way off; but if the Conservatives persist in their food tax and their dabbling with a thinly disguised protection, they will fairly compel the Opposition to sink all minor differences. If this question should come sharply to the front, after peace in South Africa, Lord Rosebery might prove to be the best man to rally his party. In contending for unimpaired freedom of trade, he would not be, as he has appeared to be in his other recent attempts to resume the leadership in the unhappy position which his own pen has described—that of essaying the rôle of "pontiff of a church with the conviction of being in truth a heretic."

The Cobden Club has issued a leaflet on the subject of the bread tax, showing how this impost affects the poorest class in Great Britain. This is the "under-fed class," the dimensions of which in the United Kingdom are enormous. One-fourth of the town population are either in the plight of not having food enough to keep their bodily powers in good working order, or are on the border line between a sufficient and an insufficient supply. This appalling fact has lately been brought out by the researches of Mr. Charles Booth and Mr. Rowntree. Now the bread tax is estimated by the Chancellor of the Exchequer to produce about $13,000,000. But this does not represent the full amount that will be paid. The price of grain grown in the United Kingdom will be increased in the same proportion as that of the imported article. This will add half as much more to the burdens of the consumer, bringing the total up to $20,000,000. But this does not tell the whole story. The bakers are not going to pay this sum out of their own pockets. They will charge it over to the purchasers of bread, and the extra cost is estimated to be equal to half-a-farthing a loaf. As there is no such coin as a half-farthing, the extra charge to all who buy a single loaf—that is, to the very poorest class—will be a whole farthing. Therefore, the heaviest burden will fall upon those least able to bear it. This is what usually happens in the adjustment of taxes. The Cobden Club intends to fight against it, whether the war in South Africa continues or not, and not on the grounds of free trade merely, but for the welfare of the most helpless part of the community.

The regret at the announcement of M. Waldeck-Rousseau's resignation is lessened somewhat by the fact that he pronounces his work of conciliation to be accomplished. He accepted the Premiership in order to bring order out of the political confusion arising from the Dreyfus affair, and, now that order is restored, and as if to avoid the appearance of ulterior ambitions, he makes way for a successor. This, at least, is the reason for his resignation which the dispatches give, and it accords with the character of the man. It would be unwise, however, to speculate as to the new Premier until it is perfectly certain that M. Waldeck-Rousseau's resolve is inexorable. It is expedient, perhaps, to resign at a time when a political programme has been achieved, an electoral victory has been won, and a visit of President Loubet to the Czar is in progress; but these are considerations that would hardly weigh against a plain duty to the state. Whatever personal or political reasons have led to his retirement cannot, we are sure, be permanent. No man is indispensable, but he is as nearly so as any one man can be in French politics.

Naturally, the formal toasts to the French and Russian armies which were offered at the review held in President Loubet's honor, laid especial emphasis upon the pacific nature of the Dual Alliance. "This imposing force menaces no one," said President Loubet of the two armies which the Czar had declared to be brothers in arms. One may be glad that the fiction of a defensive alliance was held up, even while feeling that it is a fiction. Russia certainly is threatened by no other Power, and the alliance for her means either support in aggressive enterprises, or merely facility for placing loans. France, too, since the agreements concerning the Algerian hinterland, is threatened in no territorial interest. For her the alliance means either support in a war of her own making, or else the mere gratification of military vanity. The fact that Russia has not given, and cannot give, effective assurances of loyalty, we have frequently pointed out. Since the Franco-Italian *entente*, the Dual Alliance has become more than ever superfluous, even to France.

SENATOR HOAR'S SPEECH.

The speech on the Philippine question delivered by Senator Hoar on Thursday recalls the memorable effort made by the greatest of Republican statesmen on an occasion equally great, and on a subject closely akin to that which inspired the Massachusetts Senator. On the 16th of June, 1858, Abraham Lincoln, at Springfield, Ill., began his speech in these words:

> "If we could first know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it."

He went on to show that the American republic was like a house divided against itself, which cannot stand. He believed that the Government could not endure permanently half slave and half free. He did not expect the house to fall, but he did expect that it would cease to be divided. It would become all one thing or all the other. This speech was followed, somewhat later, by Mr. Seward's "irrepressible conflict" speech at Auburn, N. Y., in which the same idea was expounded at greater length. The truth which both these statesmen sought to impress upon the people was, that a republic dedicated to human liberty could not endure permanently if it should cease to practise the principles which it professed.

This was the theme upon which Senator Hoar held his hearers spellbound for three hours on Thursday. And yet we are told by the leading Republican organ in this city that it was "chiefly a rethreshing of old straw." Was it so, indeed? If the principles of the Declaration of Independence could be called old straw, then might Mr. Hoar's speech be considered a waste of words. If the battle of Thermopylæ is an idle tale, if the battle of Lexington is inconsequential, if every struggle for human rights since history began to be written and deeds of valor and self-sacrifice for country and freedom to be sung has been vain, then is the speech of the Massachusetts Senator to be classed as rubbish, from which no more nutriment for human souls can be extracted.

It was time that somebody who has the ear of the nation should sound again the note of liberty, and tell a forgetful people what it signifies in comparison with power and pelf. "You are fighting for sovereignty," said Mr. Hoar; "you are fighting for the principle of eternal dominion over that people, and that is the only question in issue in the conflict." This was in answer to the contention of Senator Foraker and others that we are slaying the Filipinos and practising the horrors of the Spanish Inquisition upon them merely to restore order. Everybody knows—it has been repeated a thousand times—that order could be restored by simply telling those people that we intend to give them their independence. But we have never said that. We have never said what we said to Cuba. Why not? Because some people thought that money could be made out of them. Others thought that it would be a fine thing to have ships and cannon there to match other nations in China, or to "dominate the Pacific." All these reasons meant pelf, direct or indirect. Nobody has ever yet made any money out of the Philippines, except army contractors; but if the island of Luzon were made of solid gold, nothing could ever compensate the American republic for overthrowing the liberty of a free people who never harmed us. It was time, we repeat, for somebody having the ear of the nation to ring this truth from the public belfry. Senator Hoar has earned the thanks of his own and of all future generations by performing this task in the way he did it.

What will come of it? we shall be asked. No man can say what shall be the final outcome—whether the Filipinos will be subjugated in blood, or the Americans be mired and strangled in their own riches. Of one thing, however, we feel assured. As long as the spectacle of oppression, tyranny, and cruelty exists in the Philippines, or elsewhere in the world, there will be men and women in the United States to rethresh the old straw of human rights. There will always be men to kindle the torch of liberty, and to do battle for the principles that Washington and Lincoln upheld. It is not for us to say who shall win in any coming election. A higher power will decide that question, but hope will always remain while men remain like Senator Hoar to tell the truth alike to willing and unwilling ears.

We have not sought to follow Mr. Hoar's argument, but rather to enter into the spirit of his discourse. The ability is not given to many to gather up the threads of a great and prolonged controversy, and present the whole of it in a compass brief enough to be grasped and held by ordinary minds. It is given to fewer still to seize hold upon the consciences and hearts of the multitude, and teach them to prize moral greatness above pelf and power. Senator Hoar has shown himself a master in both these great faculties. His speech will live as long as the controversy subsists out of which it grew, and it can never become stale while the love of liberty reigns in American bosoms.

ROCHAMBEAU.

The unveiling of the monument to Rochambeau, on Saturday last, recalls a story never heard by Americans without a thrill—the story of the aid which came from France at the turning-point of the War of Independence. It is this permanent sense of gratitude which lends to the reception of the French commissioners and of the descendants of Rochambeau a warmth and reality that such formal expressions of friendship often lack. The commander-in-chief of the French allies, it should frankly be admitted, was not one of the salient personages of the Revolutionary War. No opportunity was granted him for that display of ardent personal devotion which secured for Lafayette a kind of filial relation to the Father of his Country, hence a brotherly relation to us all; nor did Rochambeau receive the glory which redounds to Admiral Grasse for a single brilliant and decisive evolution. He stands, instead, as the representative of sheer military sagacity; patient, resourceful, as ready to coöperate unquestioningly with his American commander as to offer valuable counsel. Finally, he has the undying fame of having planned and secured that timely descent of the French fleet which brought the war to a dramatic close.

For a year he had an ungrateful part to play. Landing at Newport in July, 1780, he found himself condemned to complete inactivity. The second contingent which he had been promised never came; he was supported by a naval force inadequate and unaggressive; the French Ministry regularly refused his recommendations for money, ships, and men. For a year he did little more than win golden opinions for the discipline of his troops. Lafayette wrote to Washington, as a crucial instance of the good conduct of his fellow-countrymen, that the Newport chickens which fed freely in the French camp might be counted at night on the roosts. This was glory of a kind, but, after all, not much for a veteran of the Seven Years' War.

During all this time Rochambeau was in the position of failing to coöperate in Washington's cherished plan of a joint attack upon New York. At an early period he seems to have had an instinct that the final campaign would be, not on the Hudson, but on the Chesapeake. It gradually became plainer that the British were trying again, in somewhat different fashion, the plan of Burgoyne—namely, to cut off New England for subsequent conquest, as the most difficult, and, accordingly, to subdue gradually all the country south and west of the Hudson. It was therefore necessary to strike them in the south. Just who deserves the most credit for cornering Cornwallis on the peninsula between the York River and the James will probably be a matter of endless dispute; but this much is indisputable, that Rochambeau by his own efforts secured the indispensable aid of Admiral Grasse's squadron.

Those who love to qualify the word initiative with the epithet Anglo-Saxon would do well to study the movements of Admiral Grasse during the late summer of 1781. Under Rochambeau's earnest solicitation, he sailed from the

West Indies without sanction from the French Ministry; collected troops which he virtually borrowed from France's ally, Spain; in fact, took so many liberties with the programme laid down for him that he was obliged to serve notice that Cornwallis must be captured in two months' time, or not at all. If the stoical French General ever gave way to enthusiasm, it must have been on the day, August 14, 1781, when he informed Washington, whose command he had joined, that Grasse was already at sea, and headed for the two capes. It was, contemporaries say, one of the few occasions when Washington betrayed emotion.

How timely this aid was, need hardly be recalled. Rochambeau, after his juncture with the Continental army, had written: "Gen. Washington has but a handful of men. . . . This country has been driven to bay, and all its resources are giving out at once." Lafayette, whose scanty regiments alone opposed Cornwallis during those anxious months, had written to Washington that the troops were not enough even "to be decently beaten." The coming of Grasse put a different face on things; and from the time that the grizzled Saint-Simon placed his reinforcements at the disposal of the young Lafayette, the fall of Cornwallis was inevitable. The feeling of the French towards Washington is quaintly symbolized in an anecdote recorded by Col. Butler. The evening that Washington and Rochambeau, after their long march, joined Lafayette and Saint-Simon at Williamsburg, there was naturally a great dinner. "To add to the happiness of the event and evening," writes Col. Butler, "an elegant band of music played an introductive part of a French opera, signifying the happiness of the family when blessed with the presence of the father, and their great dependence upon him."

After the juncture with Washington, Rochambeau acted merely as an auxiliary, accepting loyally the subordinate part which His Most Christian Majesty had assigned to him. It was reserved for Lafayette and his Continentals to take the first redoubt with the bayonet, and for Lafayette to send back a proffer of aid to the leader of the French column, who had questioned the courage of the Americans. Yet when Louis XVI. ordered the official battle-painter to paint for Rochambeau two pictures—one depicting the siege of Yorktown, and the other the capitulation—it was more than a perfunctory compliment.

The sentiments which the inauguration of the monument to Rochambeau in Washington arouses are best expressed in terms of reminiscence. The enduring gratitude which the American people feel for him is quickened by the courtesies which have attended the preparation of the memorial, and by the ceremonies of the day. Rochambeau required no greater glory than to be the subordinate of Washington—the "auxiliary" of the General of "a handful of men." If there were choice of gallant service, would not one choose that which the stronger renders to the weaker's need? It is, then, a most happy coincidence that brought within a single week this commemoration and the installation of the republic of Cuba among free nations. The proudest title of our rulers, as it was of Rochambeau, may well be that of "auxiliary" to a brave and struggling people.

THE NEW CONGRESSIONAL APPORTIONMENT.

As the conventions for the nomination of Congressmen approach, attention is called to the fact that there is about a twelfth more districts under the new apportionment of Representatives in the House than under that which controlled the election of 1900. There will be, of course, a corresponding increase in the electoral college when the next President shall be chosen in 1904.

The Constitution fixed the number of Representatives when the first Congress should meet in 1789 at 65, and provided that thereafter the apportionment should be based upon the "respective numbers" of free persons in the several States and "three-fifths of all other persons," as determined by a national census to be soon taken, as it was in 1790, and every tenth year thereafter—each State, however, to have at least one, no matter how small its population. The first basis adopted was one Representative for every 33,000 people, which resulted in a House of 105 members. The variation from this standard was not very great for forty years, the ratio having risen only to one for every 47,700 after the census of 1830; but the growth of the country had been so rapid that the number of Representatives had considerably more than doubled, reaching then 240. At this rate it was clear that a body as large as the British House of Commons was to be expected in the not distant future, and a halt was called after the census of 1840. The standard was jumped up one-half to 70,680 people, and the number of Representatives was thus reduced to 223.

No House has had equal courage in the sixty years since that time, and the size of the body has steadily increased—at first slowly, as to 237 after the census of 1850 and 243 after 1860; and then rapidly—with the enfranchisement of the blacks after the civil war and the growth of the nation later—to 293 after 1870, 325 after 1880, and 357 after 1890. The last Congress resolved that no State should lose a member, and this required an increase of the total to 386. To prevent such loss by Maine and some other States, which are almost stationary in population, a ratio had to be adopted which permitted gains in twenty of the forty-five commonwealths.

The changes thus made constitute an interesting study in the distribution of political power. The Northeastern section of the nation—New England and the old "Middle States" of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, not counting Delaware, which has been long ranked as part of the South—gain 9 of the 29 new Representatives, 3 in New York, 2 each in New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and 1 each in Massachusetts and Connecticut, and will have 108 of the 386 members—almost exactly 28 per cent. The "Middle West," comprising the great commonwealths between the Alleghanies and the Missouri, gains 6—3 in Illinois, 2 in Minnesota, and 1 in Wisconsin—to which should be added 1 more for North Dakota. This will make their full number 106—or 120 if Kansas and Nebraska be ranked with this division, to which they most naturally belong—about 31 per cent. of all. The Rocky Mountain and Pacific Coast regions, including nine States of vast territorial extent but generally sparse population, will have 21 members—Colorado, Washington, and California each gaining one—6 per cent. of the whole body. There remain the sixteen States in which slavery formerly existed—the "Solid South," as they were for the twenty years beginning with 1876. These have 126 Representatives now, and are to have 136 hereafter—36 per cent. of the House, respectively one more member apiece for West Virginia, North Carolina, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Missouri, and a gain of three for Texas.

Analyzing these gains still further, it will be found that one-third of the increase is credited to what used to be the "Solid South," although West Virginia, which is to have five Representatives, has now a solid Republican delegation, and Delaware has long elected a Republican Congressman. These States in which slavery used to exist furnish almost exactly two-thirds of the Democratic party's strength in the present House—108 out of its 160 members. Leaving out of the account West Virginia, and also Missouri, which sends two Republicans from the city of St. Louis, the new apportionment will help the Democrats here. All of the other gains are in States like the Carolinas, Mississippi, and Louisiana, which have practically disfranchised the negro (the two North Carolina districts now represented by Republicans are accounted Democratic hereafter), or in States which send solid Democratic delegations without the necessity of amending their Constitutions to this end. The various boroughs of New York city now elect fourteen members, of whom eleven were Democrats in 1900, and that party should fare better with seventeen districts in this part

of New York State. The gain of population in Illinois has been largely in Chicago, which chose four Democrats and three Republicans in 1900.

Outside the old slave States, and New York city and Chicago, the gains of seats are chiefly in Republican sections, and they just about balance the increase of Democratic strength in those three quarters. Practically, therefore, the contest for control of the House is not materially changed by the new apportionment. The old slave States, New York city, and Chicago furnish almost exactly two-thirds of a bare majority of the present House, and their proportional strength will be almost exactly the same in the next Congress. The decision will still rest with the districts outside our two chief cities, in the long stretch of Northern States, above the Potomac and the Ohio, running from the Atlantic Coast to the Pacific—districts which gave the Republicans enough Representatives for a majority of 37 in the House elected two years ago, but the Democrats enough ten years before to run up their majority above 150.

THE POLICE FAILURE.

With his usual vigor of utterance, Dr. Parkhurst has told the truth about the conditions in the Police Department in the interview published on Friday morning, and by so doing has rendered still another valuable public service. There are those, we know, who will criticise him roundly for speaking out, and who will declare that such truth-telling is really in the interest of Tammany Hall. But common justice, as well as good policy, demands that the friends of good municipal government shall criticise Mr. Low's Administration when criticism is deserved, just as freely as Mayor Van Wyck was censured for the corruption and misgovernment to be found in nearly every department while he was in the City Hall.

When Dr. Parkhurst first attacked the police administration, in February last, he was properly criticised for not having given the Commissioner time enough to become acquainted with his subordinates and with the many grave problems which confronted him. No such objection can be made to-day. Nearly five months have now elapsed since Col. Partridge took office. In five weeks more one-quarter of Mr. Low's too short term will have passed. The citizens of New York are therefore eminently justified in expecting the completion of some reforms, the launching of many others, the ceaseless and rigorous prosecution of public offenders, and, above all, the enunciation of a strong and ringing policy which will carry conviction to the police and to the city by its very earnestness and clearness.

What is the actual condition of affairs at the end of the fifth month of Col. Partridge's headship of the police? In the opinion of competent and unprejudiced observers, police blackmail is unchecked, the patrolling of the streets is as much neglected as under Col. Murphy, the influence of Deveryism is rampant, and the discipline is as lax as last year. The Excise Law is for the most part unenforced; gambling-dens, disorderly houses, and policy-shops flourish unrestrictedly, except, as Dr. Parkhurst points out, where private individuals and societies have stepped in to do police work. Moreover, owing to the unchecked discussion of the three-platoon system, insubordination is rife throughcut the force. Competent observers at Police Headquarters and elsewhere testify that such complete demoralization has never been known as exists to-day. Worst of all is the total absence of leadership in the Department itself. One does not need to resort to Dr. Parkhurst's picturesque language to describe the lack of vigor, of personal aggressiveness and unconquerable determination, all the more missed because of the many admirable qualities, the high purpose, and the long public service of Col. Partridge.

The agitation for the three-platoon system is to-day the source of the greatest demoralization. When, under Tammany, a similar agitation was started in the Fire Department, and a captain in uniform at a public meeting advocated early adoption of the system, he was promptly tried and dismissed. Col. Partridge abolished the three-platoon system in February. Since that time, the entire police force has spent most of its time advocating a return to this arrangement. Men in uniform have gone from house to house begging signatures for petitions; officers have aired their views in print, criticising their commander, to the verge of insubordination. Policemen have been allowed, unpunished, to declare that the Commissioner was bent on making "slaves of his men." The patrolmen complain that they cannot approach the Commissioner or his Deputies in order to state their case, and that they cannot even reach the Mayor, despite the latter's proclamation that he would receive all complaints.

As to the Excise Law, the conflict between leaders of the Administration about its enforcement has done great injury to the entire Department. The men are for the most part ready to enforce the law, but they do not know whether the orders are to be obeyed or not. According to Mr. Jerome, the law must be obeyed, and he will punish all who do not see that this is done. In accordance with Mr. Low's smooth-sounding phrase—"the extreme of the law is the extreme of injustice"—each patrolman thinks that he is quite justified in overlooking violations by the saloonkeepers upon his beat. If Capt. Foody, recently on trial for not enforcing the Excise Law, should be dismissed, many policemen will think it little short of an outrage, since not even Mr. Low's later utterances constituted an explicit order to enforce the statute. As a matter of fact, policemen have been transferred apparently for no other reason than doing their duty in this respect. It is not right or proper that a subordinate should be punished for not doing something about which his superiors have persistently refused to define their attitude or to issue any clear-cut instructions.

That Col. Partridge has achieved some slight reforms must not be overlooked in any friendly and judicial summing up of his achievements and mistakes. He has abolished many sinecures, returned many loafers to active patrol duty, and has set a sturdy example of honesty and diligence. He has, moreover, placed several officials on trial, and some few of the lowest dives have been closed. But all this is as nothing compared to what an executive of genuine power could have accomplished. It is obscured by the fact that, *mirabile dictu*, Inspector Cross is Col. Partridge's chief adviser, that the Commissioner is getting no work or aid out of his other inspectors, and that the Devery captains flourish unconcernedly in their old positions.

In no carping spirit, but only with the sincerest conviction that we are speaking in his interest and in that of permanent good government, do we commend these facts to Mayor Low, and record our belief that prompt action is necessary if success is to be achieved where success is most needed. Only recently Mr. Low found a way to end an intolerable state of affairs in the Municipal Civil-Service Commission. The present deplorable police situation demands all the time and strength and political wisdom he can bring to bear upon it, for in the last resort the responsibility is upon his shoulders.

THE NEW PRESBYTERIAN CREED.

The "Brief Statement of the Reformed Faith" which was adopted by the General Assembly on May 21, was said by the committee which drafted it not to be intended as "a substitute for or an alternative of our Confession of Faith." Yet there can be no doubt that the new creed, as accepted, will supplant the old. It will do so immediately in the popular conception; it will do so gradually in the practice of the churches; and it will do so ultimately in Presbyterian law. There is no reason for delusions on this subject. The true issue before the Assembly was the substitution of a new confession of faith for the Westminster.

The first thing to be said about the alternative creed is that it exhibits a new kind of Calvinism. It may be called a polite Calvinism. For the rough-spoken style of John Knox, it substi-

tutes considerate language which would suggest to Col. Newcome his one classical quotation about the mollifying of manners. Best to exhibit the difference between the diction of the divines who feared not the face of man, and that of their more polished successors, we print in parallel columns some of their utterances on the same themes:

[From the Westminster Confession.]	[From the Revised Creed.]
"There is no other head of the Church but the Lord Jesus Christ. Nor can the Pope of Rome in any sense be head thereof; but is that antichrist, that man of sin, and son of perdition, that exalteth himself in the church against Christ and all that is called God."	"The Lord Jesus Christ is the only head of the Church, and the claim of any man to be the vicar of Christ and the head of the Church is unscriptural, without warrant in fact, and is a usurpation dishonoring to the Lord Jesus Christ."
"By the decree of God, for the manifestation of his glory, some men and angels are predestinated unto everlasting life, and others foreordained to everlasting death. These angels and men, thus predestinated and foreordained, are particularly and unchangeably designed. . . . . The rest of mankind God was pleased . . to pass by, and to ordain them to dishonor and wrath."	"Of Election.—We believe that God from the beginning, in His own good pleasure, gave to His Son a people, an innumerable multitude, chosen in Christ unto holiness, service, and salvation; we believe that all who come to years of discretion can receive this salvation only through faith and repentance."
"Works done by unregenerate men, although for the matter of them they may be things which God commands, and of good use both to themselves and others, yet . . . are sinful and cannot please God, or make a man meet to receive grace from God."	"We believe that God requires of every man to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with his God; and that only through this harmony with the will of God shall be fulfilled that brotherhood of man wherein the kingdom of God is to be made manifest."

Whatever the theological implications of the contrast, the gain in politeness is clear. The granite is covered with flowers.

A theological symbol like that now adopted must be studied in its bearing upon the questions which have been agitating the Presbyterian Church, and leading to heresy trials and withdrawals from its ministry. They are two. One of them is the doctrine of inspiration, involving the whole new province of Biblical criticism, and the other is the doctrine of eternal punishment. Now on neither of these does the new creed give a certain sound. Its phrases seem purposely vague. They are well fitted to include opposites, and to make a basis for a comprehensive Broad Church. The assertion about the Bible is that it is "the faithful record of God's gracious revelations," and "the only infallible rule of faith and life." Prof. Briggs would have assented to that heartily. So would every higher critic in existence. In the article on eschatology there is a similar vagueness. At the Last Judgment, says the new creed, "the wicked shall receive the eternal award of their sins." That leaves open all the old quibbles about *aionios*. Any one who believes in the annihilation of the wicked could subscribe to it. So could a restorationist. One has only to compare it with the explicit statement of the Westminster: "The wicked . . . shall be cast into eternal torments, and be punished with everlasting destruction from the presence of the Lord." We cannot greatly blame polemic Presbyterian doctors of divinity, of the older school, if they denounce this creed as so much Calvin and water, well fitted to give to the Presbyterian Church the theological attractiveness which Kinglake said that the Anglican Church had for him—namely, that of being "the most harmless going."

We would not, however, have it supposed that we consider the adoption of the new creed to be a mistake. It ought to be hailed enthusiastically by Presbyterians, it seems to us. For one thing, it comes somewhere near representing what the majority of them actually believe. This the Westminster Confession no longer does. Only ten days ago an outspoken layman expressed before the Assembly his happiness at the prospect of having a creed that he could both understand and accept. To the Presbyterian Church as a whole, the Westminster has ceased to be a living creed. It is not preached by the majority of the clergy; its more grisly parts are revolting to the vast body of the laity—if, indeed, the Presbyterian laity can be said to be aware of their existence. It has become a creed not to be championed but to be explained away. Now explanation of a creed, as Leslie Stephen has told us, is a common way of making it die. That process has so long gone on with the historic creed of the Presbyterian Church that, even in the judgment of its own members, it now waxes old as doth a garment. To lay it reverently aside, and to substitute for it in the working faith and life of the church a statement of Christian doctrine corresponding to actual beliefs, and freed from the old nightmares, was in fact seen to be the wise step to take.

HERBERT SPENCER'S MUSICAL HERESIES.

Mr. Herbert Spencer's new book, 'Facts and Comments,' concerning which he tells us in the preface that he can say with certainty it will be his last, contains no fewer than five chapters on musical topics. It is not the first time that the eminent philosopher has strayed into this field. Forty-four years ago he published an essay on the "Origin and Function of Music," which was really an epoch-making contribution to musical æsthetics and gave rise to an endless amount of discussion. Serious students of the art will therefore turn with eager expectation to the new volume—especially the chapters entitled "Some Musical Heresies" and "The Corruption of Music"—in the hope of finding further new and suggestive ideas; but they are doomed to disappointment.

One of Mr. Spencer's musical heresies is that the violin, currently called a perfect instrument, has two incurable defects—"the hiss of the bow, and the production of high overtones as it is drawn over the string." He believes that "the sounds of the æolian harp are far sweeter than those of the violin: which last, indeed, suggest the voice of a shrew in a good temper"! The obvious retort to this is that, while the æolian harp's tones may be sweeter, they are infinitely less capable of variety of sensuous coloring and emotional expression, and are therefore infinitely less valuable musically. As for "hissing" sounds, these are never heard when a number of violins play together. Yet it is against the violin in the orchestra that Mr. Spencer's wrath is directed. He protests that our orchestras are very defective because "in them the tones of stringed instruments so greatly predominate." Not only do they "yield the greater part of the sound," but their presence is continuous; "they are always making themselves heard."

Mr. Spencer was wise in prefacing the declaration of his "heresies" with the remark that his opinions "will not meet with acceptance among experts in music." Certainly every expert and every intelligent concert-goer will reject the opinions just advanced, for the simple reason that they are obviously and absurdly contrary to fact. It is quite true that the violins were too prominent and too persistent in the classical orchestra, up to Beethoven; but with Schubert began the modern system of orchestral coloring, which culminated in Berlioz, Wagner, and Liszt, and which gave so much prominence to the wind-instruments—wood and brass—that the strings actually had to be greatly increased in number in order to escape entire obliteration. Mr. Spencer, in a word, is topsy-turvy. He pleads for more of the very thing of which we have most. He complains of a lack of variety in orchestral coloring when, as a matter of fact, coloring has become almost a mania, and the charge must rather be made that too many composers sacrifice everything to it and become mere colorists. If Mr. Spencer had ever taken the trouble to attend a Wagner opera, he would not have written regarding our orchestras: "Beauty they can render; grace they can render; delicacy they can render; but where is the dignity, where is the grandeur?"

Equally antediluvian are Mr. Spencer's charges that in our music "the bass element is unduly subordinated." That was true a century ago; but Rossini began to write arias for the bass as well as the soprano, and since then all the great operas have had bass solos; while, as for orchestras and the pianoforte, the writing of a melodious bass is an accomplishment of every great master. What our philosopher

says about symphonies having no natural coherence is quite correct, and so is what he says about the impropriety of playing chamber music in a large hall. In the chapter on "The Corruption of Music" he dwells on the charge—as trite as it is true—that performers are too much given to the display of gymnastics for the sake of gaining cheap applause. But that is not a phenomenon peculiar to our time, and Mr. Spencer again betrays his lack of musical knowledge by singling out as a warning example the one performer of the nineteenth century who was less open to this charge than any other. "Many years ago," he writes, "when coming away from a concert given by a celebrated Russian pianist, I remarked, 'Too little music and too much Rubinstein!'"

Under the circumstances, it is hardly surprising to find Mr. Spencer championing Meyerbeer as an operatic composer, as against Mozart and Wagner. A woman pianist, at his request, counted the number of "scale passages" in the first twenty pages of the piano scores of three of Meyerbeer's operas and three of Mozart's. The result was that Mozart had 253 of these "mechanical successions," and Meyerbeer only 151; hence Meyerbeer cannot be especially accused of a lack of musical thoughts! This reasoning, surely, seems calculated for the columns of *Punch;* as also the statement that Meyerbeer succeeded in doing what Wagner tried to do without success—to "combine the two requisite elements in fine music—dramatic expression and melody."

A few years ago Tolstoy attended a performance of Wagner's "Siegfried," and, without staying to the end, or having any other acquaintance with Wagner's music, went home and wrote a savage attack on his art in general. Now comes Herbert Spencer with a criticism that is refuted in almost every page of every Wagner opera. The fact has been deplored a thousand times that anybody, no matter how little attention he may have given to music, thinks that he has a right not only to hold his own opinion, but to "lay down the law." With such eminent philosophers as Spencer and Tolstoy setting the example, how can we blame ordinary mortals for being foolish? It is very much to be regretted that Mr. Spencer has published the papers referred to. Perhaps, as he has promised that he may possibly make some additions to a future edition of his book, he will see the expediency of also making some omissions.

Mr. Spencer's doctrine that our vocal music was originally developed out of emotional speech is probably nearer the truth than Darwin's theory that musical notes and rhythms were first acquired by the male or female progenitors of mankind for the sake of charming the opposite sex. It may seem odd that a thinker should have been able to make what we have called an epoch-making contribution to musical æsthetics while now displaying such scant knowledge of the art of music. But the anomaly is easily explained. The origin of music is a scientific question, and therefore comes within the scope of Mr. Spencer's researches, while the questions discussed in the new volume relate to the concert-hall; and as a concert-goer, Mr. Spencer does not appear to have made good use of his opportunities.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 5, 1902.

On Wednesday and Thursday of last week the Royal Academy was besieged by serious art critics, note-book in hand. On Friday, all afternoon, Piccadilly and Bond Street were blocked with the carriages of people crowding to the Private View—a social function from which nobody who is anybody can afford to stay away. On Saturday evening there was the annual banquet, attended by princes of the royal family, ministers of state, and men distinguished in literature and science. Every honor that form and ceremony can give is lavished upon an exhibition that, by a long-established tradition, has come to be looked upon as the official headquarters of British art. But art cannot live on form and ceremony alone, and the exhibition itself only seems the more incredibly commonplace because of the importance given to it. To look at the walls is to ask with amazement the reason for the pretty compliments exchanged in the after-dinner speeches on Saturday evening. Beyond the eight Sargents, two or three other portraits, perhaps half-a-dozen landscapes, and a few things in the sculpture room, there is little that deserves a second glance. And the worst of it is, that the New Gallery, of late little more than an annex to the Royal Academy, now confesses its weakness by giving over its central hall—usually devoted to sculpture—to a show of Japanese lacquer work as a sort of advertisement for a Bond Street tradesman.

That, under these circumstances, Mr. Sargent should tower head and shoulders above his fellow-exhibitors, is not surprising. In the mere matter of industry and power of production he is infinitely their superior. It has been a reproach before now that the modern artist in England is, physically, but a weakling compared to the giants of old, men like Rubens and Tintoretto and Veronese, who thought no more of covering a whole wall with an elaborate composition than most painters do, to-day, of making a slight sketch on a small canvas. But Mr. Sargent cannot be classed among the weaklings. He has his full allowance of eight pictures at the Academy, and, of these, two are large groups of three figures; at the New Gallery he has another group of three, a huge landscape as background to a single figure, and a third portrait besides. There is, of course, no special merit in quantity. But Mr. Sargent is unusually good, as well as unusually prolific, this year.

The most ambitious of these eleven canvases is the portrait at the Academy of "The Ladies Alexandra, Mary, and Theo Acheson." It repeats, in a measure, the experiment of two years ago. Again three sisters are his sitters, and again they wear white. But instead of a room for background, there is a garden, and they are grouped about a great vase, under an orange tree. One sister stands to the left, her slender white arms lifted as she picks the fruit; a second sits below, in front of the vase, a few oranges gleaming through the white draperies she is holding up—and a wonderful bit of painting this is; the third stands to the right, an amused spectator. The scheme of white and green is relieved by a touch of blue in the dress of the sitting figure, in the black of the ribbons and hat of the figure to the right, and by the orange of the fruit. The faces are full of animation, the dresses are put in with a dexterity that Mr. Sargent is at no pains to conceal. The whole picture is full of a vivacity, a vitality, simply amazing compared, for example, to the woodenness of Mr. Luke Fildes's portrait of the King—a lay model draped with robes of ermine and velvet, surrounded by symbols of royalty—which hangs in the chief centre of honor, in all the pomp of golden hangings; the one picture allowed the luxury of a margin of space around it. Or if you turn to Mr. Dicksee's effigy of a lady in gold-embroidered robes set amid silken cushions, or to Sir Laurence Alma-Tadema's gentleman who serves as motive for a study in still life, or to the other Academical masterpieces, it seems absurd to find any fault with Mr. Sargent, the one painter among them all. But place his group in worthier surroundings, and I think its animation would seem a little over-emphasized. I should weary of the set smile on the three faces, of the upstretched arms, of the hands holding out the drapery for the fruit. And there is something as artificial in the composition: it savors of the studio and studio combinations; the figures do not belong to their surroundings, but these are made for them because Mr. Sargent apparently wanted to see what he could do in the "grand manner," wanted to try a modern adaptation of eighteenth-century conventions. In the great portrait groups of the world you are never oppressed by the animation of the figures; in the greatest of all there is complete repose, as in those wonderful old men and old women of Franz Hals at Haarlem, or in the Syndics of Rembrandt, for instance.

Mr. Sargent is as artificial, though in another and very different way, in the second group at the Academy, "The Misses Hunter." In this, too, he has had three sisters to paint, but he has endeavored to give them at least a natural air. Only one wears white; the other two, black. They sit round a divan in the centre of a room, behind them a Japanese screen. The perspective is violent; the voluminous skirts, in falling, make a wide circle on the floor, repeated in the smaller circle formed by the grouping of the three heads above the divan; and, in the background, as if to balance the curves, rise the rigid upright lines of the screen. You cannot look without feeling how much Mr. Sargent was preoccupied with the difficult, almost geometrical problem of lines and curves, without being impressed by the cleverness with which he has solved it. But the last thing you want to see in a picture is the painter's

cleverness, and here, it seems to me, he has sacrificed everything to a display of technical skill, even all vestige of character in the faces. The smile of the three sisters has the effect of having been lent to them for the occasion.

Really, Mr. Sargent's most successful group is at the New Gallery—"The Children of A. Wertheimer, Esq." Here the figures convince you that they do belong to their surroundings. Mr. Sargent might have come upon them so at any time; they are not merely arranged because his easel happens to be before him and his palette in his hand. They are in a room—no doubt a school-room—bare of ornament, save a wonderful globe you can see it was a delight to Mr. Sargent to paint. And there is character in every pose—in the easy grace of the girl of seventeen or eighteen lounging on the sofa, her trailing skirts touching the floor; in the alertness and rich Oriental color of the younger girl, leaning over an ottoman; even in the languid affectation of the boy in Eton jacket and collar, curled up below, though I doubt if an Eton boy ever had such ladylike fingers. There are three dogs, one the famous poodle, each as carefully studied, and the great beauty is in the magic of the atmosphere which envelops the figures, keeping them well within the picture. In the Academy groups the relation of the figures to their backgrounds is less well observed. There has been a good deal of talk about the large landscape in the New Gallery, a Norwegian stream with a youth, in fishing outfit, lying on the stony shores. Mr. Sargent has painted the water running away from him, a wonderful thing to do, it is said. But the picture is without air or light. It has the look of a sketch Mr. Sargent might have made in his studio on this huge canvas because nothing smaller was at hand.

For his most completely successful, if less ambitious portraits, you must return to the Academy—"Lord Ribblesdale," a full-length of a tall, slight, nervous man, in riding dress, standing against a gray wall, with character not only in the face, but in the folds of the breeches, the fall of the coat, the twist of the neckerchief, the very way the silk hat is set on the head; and "Alfred Wertheimer, Esq.," once more an extraordinary realization of the Jewish type Mr. Sargent loves. His other five portraits are of women in more or less gorgeous gowns—clever, I need not say, but not quite so striking.

If I have given so much space to Mr. Sargent, it is because it would be impossible not to; he dominates Academy and New Gallery both. The other portraits, with a few exceptions, may be divided into two classes: those that would rival photographs in uninspired accuracy, and those in which the sitter serves as the merest suggestion for a decorative scheme. An honest photograph would be preferable in the one case, a frank decoration in the other. Among the few exceptions, the most remarkable is a portrait of Mr. Phil May, by Mr. J. J. Shannon, who, as a rule, is too ready to sacrifice a genuine talent to the fashions of the day. But in painting the distinguished illustrator, he has forgotten decoration and been content to show the man as he is. The portrait is a half-length. Mr. May wears a red hunting-coat. He holds a half-smoked cigar in one hand, his hat in the other. The figure is well placed on the canvas, and the head is studied and painted with a sympathy that saves it from being too literal in its straightforward realization of type and character. It is interesting to see Mr. Swan, the sculptor and animal-painter, making his first appearance as a portrait-painter. One of his attempts does not justify this new departure, but in the other, though you are conscious of his timidity and hesitation, though he has not had the nerve to paint the man inside the overcoat, the head is modelled with so much tenderness and insight that one will look forward with curiosity to his next experiments of the kind. Signor Mancini, the Italian artist, who uses his paint almost as if it were clay, but who often produces fine effects despite his indifference to beauty of surface, has been given a place, owing, it is said, to the influence of Mr. Sargent, his admirer. But, having admitted him into their midst, the Academicians, with their accustomed indifference to or fear of foreigners, have not had the courage to hang him appropriately, and his lady, sitting on a golden-draped couch, cannot be seen from any point of view. Two portraits of men, restrained, quiet, but rather ineffective, by Mr. Orchardson, complete the list.

Mr. Orchardson has another picture, "The Borgia," that explains his charm and his limitations. He has represented the end of a banquet, when one of the Borgias lingers in his chair, the guests departed, to watch his victim who has fallen half across the table, the fatal glass upset before him. The banquet has been served in a garden, under the stone pines that make a cool shelter from the Italian sun. The composition is amusing, the table running down the middle of the picture in abrupt perspective. The detail of cloth and fruit, plate and glass, and empty chairs, is delightfully painted; while, for once, Mr. Orchardson has abandoned the curious yellow color which seems, it was once said, to represent the color of his mind. But when it comes to the drama of the picture, what should be tragedy is the merest ineffectual comedy. The man lying across the table might be in a drunken stupor, but for the title. The anecdote, you feel, has been dragged in to satisfy a public that expects anecdote. The astonishing thing is that British artists who are at such pains to tell a story in paint, should almost always tell it with an appearance of insincerity and indifference. However, this year, among the pictures of the kind—religious, sentimental, historical, or comic—none other calls for comment. Mr. Abbey sends no large painting, but instead one of his graceful pen-drawings, "Tho' Amaryllis Dance in Green." Mr. F. D. Millet, however, deserts his little old ruins for a great stretch of canvas, on which he represents the manner of "Proclaiming the King" in the village of Broadway. But he is not at home as yet in designing and painting on this colossal scale, or in dealing with such a mass of figures.

A few landscapes have charm. Far too many are achieved in the Academical spirit—empty designs, made to fill canvases much too big for them, so that their emptiness becomes all the more obvious. But here and there you come upon a little unpretending picture by a man who has felt and observed the facts and effects of nature for himself. To Mr. Edward Stott, for one, Nature is full of poetry, sometimes when the sun shines its gayest at noon, sometimes when day fades into evening with tragic tenderness; and it is this solemn hour between day and night that he has painted this year in his most successful picture, "Peaceful Rest." Twilight has fallen on the low pastures below the cliffs, within sound of the sea, and the sheep are wandering by the banks of a curving pool, while the shepherd sits down to light his pipe. The sudden flame in the blue night is the motive for the harmony, its effect the problem the painter has set himself. Mr. Clausen is another landscape man whose work shows signs of personal observation and personal feeling. His "Homewards" is also a study of evening light, but in the golden moment before dusk, when upon the weary laborers and their horses, as they leave the fields, the light of the setting sun falls, turning now the old trousers of a boy, now the legs or tail of a plodding horse, to gold. There is also one of M. Thaulow's wonderful effects of snow and ice—a Norwegian mill in winter, already shown at the Salon. And if I mention Mr. Arthur Lemon's spirited horses on a wind-swept upland, I think I have exhausted the list of pictures which the conscientious American coming to London need look for on the overcrowded walls of the Academy.

The sculpture has often been better in past years. There is little of note. Mr. Gilbert is not represented, and this means a serious loss. Mr. Frampton, who has just been elected a full Academician, makes but an indifferent showing. Mr. Alexander Fisher, whose enamels are so often very beautiful in color and design, breaks out in a huge allegorical bronze arrangement for a chimney-piece, with a bit of verse tagged on, that is unexpected as it is disappointing. However, there are a fine "Wounded Leopard," by Mr. Swan, and a bronze group of a "Boy and Bear Cubs," both more graceful and distinguished in line and composition than his much smaller "Polar Bears" in silver. A pathetic little outstretched figure, called "Snowdrift," is all the more pathetic as the last work completed by Onslow Ford, just before his death in December.

N. N.

Correspondence.

MARY DYER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The tragedy of Mary Dyer, who was hung on Boston Common in 1660 for being one of those people called in scorn Quakers, must always glare from the annals of the early Massachusetts colony. A woman of attainments above the average, the wife of a leading man in the neighboring plantation of Rhode Island, the mother of a large family, and a person of acknowledged exemplary conduct, her experience at the hands of the Massachusetts authorities stands out as shockingly brutal, even though inflicted at a time when persecutions of Quakers were carried to extremes. Returning from England to Boston in 1657, she was imprisoned because the magistrates were incensed at the conduct of the Quakers. Released on condition that she would not lodge or speak in any town of Massa-

chusetts, she remained in Rhode Island until June, 1659, when William Robinson and Marmaduke Stephenson, both Quakers, were thrown into prison in Boston, and she felt a call from the Lord to visit them. The authorities, Endicott and Bellingham, arrested her, and it was to secure his wife's release that William Dyer wrote the letter now printed for the first time. Released she was, with her fellow-prisoners, but all were banished from the province on pain of death should they return.

The subsequent history of these three persons is among the well-known stories of New England. How they did return, in response to what was to them a call from on high, and how Robinson and Stephenson were hung in the clumsy manner of the day, while Mary Dyer sat under the gallows tree, with a rope round her neck and expecting to suffer the same penalty; how the torture of seeing her friends strangled was prolonged by making her mount the ladder, blindfolded, only to be saved from death by a reprieve determined upon days before the date of execution—could the details of such a story be heightened even in imagination? Again sent out of the colony, she once more returned, to find that her judges had in the meantime grown merciful—they hung her without torture.

This letter throws much light upon the attitude of the Quakers and the manner of arresting Mary Dyer. It is now in the collections of the Boston Public Library.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BOSTON, May 5, 1902.

Gentlemen

hauing receiued some letters from my wife, I am giuen to vnderstand of her Comittment to close prison, to a place (according to description) not vnlike to Bishop Bonners roomes not a place to sitt or lye upon butt dust. It is a sad Condition that New England professors are come unto, in exersising such Cruelties towards their fellow creatures & sufferers in old England upon the same acount. Under the bishops as yo^r^ selues now, had you no comiseration of a tender [*eaten out by m ce*] that being wett to the skin you cause her to be thrust into a Room whereon was nothing to [*eaten*] or lye downe but dust (as is s^d^) hadd yo^r^ dogg been wett you would haue afforded it the [*eaten*] of a chimny corner to dry it self, or had yo^r^ hoggs been pend in a sty you wold haue afforded them some dry straw, or els you wold haue wanted mercy to yo^r^ beast, but alas Christians now wth you are used worse than hoggs or doggs oh merciless Crueltie, & what doth euince but a rateficacoñ of that booke lately come ouer to M^r^ Cunnigraue from his wife in England intiteled the Popish inquisition exerted in N England, w'th how then. & how may bee resented by the supream Authority of England & its dominions time will declare, & I beleeue you will be made sensible of, the carriages therein exprest doth relent the harts of the rudest of men, besides abhominating the carriages of men called magistrats in y^e^ seat of justice, w'thall relating that you haue done more in p'secution in one yeare then the worst bishops did in seeuen, & now to add more towards a tender woman in y^t^ condition, that gaue you no just cause against her; for did she come to yo^r^ meetings to disturb them as you call it, or did she come to reprehend the magistrats: only came to visit her friends in prison, & when dispatching that her intent of returning to her family as she declared in her [*eaten*] the next day to the Go^r^, therfor it is you that disturbed her. else why was she not lett alone [what] house entred she to molest or what did shee, that like a malefactor she must be haled to [prison] or what law did she transgress? she was about a business justifiable befor god & all good men; [euen] the worst of men, the bishops themselves denyed not the visitacoñ; & Releife of freinds to their [*staines*] vers, w^ch^ my self haue oft experienced, by visiting M^r^ Prine M^r^ Smart & other eminent [*stained*] when he was Commanded close in the tower, I had resort once or twice a week, & neuer fetcht befor Authority to ask me wherfor I came to the Tower, or Kings bench, or Gate house; sure it argues yo^r^ selues, little to practise that duty when you were ther in England, and men had ther not euen more aduenterous tender harted professors then yo^r^ selues many of them you call godly ministers and [many?] might haue perisht for ought I know, & doubtless the authority ther might quickly haue [filled] the prisons w'th such as came upon such arrants out of a tender conscience; if that course you take had been in use w'th them, as to send for a person, & ask them wherfor they came thither. what hath not people in America the same liberty as beasts & birds haue to pass the land or ayre w'thout examinacoñ, or are you of the fearful mind as the barbarous Chinensis, that wold nott permit others to come into their Country because ——

And when she had declared her business then for those that sitts in the seat of justice to charge her she was a quaker: what a judge & an accuser both just as did the Spanish inquisitors in Spaine to M^r^ Lithgow, You are a spie, say they notwithstanding he shew'd his Comissions. butt ipse dixit, a spie they say he was, & into such a like place as you haue putt my wife, so did they thrust him, & did not giue him so much as straw to lye on but kept him close according as my wife writs me word, & informacoñ, y^t^ she had ther been about a fortnight & had not trede on the ground, but saw it out at y^e^ windowes: what inhumanity is this, had you neuer wiues of yo^r^ owne; what can man y^t^ is borne of a woman, or euer had any tender affecoñ to a woman, deale so w'th a woman, what is nature forgoten, if refreshm^t^ be debared, butt Benningfoold the Lady Elizabeths dogged keeper wold admitt the Liberty of the garden to her though a condemn'd Heretick, as they called her, oh cruell unheard of dealings, wher was her accusers that she was a Quaker, only M^r^ Bellingham, a magistrat & an accuser what hath magistrats (in the simplicity of justice) to doe to make inquisition upon persons, innocent persons, y^t^ is brought before them, or what president is ther but the Romish inquisitors & the Bishops' oath ex officio, for did she not say when she had finisht her visitacoñ of friends, her business was done for ought she knew & so shuld returne to her family, but some of you wold charge her to come to foment her errors, wisdome wold haue staied till some svch thing had been done, that so some colorable transgression might haue appeared for proceedings, & not vpon yo^r^ owne suggestions to draw up & stuff a mittimus w'th

All y^e^ standers by could not but [*illegible*] by their silence being appealed vnto, y^t^ she gaue a good account of her coming, & y^t^ she said no such things as you exprest in yo^r^ first mittimus, a copye of w^ch^ I haue also to be declared in time, and bee sure such proceeds will be clothed in Roman Buff. It is not to be forgotten the former cruelties you used towards her when she came from England, hauing been tossed at sea, all the winter, bvt a little refreshm^t^ they had by cross winds at Barbadoes, yett as soon as come into Harbor shvt vp into a prison, & there kept [*here follow three lines which have been carefully obliterated*] for no transgression at all, only M^r^ Bellingham then as now said she was a quaker, just as Bonner, Gardiner, and y^e^ rest of y^t^ Bloody Crew said to the poore saints in St. Marys [*illegible*] they sent their bloodhounds about, (as Waitt was) w'th their euerlasting Comission to spie out & bring them before their thrones, Comonly the first or second word to them was, you are an Heretick; but it may be those dayes are forgotten, yett surely you or some of you. if euer you had the courage to look a Judges[?] in the face. cannot but remember that the 1-2 or third word from them was, You are a puritane are you not, and is it not so in N. England. The magistrats hauing contrary to gods Law assumed a Coerciue power ouer the Conscience, the first or next word after appearance is You are a Quaker. See the stepps you follow, and lett their misery be yo^r^ warning; and then if answer be not made according to the ruling will: Away w'th them to the Colehole, or new prison, or house of Correction, and neuer any of the three ages, haue wanted rayling scurilous termes, to make the innocent saints odious in the peoples eyes, espetially when they are not able to gainsay their righteous proffession, and all borrowed from y^t^ nurserie of Deuils, the persecutors of the Waldenses: And now Gentlemen consider their ends, & believe it, itt was Certaine the Bishops ruine suddenly followed after their hott pursuance of some godly people by them calld Puritans, espetially when they proceeded to suck y^e^ blood of Doctor Laytons and G Lillbornes backs (no more do they rend they proceeded to whipp) & the blood of M^r^ Prin M^r^ Burton & Doctor Bostwicks eares, only them three & but three, & these were as odious to them as the quakers are to you; and let me appeale to yo^r^ owne consciences, & to yo^r^ owne [*eaten*] ouer two witnesses came against any person you haue eythere prisond [*eaten*] sworne they were quakers, or a quaker, but as yo^r^ brests conjectures so must [*eaten*] this in Generall, & now in particular, do I demand what wittness, or whether Legally testimony [?] was giuen or taken that my wife Mary Dyre was a quaker, if not before god & man how can you clear yo^r^selues & seat of justice, from Cruelty persecution yea & so farr as in you lies murder as to her & to my self & family oppression & tiranny. the god of truth knows all this, & beleeve it is in Remembrance w'th him & of you twill be requir'd, who haue kept her to the uttmost that is to this present court or sitting to bring her into or vnder the capacity of yo^r^ Cruell Law of Banishm^t^, and this is the summa totalis of yo^r^ Law titled Quakers: That a Law tittled Quakers shuld be a law is that she is guilty of a breach of a law tittled Quakers is as strong, that she is lawfully conuict by 2 witnesses is not yett heard of, that she must be banished by a law tittled Quakers being not conuicted by law, but being conuented [*i. e.*, summoned for trial] by surmise & condem'd to close prison by M^r^. Bellinghams suggestion is so absurd & ridiculovs, that the meanest pupill in law will hiss at such proceeds in old Lawyers. What branch of the law tittled quakers hath she broke or will you say she is vehemently suspected to be a quaker is your Law tittled Quakers Felony or Treason. that vehement suspition renders them capable of suffering Looke now upon all the Tirannicall & persecuting gouernmts in the world, & giue the like instance, & it may appease, butt for my owne p^t^ I never heard or read of any: To Rome I being an Englishman & knowne not to be of their profession, yea to be a protestant, & may see & visitt, & yett not banisht because I am suspected to bee a protestant, & now you that profess the Law of god is yo^r^ Rule, where yo^r^ Law or Rule to keep a man's wife from him 7 or 8 weeks, & a mother from her children, in a capacity of close prison, w^ch^ Admitts of no Baylem^t^, is not this yo^r^ endeauo^r^ & fact of a diuorcem^t^ what you may, & is not this little less then murder by yo^r^ owne Catechismes to bringe in a guiltless person into a little chamber in such a contagious time as god shakes his Rod ouer you in, & hath not ofered her the benefitt of the fresh ayre, truly this is a non pareille. and that she has broke no Law yo^r^ mittimus do suffitiently wittness: w^ch^ s^th^ [sheweth] by virtue hereof you are to take into yo^r^ Custody the person [*eaten*] who upon examinacoñ before authorytie professeth her Coming into these parts was to visit the prisoners [*eaten*] account of her Comming. haue you a law or doth yo^r^ law tittled Quakers prohibitt any from visiting such as you call Quakers in hold, (besides she asked not to go in to them, but stood w'thout the doors all in the raine till she was wett to the skinn) then had you had some Colour, & yett her ignorance of that Law or clause had ther been one, might haue pleaded a suffitient excuse for the first time amongst mercifull men, 2^ly^ yo^r^ mittimus s^th^ that she profest her self of the same Religion that Humphrey Norton was of, I dare ingage 500^l^ she neuer spake such a word, but that she might say H. N. was in the truth I deny not, yett. haue you a law to committ such to close prison as shall say they were of H: Nortons Religion: 3^ly^ that she refused to give a direct ans: to what was proposed to her on any other occasion, you might as well w'th the Hiepreests condemn o^r^ sauio^r^, besides that sauo^rs^ too much the oath ex officio: so much formerly dam'd by yo^r^ owneselues 4^ly^ for affirming the light w'thin her to bee the Rule, haue you a Law that saith the light in M Dyre is not M: Dyre's rule, if you haue for that or any the fornamed a law, she then may be made a transgressor for words, & yo^r^ mittimus hold good, but if not, then haue you imprisoned her & punisht her w'thout law & against the Law of god &

man, I mean yor selues, for if you be men, I suppose yor fundamentall lawes is yt no person shall be imprisoned or molested but upon the breach of a Law, & yett behold my wife w'thout Law & against law is imprison'd & punisht & so hiely punisht as intended to a stepp next unto death, and yt for wch you practise yor selues in part, as, she is condem'd for saying the light in her is the Rule! Is not yor light w'thin you yor rule by wch you make & act such lawes, for yee haue no Rule of gods word in the bible to make a law tittled Quakers, nor haue you any order from yor Supreme State of England to make such Lawes, Therefore it must be yor light w'thin you yt is yor Rule you walk by, and then Remr what Jesus Christ sth If the light that bee in you is darknesse how great is that darkness, The lord of his grace dispell it from you that yee may come to see and say as Adonibezeck did three score & ten kings hauing their thumbs & great toes cutt of gathered their meat under my Table, as I haue done to others so God hath done to me and they carried him to Jerusalem & ther he died: I have written thus plainly to you, being exceeding sensible of the unjust molestation & detaynmt of my deare yoke fellow [*illegible*] & my family as want of her will urge Loud in yor eares together w'th her sufferings of yor part but I question not mercy fauor & Comfort from the most high to her owne soule, though at present my self & family bee by you deprived of the Comfort & Refreshmt we might haue enjoyed by her so sth

her Husband

W: Dyre

Newport this 30th august 1659

Addressed: To the Courte of Assistants now assembled att Boston this 6th Septemb Ano 1659

Endorsed: To ye Court of Assistants d'd into ye Court by his wife M: D: 7 7mo 59.

A CLERICAL PROTEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those who watch with grim alarm the fatty degeneration of the national conscience, can but find added cause for concern in the communications which have recently passed between the Bishop of Massachusetts and the President.

The Bishop and clergy, in diocesan convention assembled, sent resolutions to the President expressing confidence in the Administration, and condemning the cruelty in the Philippines. These resolutions and the President's reply are rare reading. Time was when Americans did not so naïvely stultify themselves, but that time is past. With one hand the Bishop and clergy express confidence in the policy of the Administration, and with the other condemn certain specific acts to which that policy has inevitably led. But what fellowship hath light with darkness, and when did men gather from thistles figs? How the devil must laugh in his sleeve; for could the Prince of Darkness ask for better advocacy than an expression of confidence in his Administration with a condemnation of a few specific acts? Would it not be well for these reverend gentlemen to pause and consider whose followers they really are? His who sternly refused the offer of all the kingdoms of the world and the glory of them (notwithstanding the opportunity for missionary work which they doubtless afforded); or his who claimed temporal power, or its simulacrum, as one of his strange prerogatives? No wonder the pulpit is ineffectual when its ministers are double-minded.

The clergy of nearly all denominations seem to be Imperialists because, forsooth, the Philippines will be so fine a field for missionary labor. Do the reverend gentlemen remember the injunction, "Thou shalt not do evil that good may come," and that the only effective teaching is done, not by precept, but by example? The lessons we have taught the Filipinos they will execute, and will surely better the instruction. Lying, trickery, treachery, cruelty—these have been our admirable object-lessons, demonstrated by easy and sure stages; and the Malay race, with whom revenge is almost a religion, will lay them to heart.

When for thirty pieces of silver, or twenty millions of dollars (the price is nothing, the principle is all), we bought and betrayed innocent blood, sold our national honor, and again wounded truth and justice in the house of their professed friends, we sealed our lips and tied our hands against any real missionary labor. Now our true missionary work lies at home, in trying to take the beam out of our own eye; in striving after that courage which calls things by their true names, which judges righteous judgment, and which detects the greed, hypocrisy, self-seeking, and vain-glory which lurk behind the specious words "patriotism" and "expansion." An Episcopalian.

May 25, 1902.

WATER-TORTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If any of your readers cares to read a heart-sickening account of sufferings under the water-torture and other "devildoms of Spain," by one of the victims, he can find it in William Lithgow's 'Travels and Voyages' (Leith, 1814). The details are too horrible for reproduction. He may also find further particulars in the 'Narrative of the Cruelties of the Dutch at Amboyna' (London, 1624). Having read these, he will understand the kind of lessons that are being taught our young men in the Philippines.—I am, sir, etc., W. H. B.

May 23, 1902.

A SOWING OF CADMUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Essay-writing is becoming easy nowadays, if we may judge by a recent instance. "The Dragon's Teeth," by Agnes Repplier (on bad spelling), in the *Outlook* for May 10, is a mere paraphrase, so far as title, subject, and about one-half of the material are concerned, of an article called "Our Curse from Cadmus," by Margaret B. Wright, in the London *Temple Bar* for May, 1898.—Very truly, C. H. C. W.

Harvard University, Cambridge,
May 22, 1902.

THE BRITISH ACADEMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondents appear to have overlooked the Rev. Joseph Hunter's "Account of the Scheme for Erecting a Royal Academy in England, in the Time of James the First," read before the Society of Antiquaries in 1846, and published in *Archæologia*, vol. xxxii., pp. 132-49. G. L. K.

Cambridge, May 20, 1902.

Notes.

It is proposed to give American students and lovers of the Rev. Stopford A. Brooke an opportunity of contributing to the fund, partly raised, to establish a lectureship in poetry bearing his name, and already begun by courses from himself. A committee has been appointed, and all those who care to express, even by a moderate contribution, their regard for and appreciation of what Mr. Brooke has done for English literature and for its students in America and England, have an opportunity of coöperating with his friends in England. The amounts of subscriptions are not to be publicly announced. Checks may be sent to R. W. Gilder, No. 33 East Seventeenth Street, New York.

We may at the same time remind our readers that the R. D. Blackmore Memorial Fund is not yet closed. The form agreed upon for the memorial was a marble tablet in Exeter Cathedral, and any moneys remaining after this is paid for are to be turned over to the Authors' Benevolent Fund established last year in connection with the Society of Authors. American admirers of 'Lorna Doone' and the late Mr. Blackmore's personality can remit their contributions, however small, to Mr. Albert H. Whitin at Whitinsville, Mass.

The Baker & Taylor Company will issue in the autumn 'Reminiscences of a Long Life,' by the venerable Theodore L. Cuyler, D.D., of Brooklyn, now in his eighty-first year.

The concluding volume in Messrs. A. C. Armstrong & Son's "Book-Lovers' Library" is to be, 'How to Make an Index,' by Henry B. Wheatley, certainly a desideratum for a larger majority of authors and publishers.

Bliss Carman's Ode on the coronation of King Edward will be published attractively on June 1 by L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

The first emotion aroused by the sight of Mr. Charles Eyre Pascoe's book on 'The Pageant and Ceremony of the Coronation of Their Majesties King Edward the Seventh and Queen Alexandra' (D. Appleton & Co.) is one of surprise that a celebration of a few hours should provide material for a volume of 290 pages. The author, however, ekes out the bare coronation-day programme by digressions and quotations on all sorts of subjects that have anything to do with royalty, as well as by obeying that never-failing maxim for the journalist in need of copy—"When something happens, describe how the same thing happened before." It is Mr. Pascoe's special desire that those Americans who find seats reserved "for themselves or their ladies" in Westminster Abbey will take his book along with them, "and there beguile the tedious time of waiting by looking over its pages." This is not, perhaps, very likely; but it is quite true, as he goes on to say, that "it ought to inform some of a good deal they do not know," for it brings together a great many curious and interesting historical facts outside the scope of the ordinary text-book.

'The Bairn's Coronation Book,' by Clara Bridgman (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Dutton), is an ultra-loyal interpretation of the same event for the benefit of undeveloped intelligences.

The Military Historical Society of Massachusetts, which owes so much of its prosperity and usefulness to the loving interest of the late John Codman Ropes, has recently published the eleventh volume of its Papers, containing a timely account of "Operations against Cuba and Porto Rico, 1595-1762," by Capt. Stockton, U. S. N.;

"The Naval Side of the Revolutionary War," by Capt. Goodrich, U. S. N.; "The *Constitution* at Tripoli," by Professor Hollis of Harvard; "The Fight between the *Constitution* and the *Java*," by Lieut. Soley, U. S. N., and three articles by Commander J. G. Eaton, U. S. N., "The *Chesapeake* and *Shannon*," "Perry's Victory on Lake Erie," and "The Last Exploit of *Old Ironsides*" (the capture of the *Cyane* and *Levant* by the *Constitution*, under Capt. Charles Stewart, the most brilliant small affair in naval history). In addition to these, which treat of American naval actions, Capt. Mahan furnishes, in his best style, a description of "The Battle of Trafalgar." All of these essays are marked by sobriety of criticism, and a careful study of original records and sources of information not readily accessible to the general public. It is worthy of note that the *Constitution's* achievements form the subject of no less than three out of the eight papers. The lesson conveyed by the episodes narrated is that skilful seamen and trained gunners will always compel success where the opposing forces are not too greatly disproportioned. The book, as enjoyable as many a collection of short stories, should find appreciation on the part of those who view the present growth of the navy either with favor or with apprehension. Its one unpardonable defect (lack of maps and plans) is only partially remedied by a copious index.

In the latest volume of the Bell-Macmillan "Great Masters" series, Dr. W. Martin, Sub-Director of the Gallery at The Hague, gives us a careful account of that once vastly admired painter of the trivial and finikin, Gerard Dou. To-day it is not easy to excite one's self over the painful finishing of broom-handles, and we have found the most interesting thing in the book in an instance of the way guesses become rapidly converted into accepted facts. As Rembrandt frequently used himself as a convenient model, it is likely enough that he treated his relations in the same way, and an old woman who often posed for him and his pupils was, long ago, plausibly enough identified as his mother. Michel found that a certain old man, also of frequent appearance in the work of the studio, had been once painted by Dou in what was apparently a companion piece to a picture of this old woman, and he concluded that the pair were husband and wife, and that this particular old man, and not any of the others who had been called so, was Rembrandt's father. Now hear Dr. Martin: "Rembrandt's father repeatedly appears in the works of Dou and of Rembrandt between 1628 and 1630; and even after his death (April 27, 1630) his portrait recurs in their pictures—a proof of the impression made on both the artists by that typical head." Perhaps so; but might not a skeptical mind consider this fact as rather an indication that Michel was possibly mistaken in his identification? The translation is by Clara Bell.

Messrs. Longman send us the first two numbers of "Little Engravings," being thin volumes of photographic reproductions after some of the masters of wood-engraving. No. 1 is devoted to the extraordinary invention and scrawled design of Albrecht Altdorfer, and No. 2 to William Blake's cuts to illustrate Thornton's School Virgil, the only wood-engravings he ever did, and remarkable for their technical daring in the bold and sketchy use of the white line. This surprising inventiveness of method on the part of a life-long plate engraver, and not any great merit in the designs themselves, gives these blocks their interest. We could wish the reproduction and printing were somewhat clearer in either volume.

'Among the Night People,' by Clara D. Pierson (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a book of children's stories of no particular merit, devoted principally to the habits of several nocturnal insects and a dozen wild mammals. Fiction, scientific facts, and moral lessons are mixed here in a confusion that makes the reader wish for either unadulterated natural history or pure fancy. The book may interest children, but it is not an artistic presentation of its subject.

'Hezekiah's Wives,' by Lillie Hamilton French (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), describes the character and domestic experiences of a canary and his four successive mates. It is a pleasant variation on the theme of the individuality of animals, and shows that some canaries rise in intelligence above the mediocre level of their kind. The writer has made the most of her material, and her sketch is clever and entertaining; but she seems at times, notably in the last pages, to have read into the actions of her birds meanings and motives quite outside the limits of avian psychology. She makes no pretensions, however, to the use of scientific methods, and readers who love canaries will not be likely to find fault with her sympathy and enthusiasm.

Dramatic revivals at Leland Stanford Jr. University and at the University of Chicago respectively have lately (on May 17) been the occasion of "The Antigone of Sophocles," translated by H. R. Fairclough and A. T. Murray (San Francisco: Paul Elder & Morgan Shepard), and of "The Case Is Altered," by Ben Jonson (The University of Chicago Press). In either case the neat pamphlet is the book of the play. The prose translation of Professors Fairclough and Murray is printed on vellum paper; the Ben Jonson comedy has a facsimile title-page from the edition of 1609, with which it has been scrupulously compared under the care of Prof. F. I. Carpenter. This souvenir of the play thus becomes as well a contribution to textual criticism.

'The Tragedy of Julius Cæsar,' edited by Michael Macmillan, is the latest addition to the Bowen-Merrill Shakspere (Indianapolis). If the brilliant binding is not exactly a delight to the cultured eye, there is compensation in the quality of the paper, the clearness of the print, and the ample margins. The introduction runs slightly over ninety pages, one-third of which is devoted to a reprint of the portions of Plutarch (North's translation) upon which the play is based. The original matter is good and helpful in itself, but it lacks much and adds little as compared with chapters viii. and ix. of Professor Moulton's 'Shakspere as a Dramatic Artist.' Mr. Macmillan goes to an unwarranted length in concluding from such words as are put into the mouth of *Casca*, "The rabblement shouted and clapped their chopt hands, and threw up their sweaty night-caps, and uttered such a deal of stinking breath," etc., that the poet himself "heartily despised the multitude." The dramatic justification for such passages, where they occur, is entirely sufficient, and narrowness in the artist's sympathies must be proved from other sources. The footnotes might well have been confined within briefer limits. We do not need to be told that "Hence! home!" means *go hence, go home;* or that the carpenter's rule is "a piece of wood used by carpenters to keep their lines straight"; or that the Tiber banks from which the poor commoners were advised by *Flavius* to weep their tears into the channel were the banks of the Tiber (whereas there was opportunity to give a word to the possible echo of Horace in the reference of *Marullus* to the Tiber, a few lines before). Even a few such notes give the work the air of the elementary school-room, and are certainly not in harmony with the intent of the edition.

The most recent Greek additions to the Oxford Classical Texts are the 'Republic,' edited by Burnet, the first volume of Euripides, edited by Prof. Gilbert Murray, and both volumes of the Iliad, edited by Monro and Allen. The special fitness of these names will be immediately recognized by all scholars. Professor Murray has had the advice and private criticism of Von Wilamowitz-Moellendorf.

A useful pamphlet entitled 'Classical Archæology in Schools,' by Professor Percy Gardner, is published by the Clarendon Press (H. Frowde). Dr. Gardner explains briefly to teachers the manner in which archæology may be applied to illustrate the study of the classics and of ancient life, and gives some valuable advice on the subject. This is followed by a serviceable list of photographs, slides, prints, etc., with prices and publishers. The list might be supplemented to advantage, for schools in "the States," by reference to some American collections. Two of these it does, in fact, name. We believe that American schools and colleges have made an earlier start in this line of study than the English, as Dr. Keep's letter, recently published in these columns, conclusively proves. For this we have partly to thank the American School at Athens, and the impulse it diffuses.

The *American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac* for 1905, recently issued by the Bureau of Equipment of the Navy Department, presents no noteworthy departures from the general design of the volumes recently preceding. The results reached by the Paris international conference of 1896 are embodied in practical form, so that astronomers who desire to use the star-places corrected to this standard, in preference to the earlier standard of Struve and Peters, can do so without the necessity of differential computation. The eclipses of the year are four in number, two each of the sun and the moon. Neither of the lunar eclipses is of moment, however; but of those of the sun, the annular eclipse of March 5 is visible in Australia, and the total eclipse of August 30 is the next one likely to afford the geographic conditions essential for expeditions. Labrador, Spain, and Northern Africa are the favored regions, and the total phase lasts about three and one-half minutes. By a misleading error of the draughtsman of the eclipse map, the province of Algeria is sunk within the bounds of the Mediterranean Sea. The predictions of stellar occultations are very full; but, as seen from Washington, the moon passes over no planet in 1905, nor any very bright star except Aldebaran on

September 19 and December 10. The useful auxiliary diagrams for identifying the planetary satellites are continued.

There has been much speculation concerning the absolute time when the outburst of light in the new star in Perseus, visible more than a year ago, actually took place. Now that the astronomers have calculated the star's parallax and distance from the solar system, definite data are at hand for deciding this interesting question. Dr. Ernst Hartwig of Bamberg finds, from a discussion of his careful observations, that the star is so remote from us that the luminous outburst must have taken place as long ago as 1880, and there are indications that it happened even earlier.

Dalny, on the Liao-tung Peninsula of Mantchuria, the terminus of the trans-Siberian railway system, owes its origin to a Russian imperial edict dated July 30, 1899. It is now, according to the *Consular Reports* for May, a substantial city of 50,000 inhabitants, with residences, hotels, churches, schools, places of amusement, and parks containing flowers, shrubs, and ornamental trees. Five stone piers, two first-class dry docks, and a breakwater are being constructed, and two steam dredgers are deepening the harbor. Twenty-three thousand laborers are at work, and the cost thus far is about $6,000,000, while it is intended to spend $12,000,000 more in completing the task. There is no custom-house, as the port is absolutely free, and the Government is to consist of a council, two of whom must be Russians, elected by the rate-payers, who may be of any nationality. There is continuous railway service to St. Petersburg, twenty-one days distant. A plan and numerous photographs show better than any description the astonishing work of a little more than two years.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, number four, contains an account of two journeys in 1877 and 1878 in West Africa by Alexander Ross. They are the first of a series of articles on forgotten travels in Kamerun by Paul Langhans. A new route from Yakutsk to Ayan on the Sea of Okhotsk is described by A. Sibiriakoff, who extols the advantages of this place as a commercial port for eastern Siberia. Baron von Toll concludes the story of his voyage through the Kara Sea, and gives a brief sketch of the scientific work of the expedition during the year 1900.

The only foreign learned organization in the city of Constantinople is the Russian Archæological Institute founded in 1895. Its recent annual report, published by the Director, Professor Uspensky, shows that it is rapidly becoming the literary and learned centre for the whole Slavic colony in the Turkish capital, as the Servian and Bulgarian officials and scholars also participate in the work, especially in attending the lecture courses given by the Director on Byzantine history. The Institute has a museum of its own, particularly well supplied with material for the study of Byzantine archæology and history. The Russian Ambassador presided at the recent annual sessions of the Institute.

A Danish expedition, equipped by the Carlsberger Fund, and under the direction of the archæologist Dr. Blinkenberg, has just started for the island of Rhodes. After long negotiations, the Sultan's permission to undertake researches there has been secured. They will be first made in the small city of Lindos on the northeastern coast of the island, where there are large ruins and ancient structures. The archæologist Dr. Kirsch accompanies the expedition.

The announcement of a "Course for beginners in Greek" and a course in Latin for "linguistic introduction into the sources of Roman law," at the University of Berlin and the other Prussian universities, is an event in educational history worth noting. These new courses are intended for graduates of the Real-gymnasium and the Oberrealschule, now admitted to the study of medicine and jurisprudence. It is evident that their introduction means the partial shifting of the ancient languages from the line of disciplinary or culture studies to that of aids to special professional knowledge.

Concerning our recent article on "Reference Libraries of Art Reproductions" (No. 1921), Mr. Silas H. Berry, Librarian of the Young Men's Christian Association, No. 317 West Fifty-sixth Street, reminds us that there is in his care a remarkable collection of books on art, which is freely open to the public. Architecture claims not less than 912 volumes; art antiquities, 300; sculpture, 225; engravings and prints, 840; portraits, including 8,000 collected previous to 1737, 204 volumes. This feature of the library is evidently too little known, and is clearly worthy the attention of students of art.

—Frances Power Cobbe, now in her eightieth year, has prepared, and Swan Sonnenschein & Co. have published with an elaborate preface and some supplementary matter a fourth edition of her 'Theory of Intuitive Morals,' which was originally issued in 1855. The book at that time made a profound impression. Theodore Parker and other American Transcendentalists received it with tumult of acclaim. Miss Cobbe now writes of it as the best piece of literary work done in her long life. The statement would command readier assent if she had left out the word "literary," which, however, she probably uses in its inclusive sense. It was certainly her most effective piece of writing. The first supplementary essay is a criticism of Darwin's moral theory in the 'Descent of Man,' and the second deals more particularly with Spencer's doctrine of transmitted experience as the cause in us of moral intuition. But what we crave is the application of Miss Cobbe's theory to such statements as those of Sidgwick and Leslie Stephen, which so profoundly modify the doctrine of Bentham and even that of Mill. We should also like to know what she has to say to such a mediating statement as that of Friedrich Paulsen's 'System of Ethics,' which does not, with Martineau, leave ethics hanging in the air, nor make the attainment of happiness our moral end and aim, but expounds a doctrine of "teleological energism"—that the moral law exists for the sake of life, not life for the moral law. But Miss Cobbe's book abounds in moral inspiration quite apart from its intuitional theory.

—Does the spirit of Hearne and the Nonjurors still flourish at Oxford? Probably not, but there appears from New College a volume which recalls the fortunes of the fallen dynasty in a picturesque and unusual manner. This work, 'Five Stuart Princesses' (Dutton), is a series of five essays by five different writers. Mr. Robert S. Rait, the editor, is a fellow of New, and all the other contributors, save Mr. Hodgkin of Queen's, are members of the same college. Of the five Stuart dames who have been selected as the subjects of these studies, four stand in tolerably close relation with each other. They are Elizabeth of Bohemia (Mr. Hodgkin), Mary of Orange (Mr. Cecil), Henrietta of Orleans (Mr. Bridge), and Sophia of Hanover (Mr. Rait). The other Princess, Margaret of Scotland (Mr. Butler), is removed from the first of this seventeenth-century group by nearly two hundred years and a great difference of circumstance. The reason why she is singled out from the many Stuart princesses of the early period seems to be a special one. Mr. Butler aims at illustrating the nature of the mediæval connection between Scotland and France. The Margaret in question, a daughter of James I., married Louis XI. while he was still the Dauphin, and died before he came to the throne. Her tragedy is, as Mr. Rait says, "one of those episodes in history which can never fail to appeal to the imagination and to the emotions; and it is a story little known." Our principal duty is to point out that the present volume is not simply a piece of compilation from books which are more or less accessible to the general public. In each case the author has made an independent study of the princess about whom he writes, for the sake of showing her relation to her immediate circle and to the main problems of contemporary politics so far as they were affected by her. Naturally enough, Elizabeth of Bohemia receives the largest allotment of space, for among all the Stuart princesses she is distinguished by the superiority of her talents. Mr. Hodgkin shows a very clear, discriminating perception of her gifts and character. "If Elizabeth," he says, "had come to the English throne (and for some years this had seemed a likely event), England might well have seen another Elizabethan reign as prosperous as that which had gone before. If the daughter of James I. was inferior to the daughter of Henry VIII. and of Anne Boleyn in caution and in a regard for economy, she surpassed her in straightforwardness and in devotion to the Protestant cause, she rivalled her in the capacity to arouse admiration and enthusiasm." These essays are not too much indebted to Mr. Gardiner, and as a collection of short biographies they are unquestionably to be commended.

—Bell's "Cathedral Series" (Macmillan), in its green covers, is growing towards completion, for it includes now twenty-five special volumes together with the general Handbook by James G. Gilchrist of the University of Iowa and the Rev. T. Perkins, rector of Turnworth, which is illustrated with just such half-tones as adorn the volumes devoted to separate cathedral establishments, and has in addition a map of England with the important architectural centres laid down, and a blacker and a paler line each explaining a possible itinerary. This map may be useful even for one who does not aspire to rush through the ecclesiastical architecture of England in a single trip, for it is of the utmost importance to know how to go from your centre, as London, in short circular trips southwestward, southeastward, or northward, and just

how many towns you can "take in" in your fortnight's flight. On the page adjoining the map is a table of the comparative dimensions of the cathedral churches, with a memorandum of their original foundation, for at least half of the English cathedral churches were once Benedictine monasteries or abbeys of St. Austin. Other interesting things are hidden away in this table, as, for instance, the fact that while only one English cathedral has a dome, three only (Lichfield, Norwich, and Salisbury) were known to the compiler as having spires. Chichester also has one, and at Oxford and on the western tower of Southwell are blunt and not lofty spires; but all the rest of the many cathedral towers of England are flat-topped. It is not surprising that the people of Coventry are proud of the three steeples which dominate their little town, nor that Tennyson once

". . . hung with grooms and porters on the bridge
To watch the three tall spires,"

for few are the towns in England which have even one such "star y-pointing pyramid," or at least one of ancient construction. The last one of the special volumes has to do with one of those four glorified cathedrals, viz., Chichester, on the south coast near Brighton; and the frontispiece shows the low-roofed nave and choir with low western towers and the single central spire, of no great height, but of very graceful design—an exact rebuilding of that which fell in 1861. The book has been written from a more strictly architectural standpoint than many of the series, for its author is Hubert C. Corlette, an associate of the Institute of British Architects. The chapter devoted to the "Diocese and See" is illustrated by some pictures which do not relate to the cathedral itself—the market cross, and two admirable tenth-century panels of elaborate sculpture, now in the church, indeed, but certainly not belonging to it.

—The merits of coca as the divine panacea for human ills are set forth in a volume of 576 pages by W. Golden Mortimer, M.D., under the caption, 'The History of Coca' (New York: J. H. Vail & Co.). It may fairly be said that nothing one might wish to know about this interesting plant and the preparations made from it, has been omitted, but it is doubtful whether the author will carry conviction to many, on account of his peculiar unfitness for writing a book. It was well enough for the venerable Diedrich Knickerbocker to begin the History of New York with the creation of the world, but this example is not exactly a safe one for other historians to follow. It becomes too fatiguing to read a full disquisition on the muscles, the nerves, the digestive organs, and the rest, for the sake of knowing the special action of coca on each part of the system. A physician does not require such elementary discussions, and the public cares not a fig for them. Neither is it necessary to preface an explanation of the use of coca in improving the vocal organs, by an epitome of the history and development of music. The matter is made worse when the author is destitute of the fundamentals of literary technique, without which no one should venture to write a book. That coca relieves fatigue by eliminating impurities from the blood, that it retards waste of tissue, diminishes the consumption of carbohydrates even under severe exertion, and that it stimulates the digestive functions, are points which the author emphasizes, and which may be true. That the "coca habit" cannot be acquired, however, demands more proof than has here been brought together. The most valuable feature of the book consists in a classified list of opinions of 369 eminent physicians upon the effects of this remarkable plant.

—'Post-Bellum Financial Administration of Japan' is the title of a bound book which contains Count Matsukata's final report to the Minister-President of State. It is a masterly conspectus of Japan's finances from 1896 to 1900, showing in detail, not only the budgets laid before and voted by the Imperial Diet, but the various special *comptabilités*, such as the mint and printing bureaus, silk filature, manufactory for articles needed for telegraph and lighthouse service, mining works, fire-arms factories, the Government railways, the universities and special schools, forestry, Formosan administration, etc. The book contains much luminous information about internal taxation, tariff system, leaf-tobacco monopoly (begun in 1898), the coinage, loans, use of the Chinese indemnity, etc. The introduction is pleasantly autobiographical, while modest, for the Count's supremacy as financial master of Japan is without challenge—except possibly by those violators of the law against whom he has been singularly active and diligent. In addition to the detail of information, with elaborate tables showing the revised land values, one sees incidentally how much like Holland Japan is, in having to pay continuously so much money for dikes to guard against devastation by river floods. For 1900-01 the expenditures for three of the rivers passed beyond 675,000,000 yen, and a scheme for five other streams, requiring some years for its fulfilment, is financed at 1,785,972,685 yen. Many new industries, including the breeding of cattle and horses, encouragement of art manufactures, and scientific agriculture under Government stimulus, are being grandly developed. The increase of the budget from 80,000,000 yen to 200,000,000 yen in 1896, and its steady enlargement in later years, with the tremendous expansion in all lines of production, industry, and business, and the change in the empire from the silver to the gold standard —all safely carried through—are among the remarkable phenomena of modern history. Not a little of the credit of Japan's happy financial revolution can be credited to Matsukata's foresight, ability, and patience. In Formosa the silver standard is temporary, but is necessarily still used. The book is printed at the Tokio Tsukiji Type Foundry.

STILES'S DIARY.

The Literary Diary of Ezra Stiles, D.D., LL.D., President of Yale College. Edited under the Authority of the Corporation of Yale University, by Franklin Bowditch Dexter, M.A. New York: Scribners. 1901. 3 vols. Pp. 665, 573, 648.

Of the publications issued by the officers of Yale University in connection with the recent bi-centennial of its foundation, none are more valuable than the 'Literary Diary of Ezra Stiles,' which has been put forth under the scholarly and illuminating editorship of Professor Dexter. His accurate reproduction of the text of Stiles's manuscript, his careful annotations and elucidations of Stiles's allusions, and thorough indexing, render the work a model of painstaking editorial supervision, and are worthily supplemented by the beauty of the typographic dress. Stiles's Diary was begun January 1, 1769, when the author was forty-one years of age and a pastor at Newport. It was continued uninterruptedly through the vicissitudes incident to the Revolutionary war, his election to the Presidency of Yale College, and his years of service as the head of that educational foundation—the last entry being made within six days of his death, in May, 1795. Though lacking much of the personal and social detail and quaint gossipy flavor that renders Sewall's Diary so enjoyable reading, or the interest attaching to the origin of the English colonies which characterizes Winthrop's Journal, Stiles's record must rank as among the few significant diaries of early New England.

The reader often wishes that Stiles had given more of custom or of social usage, but the gleanings of this field which can be gathered from his pages are very considerable. The record is that of an intensely active, eager-minded, widely inquisitive man, of much zeal for antiquarian research and thirst for knowledge in any field of scholarship open to him, conspicuously marked by an unfeigned desire to serve his country and his God in a trying time. One reads it with a deepening impression of the moral earnestness of the age in which the writer lived, and of the high purpose with which he strove to make the scanty resources at his command count for the interests of the mind and the less material concerns of life.

For his time Stiles was a man of broad sympathies. A successful Congregational pastor, his eager study of Hebrew brought him into cordial relations with the Jews of Newport. He had a kindly feeling for the observance of the Christian year. Christmas occasionally saw him in the Episcopal house of worship. He was asked by an Episcopal congregation to take orders and become its rector. He had good words for the Friends and the Lutherans. But his charity had its limits. He had no sympathy with the "new divinity" which the disciples of Edwards were propagating. He mourned (in 1769) the "prevalence of Episcy & Wickedness," and he noted the death of a famous Vermonter as that of "the profane & impious Deist Gen. Ethan Allen, Author of the *Oracles of Reason*, a Book replete with scurrilous Reflexions on Revelation,—'And in Hell he lift up his Eyes being in Torments.'"

Stiles's cordial relations with the Hebrews of Newport were induced by his desire to know more of their language, literature, and customs, and this desire was but one illustration of his general inquisitiveness. The transit of Venus, the invention of a new water-wheel, the discovery of a solvent for gold, the marvels of the balloon, a dark day, a bit of ecclesiastical antiquarianism, the fathers of the early church, biographic facts regarding eminent contemporaries, or the measurement of buildings in the town where he lived, alike engaged his attention. But, as was to be expected of his age, his prime objects of study were Biblical and linguistic. These tastes he impressed on his household. On

the fourteenth birthday of his elder son, in 1773, he records that the boy "has read out Virgil, Tully's Select Orations, &c., in Latin—& in Greek the four Evangelists & Acts—in Hebrew 48 Psalms." The second Mrs. Stiles learned Hebrew in middle life under her husband's tuition. Curiously illustrative of the spirit of the age is the reading of the Bible in course, which Stiles fostered in his household and encouraged by his example. He notes in 1793:

"My D. Ruth from 1775 to 1793 . . . has read her Bible fourteen times through: and my Gr. D. Eliza aet 11 has read it thro' five times. Emilia has lost her minutes, but has probȳ read it a dozen times & more. . . . My other Child. have read it sundry times . . . My [first] wife died 1775. She read thro' the Bible five times the last four years of her Life. . . . Kezia [his daughter] died 1785; she read it thro' five times the last five years of her Life. Besides readg in course privately in my Study, I read thro' the Bible in my Famȳ at family Morning Prayers from 1760 to 1791, Eight times."

This extent of Bible reading was characteristic of the age rather than peculiar to Stiles; but his wide scholarship, in which he stood conspicuous, led to the bestowment on him by Princeton, in 1784, of "two Degrees . . . at the same time, that of D.D. and that of Doctor of Civil & Canon Laws." It illustrates the nearness of life's sorrows to its satisfactions, as well as the slowness with which news travelled even after American independence had been secured, that on the day following this unusual honor he first learned, at Princeton, of the death of his elder son in North Carolina more than five weeks before.

Stiles's most significant work was in connection with Yale. It was not merely the ordinary difficulties of student government that he dreaded—they were evident enough to his apprehension: "An hundred & Fifty or 180 Young Gentlemen Students, is a Bundle of Wild Fire not easily controlled & governed—and at best the Diadem of a President is a Crown of Thorns." But far more serious were the perils to the college from lack of funds, the turmoil incident to war, and, above all, from religious and political disaffection, causing the college to be regarded with suspicion by a large portion of the inhabitants of the commonwealth. Stiles's anxieties and labors, and his successful management of the interests committed to his charge, are abundantly evidenced by the Diary under review. The actual force of instruction during most of his incumbency consisted of the President, a professor of divinity who was primarily the pastor of the college church, and three or four young and frequently changed tutors. But even this scanty equipment was frequently impaired by ill-health or other causes. In this situation Stiles had often to become a teacher of most dissimilar themes. In 1780 he records:

"The Business of the Professorship of Divȳ now devolves on me for the present; and besides my Histȳ Lect. I weekly give a public Dissertn or two on some philosophical or astronomical subject besides my private or chamber Lecture on Theology every Saturday afternoon. And besides these I attend every day the Recitations of the Senior & Jun. classes in Philosophy. . . . So that I am called to fill the offices of *three Professorships & the Presidency* at the same time."

The senior debates under Stiles's moderatorship offered a varied range of discussions, from so odd a legal question as "Whether Lazarus, after his Resurrection, had a right to his former Estate?" to discussions "Whether [it is] good Policy in the old States to encourage Emigration into Kentucky, Ohio & the New States?" "Whether Congress ought to have more Power & Authority?" or "Whether Imprisonment for Debt be just & right?" It lifts the curtain on the judgments of a bygone time to find the seniors debating "Whether Readg Novelles is beneficial"; and to note, in 1786, that the President "fined about 20 Scholars for going to see a play acted." A pathetic, yet often absurdly incongruous, portion of the Diary is that which records the progress of the nervous malady that dimmed the brilliant youthful promise of Stiles's colleague, the Professor of Divinity, and resulted at times in epileptic seizures in the most solemn portions of public worship. But it is far less strange to modern taste that a kindly and pitying Corporation should have allowed ministrations to continue which were so interrupted, than that the College pastor should thus begin a sermon to a student audience—a discourse that won the President's approval: "I shall entertain you with a miscellaneous Discourse upon the Words of an impious & abandoned Woman, So she caught him & kissed him &c. Prov. vii., 13-14."

In view of the conspicuity of Stiles's public station, and his inquisitive interest in the world about him, the Diary is somewhat disappointing in its harvest of information regarding matters of national interest. Stiles was ardently devoted to the patriotic cause. As early as 1773, certainly, he was entertaining the thought of American independence; but the comparative indefiniteness of information regarding the progress of public politics shows how the absence of the telegraph and of the ample newspaper service of the present day limited the knowledge of current events to be had by any one remote from the immediate centres of political activity. Such matters as came under Stiles's observation are told with much fulness of detail. He gives a clear picture of the capture of New Haven by the British forces, and of the state of alarm in which that town was plunged for months thereafter by fear of a repetition of the raid. He discussed the proposed American Constitution with his friends, and followed its fortunes with mingled hopes and fears. Some of these are well expressed in the following paragraph, which is worthy of quotation as embodying the contemporary opinion of the most eminent teacher in the New England of his day:

"We conversed on the new Constitution formed by the Convention. On wc I have formed this as my Opinion: 1. That it is not the most p'fect Constitution yet 2. That it is a very good one, & that it is advisable to adopt it However 3. That tho' much of it will be p'manent & lasting, yet much of it will be hereafter altered by future Revisions. And 4. That the best one remains yet to be investigated. When the Convention was proposed I doubted its Expediency. 1. Because I doubted whether our wisest Men had yet attained Light eno' to see & discern the best, & what ought finally to prevail. 2. Neither did I think the People were ripe for the Reception of the best one if it could be investigated. And yet 3. I did not doubt but Time & future Experience would teach, open & lead us to the best one. And tho' we have got a much better one than I expected, & a very good one, yet my Judgt still remains as before. I think there is not Power enough yet given to Congress for firm Government. Neither can I see how far it is safe to surrender the powers of the States to the Imperial Body, without 1. prostratg the Sovereignty of the particular States. 2. Without laying the Founda of the Presidents growing up into an uncontrollable & absolute Monarch. And yet I think the last as well guarded as possible, and I know not whether it is possible to vest Congress with Laws, Revenues, & Army & Navy, without endangering the Ruin of the interior Powers & Liberties of the States."

Under date of March 21, 1776, Stiles notes that the British troops, on evacuating Boston, left "Images of Hay dressed like Sentries standing with a Label on the Breast of one, inscribed 'Welcome Brother Jonathan.'" Professor Dexter comments that "the use of this phrase by the British at this date seems to prove that the common explanation of its origin (with reference to Washington's consultation with Gov. Jonathan Trumbull) cannot be the correct one."

RECENT AMERICAN POETRY.

It is the fortune of great cities to produce a large and indispensable class of what may be called semi-poets—of those who, with a little repression, might perhaps have accomplished something of triumphant value, but who win an after-dinner success so easily that they are rather apt to stop there. Thus it is with Mr. Charles Henry Webb's 'With Lead and Line along Varying Shores' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). He said in his earlier book, 'Vagrom Verse,' that the collection might have been epic "if he'd had a mind"; and in this volume he touches lightly on almost everything, from Captain Sid Fisher to Captain John Brown. Sid Fisher, on the whole, comes, as here painted, nearest to the human heart. It is a tale of a certain night when the fishing-boats from Nantucket were all driven in by a hurricane and the light at the end of the jetty went out. Thus it is unfolded (p. 83):

Once late in the fall came a terrible night,—
The sky was black and the sea was white;
The fishing fleet had been out all day
With their nets and trawls on the lower bay;
Though little of wind, we knew by the ruck
Of smoke-colored clouds around Tuckernuck.
By the whimper of gull and scream of curlew
As they wheeled and away for Muskeget flew,
By the sky flattened now like an adder's crest,
And the flashing of forked tongues in the northwest,
That a pot-full old Davy had put on to brew,
And soon it would simmer there, back of Coatue.

Night came, and the tempest, with drive and din,
Till the bravest well wished the boats were in,—
And more than wished when there came a shout
That the light on the end of the jetty was out!
It was then Sid Fisher said this thing to me:
"Ne'er a dory could land in that red-hot sea;
And my cat-boat out in that crunchin' swell
Wouldn't live no longer 'n a cat in hell!
But they'd take it unkind, the boys, belike,
If their boats bound in on the jetty 'd strike.
'Tain't just what you'd call a promisin' night;
But I guess I'll skin out an' fix my light."

"It ain't no sort o' use," said old Skipper Snow;
But he said, said Sid Fisher, "I'm a-goin' to go!"
He tightened no belt, for no belt he wore;
He cast no last look as he left the shore
(And mostly you'll find these belts and looks
Are frequentest tightened and cast in books);
But he took off his shoes—a practical thing—
That his feet to the rocks might like limpets cling,
And out in the night and the storm he crept
To the jetty's end where the light was kept.

God! it was something to see him go
Out on that reef of fear and woe!
However he did it I do not know!

The rocks all green with a slippery moss
Gave little of foothold by which to cross,
And with jagged points and barnacle shells
Cut wounds that were all of them crimson wells;
But he climbed and bled through that hell of hells,—
Through lurid billows that high and higher
Swung torches of phosphorescent fire,

Through smother of spray and fret of spume
That flew like waste from a weaver's loom,—
Until lost in the night; and we saw no more,
Though all waited and watched upon the shore,
Till a red light showed on the jetty's end,
And the boats came bowling into the bend.

For he got there—and back; just how I can't say;
But all out that night were alive next day;
For the matter of that, most are living yet,
Still busy with dredge, with trawl, and net—
Thanks to heaven—and something to Sid,
Who showed them a light when the stars were hid.

The poems of Robert Bridges ("Droch") entitled 'Bramble Brae' (Scribner) are largely of the same after-dinner class with those which prevail in Mr. Webb's volume, but the younger poet is more meditative, and there is a whole volume of criticism condensed into these eight lines upon a brother author (p. 75):

IN GEORGE MEREDITH'S POEMS.

Here is a forest tangle—
Rank weeds, luxuriant ferns, and giant trees,
All in a hoarse-voiced wrangle,
With creaking branches swaying in the breeze.
But if you care to listen,
Above the noise you'll hear the piping of a bird,
Gay feathers in the tree-tops glisten,
And over all the sweetest music ever heard.

For some reason not yet thoroughly explained, New York still fails to inspire poetry as London does, and the poetry even of London is still admittedly inadequate. The 'Poems' of Mr. Charles G. D. Roberts (L. C. Page & Co.) contain the best New York silhouettes yet drawn, but even he has never equalled the poems which he wrote when he had Blomidon and Tantramar for a background, as, for instance, his "Epitaph for a Sailor Buried Ashore." Yet the very name of his "New York Nocturnes" creates expectation, and such a poem as this does something to fulfil it (p. 115):

ON THE ELEVATED RAILROAD AT ONE HUNDRED AND TENTH STREET.

Above the hollow deep where lies
The city's slumbering face,
Out, out across the night we swing,
A meteor launched in space.

The dark above is sown with stars;
The humming dark below
With sparkle of ten thousand lamps
In endless row on row.

Tall shadow towers with glimmering lights
Stand sinister and grim
Where upper deep and lower deep
Come darkly rim to rim.

Our souls have known the midnight awe
Of mount, and plain, and sea;
But here the city's night enfolds
A vaster mystery.

Short as it is, this poem is perhaps one verse too long, since the closing lines are simply a guideboard to point out the moral —an error sometimes committed by Longfellow, and almost always by Whittier.

It is rather difficult to know what view to take of the curious book called 'Poems: Medley and Palestina,' by J. W. De Forest (New Haven: Tuttle). The poet is the author of many novels whose success might have been more substantial had not Mr. Howells selected one of them for rather extravagant praise, from which some reaction apparently followed. There are two parts of this volume, the first half being essentially a medley, as it claims to be, with much poor material in it, and the second part being mystically religious, and often as grim in versification and phraseology as Sternhold and Hopkins. The very first line of these poems of Palestine is in celebration of "Chedarlaomer of Elam," and we are liable at any time to encounter such verses as (p. 182)—

"The wool of Kedar's sable tents;
Togarmah's steeds and Javan's swords;
The bars of Ophir's aureate hoards;
The spice of Sheba and the scents."

The author is, however, one of many who have sung the Palatine light of Block Island, always a poetic theme; and there are some love songs, especially "The Meeting" (p. 58), which have deservedly led a life in the corners of newspapers for many years. At any rate, a man who is the author of more than one good novel, and who afterwards fought at Port Hudson and in the Shenandoah valley, has some right to beguile his old age as he will.

Longman the publisher, the founder of the great house, used to say sternly to young authors, "Book, sir, book? It's the title." Few young poets come before the public with so many original and suggestive titles for their poems as Miss Anna Hempstead Branch, in her volume, 'The Heart of the Road, and Other Poems' (Houghton)—such, for instance, as "Song of the Wandering Dust," "The Shadow of a Cloud," "The Keeper of the Halfway House," "The Watch-Tower of the Soul," "A Voice from the Outlands," "The Piper's Morrow," "The Thought of the Little Brother." The mere table of contents to this book suggests more to the imagination than the whole contents of a dozen average volumes, and, moreover, each title has something to justify it. One alone we would fain have seen omitted, "The Dance of All Dead Bones," which is needlessly grim. But what can be daintier than this dream of girlish childhood (p. 44)?

THE BLOOMING OF THE ROSE.

What is it like, to be a rose?

Old Roses, softly, "Try and see."

Nay, I will tarry. Let me be
In my green peacefulness and smile.
I will stay here and dream awhile.
'Tis well for little buds to dream,
Dream—dream—who knows—
Say, is it good to be a rose?
Old roses, tell me! Is it good?

Old Roses, very softly, "Good."

I am afraid to be a rose!
This little sphere wherein I wait,
Curled up and small and delicate,
Lets in a twilight of pure green,
Wherein are dreams of night and morn
And the sweet stillness of a world
Where all things are that are unborn.

Old Roses, "Better to be born."

I cannot be a bud for long.
My sheath is like a heart full blown,
And I, the silence of a song
Withdrawn into that heart alone,
Well knowing that it shall be sung.
Outside the great world comes and goes—
I think I doubt, to be a rose—

Old Roses, "Doubt? To be a Rose!"

We do not find the name either of Mr. Moody or of Mr. Charles E. Russell in the recent volume of 'Hoosier Poets,' but both may well add to that prestige which has been claimed justly of late for Indiana authors; Mr. Moody having been born there, and Mr. Russell publishing there his book entitled 'Such Stuff as Dreams' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill). The collection contains many strong poems of travel and of war, several graceful and tender ones addressed to a child called "Barbara," seven sonnets portraying Julia Marlowe in different characters, and a brave protest against the Boer war, with nothing, however, about the Philippines. There is a fine ode on the sixty-second birthday of Swinburne, and the author cannot even use the form of stanza called the "Roundel" without paying a tribute to his master. In the note he says:

"I have no right, I think, to make use of this stanza without acknowledgment and humble apologies afar off to the great singer that has endowed English poetry with this and so many other stanzaic forms. But no words of mine could suffice to recount the world's indebtedness to the greatest English singer and greatest English soul since Shelley, the master musician and master mind of modern song, Algernon Charles Swinburne."

This is the Roundel in question (p. 121):

AT THUN.

So faint and sweet about the woven trees
I know at Thun the waves of music beat.
Alas! I hear no other melodies
So faint and sweet.

Across the little lake with glimmering feet
The new moon slips, her shadowy draperies
Streaming behind her in her swift retreat.

Now as her last bright glimmerings shine and cease
I know just how along the lonely street
One footstep falls like rain on summer seas,
So faint and sweet.

Still another Indianapolis poet, if the place of publication selected by him affords any test, is Edward Uffington Valentine, whose 'Ship of Silence, and Other Poems' (Bowen-Merrill) strikes the reader as a little immature, and often suggestive of the rather florid style of Mr. James Lane Allen, to whom the book is dedicated. Mr. Valentine has a dangerous gift of language, fashioning his own condensed epithets, sometimes admirable, sometimes questionable, as in the following poem (p. 13), where the "dervish rounds" of the leaves is excellent, as is also "the tawny lamp-flame tugs its wick," while "flexile flames" is perhaps too alliterative for strength, and "garth" too essentially local to be quite justified:

HELEN.

She sits within the wide oak hall,
Hung with trophies of the chase,—
Helen, a stately maid and tall,
Dark-haired and pale of face;
With drooping lids and eyes that brood,
Sunk in the depths of some strange mood,
She gazes in the fireplace, where
The oozing pine logs snap and flare,
Wafting the perfume of their native wood.

The wind is whining in the garth,
The leaves are at their dervish rounds,
The flexile flames upon the hearth
Hang out their tongues like panting hounds.
The fire, I deem, she holds in thrall;
Its red light fawns as she lets fall
Escalloped pine cones, dried and brown,
From loose, white hands, till up and down
The colored shadows dye the dusky wall.

The tawny lamp-flame tugs its wick;
Upon the landing of the stair
The ancient clock is heard to tick
In shadows dark as Helen's hair;
. . . . . .
And as I muse on Helen's face,
Within the firelight's ruddy shine,
Its beauty takes an olden grace
Like hers whose fairness was divine;
The dying embers leap, and lo!
Troy wavers vaguely all aglow,
And in the north wind leashed without,
I hear the conquering Argives' shout;
And Helen feeds the flames as long ago!

Next after Indiana, San Francisco has seemed for a few years to be the home of poets, and the latest of these, Lorenzo Sosso, is one of those who show the current tendency of poetry to draw its materials from science rather than from Scripture. His book is entitled 'In the Realms of Gold: A Book of Verse, 1891-1901' (San Francisco: Elder & Shepard). The following illustrates the strength and imaginative quality which come from this scientific source (p. 48):

AN EARTH-SONG.

I whirl along—I work and weave,
My dole of labor I receive
From lords of day and night:
The centuries come, the centuries pass,
They are but as the summer grass
That withers in my sight.

. . . . . .

I whirl along—From every field
Men reap the harvests that I yield,
My life is in the seed.
I feast alike on flesh and fruit,
The Lord of all things absolute
Provideth for my need.

I whirl along—The lightnings fail
To pierce the heavy coat of mail
Around me loosely cast.
The earthquakes scarcely stir from sleep
The mighty monsters which I keep
Within my caverns vast.

. . . . . .

Strange comets ply their shuttles swift,
Derelict orbs before me drift
Upon vast seas of flame.
And myriads, myriads more than these
Are rushing onward on those seas
For which I have no name.

Onward by some deep current swept,
Faithful His mandates have I kept,
What the Lord gives I give:
I am the grave as well as womb,
I am the cradle and the tomb
Of all that breathe and live.

There is much of domestic tenderness and simple affection in this book, besides the imaginative quality.

Another well-known San Francisco writer, Dr. Edward Robeson Taylor, already well known as the best translator of the French Heredia, sends a pamphlet of his own, full of thoughtful meditations in verse, called 'Into the Light' (Elder & Shepard).

What is the quality which separates Chicago from Indiana and San Francisco? Certainly a little more roughness of treatment and a greater variety of theme; subjects drawn from Boston with Holmes and Lowell, from Concord with Thoreau and Emerson, from Springfield with Emily Dickinson; and still the return to Chicago. This is the way in which that city's children woo her. Or at least, this is what we find in 'Songs, and Other Fancies,' by Henry D. Muir (Chicago: Published by the Author, p. 97):

CHICAGO.

With those who blame their gods for some ill chance,
And rail unwittingly along the dark,
Stood I, Chicago! and thy faults were stark
Before mine eyes—thy giant arrogance,
The lewdness of thy postures and thy glance,
Thy brutal, stolid creed, thy sordid arc
Of widening unrest—these I did mark;
Then hurled at thee my curse, as poisoned lance.

But when, on distant levels of the plain,
I mused amid the snapping mongrel crew,
And saw thee bend not, for complete disdain,
One mighty sinew from its purpose true,
But rearing proud and stalwart,—then, I knew
Thy face in truth; I was thy son again.

The last sixty pages of the book are occupied by what the author himself felicitously described as "Chop Sooy, being a rather incongruous mixture of allegory, fable, satire, metaphysics, and sheer nonsense," the last predominating. The lines are rhymeless and measureless, like condensed fragments of Whitman; and the keynote of the thought is drawn apparently from the German Nietzsche.

Mr. John Vance Cheney is another resident of Chicago, and his name is well known among those of American poets. The title 'Lyrics' (Boston: Birchard) seems to us peculiarly non-descriptive of his poems, since, whatever else they do, they do not exactly sing themselves as does, for instance, much that is otherwise nonsensical or valueless in Poe. In a short poem like the following, we see Mr. Cheney at his best (p. 48):

THE IMMORTALITY OF MIGHT.

The brazen gate, the tower proud,
And haughty wall are as the cloud;
Kings, kingdoms—as a dream they pass,
They are as wind-waves on the grass.

Passes the last remembrancer
To tell us that the mighty were;
In death's one trench shall Shakespeare lie,
The common night close Cæsar's eye.

Believe it not. Once might has birth,
It dwells for ever in the earth.
Does glory flame, there Shakespeare is;
Cæsar strives yet—that wreath is his.

The alleged revival of interest in Sir Walter Scott is perhaps responsible for a thick volume of narrative verse based on the legends of Lake Champlain, Lake George, and Fort Ticonderoga. The introduction is in a tumid style, not inappropriate to the whimsical title of the book, 'Ye Mountaineer,' by Bingham Thoburn Wilson (Neely). He has attributed to his characters, he tells us, local names which will "prove an interesting puzzle in the location of historic parallels which are identical with these fictitious personages," and he had previously discussed the book "in a party of gentlemen, among whom were two former idens of New York city publishers." What "idenures" are, does not appear, but they advised against it. Nevertheless, the aim of the book seems to us unexceptionable, the pleasing jingle of the "Lady of the Lake" is easily caught, and we can only hope that the next work by this laborious author may be more mature and less imitative.

Passing to what we take to be a Virginian atmosphere—though with a Boston publisher—we find grace and sweetness, not unmingled with strength, in a little volume called 'The Watchers of the Hearth,' by Benjamin Sledd (The Gorham Press). There is a glimpse of real power in the following (p. 26):

THE SOUTH-SEA WATCH.

"The horror of a night watch on the beach!"
—Letter from the Philippines.

Is this the end of his dreams? pacing this lonely shore,
With the strange, dark land behind, and the unknown sea before;
And the land so still in its sorrow, and the sea so loud in its grief,
The myriad moan of the sands, and the long, deep roar of the reef;
And somewhere far in the darkness, for ever high over it all—
Like the voice of one forsaken—the buoy's lone, wailing call.

. . . . . .

And, lo, across the moonlight phantom caravels go,
Bearing the white man's lust, and the long, long years of woe—
The years of rapine and slaughter the patient land has known,
Till the hands that have sown the whirlwind must reap of the seed they have sown.

And all around in the darkness, voices lament and weep—
The mighty shades of heroes swarming up from their unknown sleep
In the gloom of the primal forest, in the vasty holds of the deep—
The dauntless spirits who followed those quests of glory and gain,
Lighting in blood-stained splendor the deathless name of Spain.

But the midnight vision passes, and the sea breaks forth in its grief—
The myriad moans of the sands and the long, deep roar of the reef,
And somewhere far in the darkness, for ever high over it all—
Like the voice of one forsaken—the buoy's lone, wailing call.

The Victoria History of the Counties of England. Norfolk. Vol. I. Edited by H. Arthur Doubleday. Westminster: Archibald Constable; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The important project which this title recalls must be already familiar to many of our readers. It was a piece of literary gossip some years ago that a vast history of the English counties was in preparation, and more than one volume of the work is now in the hands of subscribers. We have received the first of the six volumes which will be devoted to Norfolk, and though this forms too slight a basis for a general appreciation of the series, we shall make it an excuse for saying a few words about the scheme at large.

There is reasonable ground for the prediction that the Victoria History, when completed, will bear comparison with the 'Oxford Dictionary' or the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' We refer, of course, to the scope of the enterprise and to thoroughness of execution. To be sure, it is local, whereas these other works have a universal value to all who use the English tongue. But if it makes its appeal to a smaller circle of readers, it can lay claim to a certain proud distinction, to a certain "splendid isolation," by virtue of its extreme magnificence and costliness. Altogether there will be two hundred volumes, one hundred and sixty being devoted to text and the remainder to genealogies. The published price of the whole set will be, for the United States, more than three thousand dollars, so that the general editor, Mr. Arthur Doubleday, may well exclaim with Ozymandias: "Look on my works, ye mighty, and despair!"

It is not necessary that we should attempt to criticise the older county histories of England at any length. Some of them—like Surtees's 'Durham,' Ormerod's 'Cheshire,' Hasted's 'Kent,' and Blomefield's 'Norfolk'—are in a certain sense classics. They, too, have become expensive by being rare, and comparatively few of the forty counties have local annalists that take rank with those whose works have just been mentioned. Moreover, the improved methods and facilities for research which have come into being since Blomefield and Surtees wrote, affect the county and township no less than they do the kingdom. Any one who has followed closely the course of Domesday studies during the last generation will recognize a vast difference. The training which sufficed an antiquary in 1850 no longer answers now. Local history assumes new meaning when it is brought into line with the whole course of constitutional development, of national evolution. Ever since the days when Stubbs published his justly celebrated opus, the constitutional historian (of the Norman period at least) has been forced to make himself in part antiquary. The writings of Maitland and Round show how less and greater, local and national, are drawing together.

Every reason exists, then, for the preparation of a new, comprehensive, and cooperative history of the English counties. A few of the shires may lose their privileged distinction of being much better represented than their neighbors, but we can see no other objection to the present enterprise than this, unless it be a form of publication which places the work beyond the reach of all but the very rich. A great conception having been grasped, the essential thing was to secure a strong staff of contributors. As we have said before, there is every ground to suppose that thorough workmanship will be put into each volume. We have before us a list of those who have consented to act on the Advisory Council, and if names mean anything the work has powerful guarantees. After four dukes come Lord Salisbury and Lord Rosebery, Lord Dillon, President of the Society of Antiquaries; Lord Acton and Mr. York Powell, the two Regius professors of history; Sir E. M. Thompson, Director of the British Museum; Sir Henry Maxwell-Lyte, Keeper of the Public Records; Mr. Lionel Cust, Director of the National Portrait Gallery; Prof. Ray Lankester, Director of the Natural History Museum, etc. Besides leading peers and prominent officials the list takes in Mr. J. H. Round, Mr. Walter Rye, and Mr.

W. H. St. John Hope, who are known to all students of English local history as antiquaries of the first rank. Out of regard to space we shall refrain from quoting the names of the Sectional Editors, "who will coöperate with local workers in every case." They, as also the Records Committee and the Architectural Committee, are specialists of the highest authority in their respective fields.

To resume, this great undertaking is being prosecuted under the most favorable circumstances that could be imagined. Doubtless it will be a history for the squire as well as for the student, but the pedigrees are being put in separate volumes, and it may be expected that mere ancestor worship will be reduced to a minimum. What the real objects are may be gathered best from the following statement, which occurs in the general advertisement:

"The Victoria History will trace, county by county, the story of England's growth from its prehistoric condition, through the barbarous age, the settlement of alien peoples, and the gradual welding of many races into a nation which is now the greatest on the globe. All the phases of ecclesiastical history; the changes in land tenure; the records of historic and local families; the history of the social life and sports of the villages and towns; the development of art, science, manufactures, and industries—all these factors, which tell of the progress of England from primitive beginnings to large and successful empire, will find a place in the work, and their treatment be intrusted to those who have made a special study of them."

Most of the counties will receive four volumes each. Bedford and Rutland fall below this number, while Norfolk rises to six volumes and Yorkshire to eight. The first instalment which has reached us is Norfolk, Volume I. In its mechanical features it is as handsome as one might expect, from the price, that it would be. Being first in its own series, it is largely given up to Natural History and Zoölogy. After the mammals have been disposed of and towards the close of the volume, Early Man comes in, to be followed by essays on Romano-British Remains and Anglo-Saxon Remains. Since it would be unsatisfactory to deal with a sixth (and a preliminary sixth), we shall defer our particular notice of 'Norfolk' until further volumes have appeared. In the meantime, we may say once more that the Victoria History promises to be a sumptuous, scholarly, and monumental production.

History of Lace. By Mrs. Bury Palliser. Revised and enlarged edition. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

It is nearly thirty years since Mrs. Palliser published her 'History of Lace,' and it is still the classic of the subject. But in thirty years the conditions of lacemaking have greatly changed, while the art itself has had many developments. The revised edition will be welcome to all lace collectors, and to many more who love lace without knowing much about it. New chapters on Cretan and Sicilian laces have been added, and in many sections the book has been practically rewritten.

Lace-making is a comparatively modern industry. The Greeks knew nothing of it; and the Egyptians, Babylonians, and Jews produced skilful embroiderers, but no lacemakers. It is to the "cut-work" or open-work embroidery, which came into universal use in the sixteenth century, that we must look for the origin of lace. The first lace was called "passement," and the term was retained till the middle of the seventeenth century, when the word "dentelle" came into vogue, from the fashion of making "passement" with a toothed edge. Still we find, among the articles furnished to Mary Stuart in 1567, "une pacque de petite dentelle," the only use of the word in her wardrobe accounts.

Lace is properly divided into "point" and "pillow" (or, more correctly, "bobbin") lace. The term "point" should be restricted to lace made by the needle on a parchment pattern, but it has been much misapplied. From the specimens of Venice point of the seventeenth century that survive and are reproduced in Mrs. Palliser's book, we see how rapidly the art developed. When, in the middle of that century, the famous French Minister, Colbert, whose name will always be associated with the spread of the industry in France, established a manufactory for the "points de France," there followed a general awakening of the art throughout Europe. From this time we see flourishing side by side and in keen competition the laces of Venice, Brussels, Spain, Valenciennes, and Mechlin. A French edict of 1613 against superfluity in dress prohibits the use of all "passement de Milan" under a penalty of 1,000 livres; and from that time, down to the innovation of machine-made lace, the history of the art is the story of the long and usually futile struggle of the lacemakers against sumptuary laws, protective duties, and last, but not least, the vagaries of fashion. Of all trades the lace trade has been the most evanescent. But though it frequently slumbers, it never dies. Commercial crises and revolutions may check it, as at Lille and Arras in 1848. The lacemakers of Chantilly, once so renowned for its black laces, perished on the scaffold with their aristocratic patrons in 1793, and two centuries earlier a sumptuary law killed the trade in central France. But at all points the trade has revived from time to time. To-day France makes more lace than any other country, and supports half the lacemakers of Europe. In earlier times lace received the stamp of the special style of each country. Italy produced Venetian and Genoese points; the Netherlands was famed for Brussels, Mechlin, and Valenciennes; Spain for silk blondes; England for Honiton; France for "point d'Alençon," the only French lace not made with bobbins on a pillow. But in these days every style is copied by almost every nation. Even in 1680, in a discourse on trade that bears the significant title "Britannia Languens," we read that the laces called "points de Venise come mostly from France, and amount to a vast sum yearly."

The most durable of all laces is the "point d'Alençon." It is the only lace in which horsehair is introduced along the edge; and it is related of a collar made for Louis XIII. that the laceworkers, unable to find horsehair sufficiently fine, used their own hair instead. The manufacture of Alençon was almost extinct when Napoleon revived it, but the industry collapsed with the Empire. A dress composed of two flounces of this "point," costing 85,000 francs, was exhibited in 1867; it took forty women seven years to make, and came from Bayeux, now the centre of the industry in France.

Evidences of the lace fabric appear in Italy as early as the fifteenth century, and the Italians claim the invention of "point," or needle-made, lace. The Venetians were especially famous for their points, but the art had gradually died out when in 1872 an exceptionally severe winter drove the people of Burano to return to their neglected industry. The lace school founded in that year opened with eight pupils, who were paid to attend; in 1897 it had four hundred skilled workers. Burano prides itself on needlepoint. Meanwhile, Cavaliere Jesurum opened a school for bobbin-lace on the Lido, and about 3,000 women are now employed on that branch of the trade in Venice and the islands.

The lace industry was brought to Devonshire by Flemish refugees who fled from the persecutions of the Duke of Alva. In the seventeenth century, and for long afterwards, lace was the most important English manufacture next to woollens. The thread used for Honiton came from Antwerp, and cost 100 guineas per pound; the price of the lace being proportionately high. After the French Revolution, came the fashion of classical dress, which does not encourage lace, and the trade languished. When, however, Queen Adelaide ordered a dress to be made of Honiton sprigs, all to be copied from nature, she gave the industry an impetus that has lasted to the present day. The wedding lace of Queen Victoria was made in Devonshire, and the bridal dresses of all the English princesses have since been made of Honiton point. There are now no varieties of lace that the women of Devonshire are unable to reproduce. But, naturally, the art is threatened by the competition of machine-made lace, and the temptation to make the cheaper kinds has done much to degrade the manufacture.

Mrs. Palliser's book contains a short chapter on the history of machine-made lace, which is, of course, a thing apart; a useful glossary of terms employed by the lacemakers; and a most valuable bibliography and index. The work is most complete, and the illustrations are excellent. Occasionally we could wish for more information about the actual conditions of lace-making in certain sections at the present day; but in most cases the book has been brought up to date. We have not found any mention of the lace made in the Azores, which is certainly rather curious than attractive.

Ellen Terry and her Sisters. By T. Edgar Pemberton. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902.

Mr. Pemberton is an expert in that particular branch of theatrical biography which is recognized, by the initiated, as part of the regular machinery of the box-office, although not openly connected with it. He is a chronicler who would have delighted the sensitive, egotistical soul of Charles Kean; a diligent and not unskilful purveyor of honeyed compliment, but ever blind to any imperfection that might mar the perfect symmetry of his idol. Not that he is guilty of the grosser flatteries and reckless inventions that are the stock in trade of the hired press agent—he is too judicious and, perhaps, too sincere a work-

man for that; but his enthusiasm is so excessive that it permits no qualification of his praise, and his book, in effect, is one long and indiscriminate eulogy; exceedingly agreeable reading, doubtless, for the chief subject of it and her many friends, but otherwise, except as a record of her professional life, pretty nearly valueless.

This being the case, it is not necessary to discuss it very seriously or minutely. As biography it makes no pretence to either fulness or accuracy. It does not, for instance, contain even an allusion to George Frederick Watts, an omission sufficiently suggestive of its general character. As a history of the achievements of the remarkable Terry family, it is worth a place on all theatrical book-shelves. There are few more striking instances of an hereditary talent, which is now beginning to manifest itself in the third generation. The word talent is used advisedly, for it is questionable whether any member of the group can lay claim to the supreme gift of genius, which implies a wider power of imagination and interpretation than the most successful of them have revealed. That Ellen Terry, within a certain and by no means narrow range, is an actress of exquisite skill and extraordinary personal fascination, nobody will dispute. Her many triumphs attest the fact. Her *Portia*, her *Beatrice*, her *Ophelia*, her *Queen Henrietta*, and her *Olivia* would insure her a place in the front rank if she had done nothing else; but her limitations are as marked as her abilities, and were revealed clearly enough in *Juliet*, *Lady Macbeth*, and *Katharine*. One would think, from a perusal of Mr. Pemberton's rapturous pages, that she was equally great in all, and that her acting was the main foundation upon which the fame of the London Lyceum was reared. And yet there are many old playgoers who hold that her sister Kate, whom they fondly remember as *Juliet*, *Ophelia*, and *Blanche de Nevers* in "The Duke's Motto," was a finer actress than she, with profounder and truer emotional power, and scarcely inferior grace. Even to-day there are persons who maintain that in her own line of character Marion Terry controls chords of emotion which Ellen cannot sound. That the latter is the most popular English-speaking actress of her time—not forgetting Mrs. Kendal—is a proposition which might be supported at least with plausibility, but none of these clever women has ever rivalled or essayed the flights sustained by Adelaide Neilson, Helena Modjeska, Fanny Janauschek, Helen Faucit, Charlotte Cushman, or Clara Morris, in all of whom there was the unmistakable glow of the divine fire.

The book, however, is, in more senses than one, a handsome and by no means undeserved tribute to players who have contributed largely to the intelligent entertainment of the Anglo-Saxon community, and have been closely associated with much of the best work done on the modern stage. It contains, also, for those who will read it aright, the salutary moral that thorough training and arduous labor are no less essential than natural capacity to those who would reach the topmost rungs of the ladder of theatrical fame. The powers of all the Terrys were developed by long years of assiduous and humble practice in every variety of drama. Ellen learned some of her first and, doubtless, most valuable, lessons when, in the impressionable hours of childhood, she took part in the Shaksperian pageants of Charles Kean, who, if never a great actor, was a most accomplished and conscientious manager, well versed in all the traditions of the old legitimate school. To the experience gained then she probably owes much of her graceful mastery of theatrical art, the picturesque poses, the free, eloquent, and charming gestures, the incessant vitality, and the musical diction that enabled her in her prime to succeed to the parts once filled by Ellen Tree, and become a fitting mate for Henry Irving (a much bigger man than Charles Kean) in the glories of the London Lyceum.

Studies in Music. Edited by Robin Grey. Scribners.

A fine portrait of Brahms (he was a handsome man) adorns the collection of papers on various musical topics brought together in this volume. They first appeared in the *Musician* (London), and were well worth preserving in permanent form. The place of honor is given to the late Philip Spitta's article on Brahms. It is commonly assumed that Brahms is a follower of Schumann. In Spitta's opinion, these composers "are as totally unlike as two artists with a common view of art can possibly be." He mentions as one of the leading characteristics of Brahms "a dislike for purely emotional music," and in this respect he certainly was unlike Schumann. "Brahms is rarely pleasing," the author writes; "he has not even Schumann's heartfelt quality." That "even" is rather amusing; for music which is not heartfelt is not worth having, except for pedagogic purposes. It seemingly did not occur to Spitta that, in making such an admission, and adding that "His warmth is in reserve; his tenderness is shy of coming forward, and is apt to restrict itself to the briefest possible expression," he relegates his idol among the minor deities. It may be admitted that Brahms introduced novel harmonic features by reverting to the methods of the sixteenth century and consciously using the Dorian mode; also, that he showed a wealth of fancy in his treatment of the form of variations. But as a writer of songs and symphonies Spitta overrates him; and when he asserts that "Brahms won for the waltz its restoration to a place in the higher ranks of music," we wonder if he ever heard of Frédéric Chopin.

Two other modern composers—César Franck and Vincent d'Indy—are eulogized, by Guy de Ropartz and Hugues Imbert, respectively. It is to be feared that their pleadings will prove in vain, even though M. Ropartz closes his article by citing Arthur Coquard's assertion that "Franck's place in the history of music is beside Bach." Bach is discussed as an organist by Widor, and as a victim of contemporary criticism by J. S. Shedlock. What Claude Phillips says about "The Conception of Love in Wagner's Dramas," and Gabriel D'Annunzio about "Tristan and Isolde" is worth reading, though no new points of view are disclosed.

Of special interest is an article by A. J. Jaeger on "Wagner in London in 1855," which is based on letters to Wesendonck, and adds some significant details to those given in the correspondence with Liszt for our knowledge of Wagner's experiences in London during the four months he spent there because he could not resist the temptation of earning the munificent sum of $1,000 (or about half as much as a great Wagner tenor now gets for one evening) by four months' work as conductor of the Philharmonic orchestra. "I have no business to be here," he writes; and after the performance of a "Lohengrin" fragment:

"I felt this time especially, with deep sorrow, how sad it is for me to have to come before the public always with such very meagre extracts from this work. I appeared quite absurd to myself, because I know how little people can learn about me and my works from this poor little 'sample card,' with which I'm travelling about like a *commis voyageur*. And thus I spend my best years, with my artistic activity completely hindered as regards my coming before the public."

With the Londoners of half a century ago Wagner had little in common; nor did he try to conceal the fact:

"Anything more objectionable than the real, genuine English type I cannot conceive. The prevailing type is that of the sheep; and the Englishman's practical sense is as sure as is the instinct of a sheep for finding his fodder in the meadow. . . . The people are as pleased with the dullest stuff as with my music; and quite as much as my own performances, they applaud, on the following day, performances of the most atrocious kind. . . . Well, everything will turn out all right, and I shall bring 1,000 francs with me. . . . This much is certain. I am not in the world to earn money, but to create, and the world should see to it that I can do this *undisturbed*. . . . Well, I have committed a folly, and however hard it may be for me, I have decided to hold out to please my wife, who otherwise would be greatly troubled. . . . My sojourn in London has been very detrimental to my work. It has put me back almost a year, as my spirit is now so exhausted that for the rest of the year I must be satisfied if it proves equal to 'Die Walküre.'"

Of the remaining articles in this suggestive volume the most interesting relate to "The Art of Pantomime Ballet" and "The Libretto of the Future," both of which should be read and pondered by creative as well as by performing musicians.

The Story of the Vine. By Edward R. Emerson. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902. 8vo, pp. 252.

For a diner with Duke Humphrey and a pint of red wine this volume may serve to enliven his repast, and can be agreeably read through in the sitting. It runs on like a brook in springtime, busy in an idle way, and plentiful of those anecdotes of which nobody with any pretension to wine-wisdom can decently be ignorant. It runs on without cessation or stint in its aqueous stream, unchoked by hard facts, its limpidity unmuddled by any ideas but the simplest. That we should do well to drink, in careful moderation, of pure and good American wines, that American wine-growers should strive for quality and not be too much in haste to make money, are the chief burdens of its song. The author seems to have lent his European trips an interest by occupying himself with the study of œnology, and, without troubling us with technical details, he distils for us the moral of his experience. He is quite confident that there is no better cure for the dram-drinking habit than the use of pure and wholesome wine. He remarks how

the population of the Moselle valley believe in the health-giving quality of their wines, which they drink so copiously, and reminds us that the most celebrated of their *crus* (and we may add the least obtainable) owes its name, the Berncastler Doctor, to that faith. Beside that fact he might have noted the cautiousness with which the neighboring Burgundians taste of their richer vintages. It is enough to walk along the streets of Macon or Dijon to be persuaded that the most delicious wines are not always the most innocuous. They are too high and good for human nature's daily food. As a rule, expensive wines enjoy great renown for their wholesomeness; but perhaps the two facts that one does not drink them unmeasured, and that after them one does not relish an inferior wine, have had their influence on this dogma.

The principal question about any book is how far it accomplishes its purpose. This one is, like a light wine, intended chiefly to be agreeable and wholesome enough; and these ends it fully attains. It has as much body as Moselblümchen. Nobody ought to require great accuracy of statement or thought in such a work. One can be assured that it contains entertaining matter, and that nothing of that sort has been ruled out without a better reason than that its connection with the vine is slender.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F. Lee at Appomattox, and Other Papers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Annual of the British School at Athens. No. vii. Macmillan.
An Onlooker's Notebook. Harpers. $2.25.
Arnold-Foster, E. P. The Poems of Schiller. H. Holt & Co. $1.60.
Balfour, James. The Foundations of Belief. Longmans, Green, & Co. $2.
Ball, F. K. The Elements of Greek. Macmillan. $1.
Beard, S. H. A Comprehensive Guide-Book to Natural, Hygienic, and Humane Diet. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Bell-Ranske, Jutta. Health, Speech, and Song. London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Boutwell, G. S. Reminiscences of Sixty Years in Public Affairs. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Brodrick, M., and Morton, A. A. A Concise Dictionary of Egyptian Archæology. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Brown, Valentine. Armageddon. Portland (Ore.): Valentine Brown.
Brown, W. G. The Lower South in American History. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bury, J. B. A History of Greece to the Death of Alexander the Great. 2 vols. Macmillan. 25s.
Carmichael, Montgomery. The Lady Poverty. London: John Murray; New York: Tennant & Ward.
Carpenter, Edward. Ioläus: An Anthology of Friendship. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $1.75.
Carpenter, Edward. Love's Coming-of-Age. Chicago: Stockham Pub. Co. $1.
Cheyne, T. K., and Black, J. S. Encyclopædia Biblica. Vol. III.: L to P. Macmillan.
Clapp, H. A. Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Cobb, S. H. The Rise of Religious Liberty in America. Macmillan. $4.
Cody, Sherwin. Selections from the World's Greatest Short Stories. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Colby, F. M., Peck, H. T., and Engle, E. L. The International Year Book. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Davenport, J. G. The Fulfilment, or a Church at Work. E. P. Dutton & Co. 40c.
Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago: (1) Hammond, Eleanor P. On the Text of Chaucer's Parlement of Foules; (2) Michelson, A. E. The Velocity of Light. Chicago: University Press.
De Windt, Harry. Finland as It Is. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Drude, Paul. The Theory of Optics. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Ellacombe, H. N. In My Vicarage Garden and Elsewhere. John Lane.
Eustis, Edith. Marion Manning: A Novel. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Ewing, Juliana H. Jackanapes and the Brownies. (Riverside Literature Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Fairclough, H. R., and Murray, A. T. The Antigone of Sophocles. San Francisco: Paul Elder and Morgan Shepherd.
Foncin, Pierre. France. The International Pub. Co.
Foote, Mary H. The Desert and the Sown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Fox, Frances M. What Gladys Saw. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.25.
Funk, I. K., and Moses, M. J. (1) Standard First Reader; (2) Teachers' Manual for First Reader. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
Galton, Arthur. Our Attitude towards English Roman Catholics and the Papal Court. London: Elliot Stock; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Gifford, John. Practical Forestry. D. Appleton & C. $1.20.
Gollancz, Hermann. The Ethical Treatises of Berachya. London: David Nutt. 21s.
Grant, W. D. Christendom Anno Domini MDCCCCI. 2 vols. Chauncey Holt.
Hall, Hubert. Court Life under the Plantagenets. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Hay, John. William McKinley: Memorial Address. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 28c.
Hazlitt, W. C. Shakespear. London: Bernard Quaritch; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Hemstreet, Charles. When Old New York Was Young. Scribners. $1.50.
Herford, C. H. English Tales in Verse. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Herford, Brooke. The Small End of Great Problems. Longmans, Green, & Co. $1.60.
Higgin, L. Spanish Life in Town and Country. (Our European Neighbors.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
Hosmer, J. K. The History of the Louisiana Purchase. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Hurd, A. S. Naval Efficiency. London: Chapman & Hall. 7s. 6d.
Hurll, Estelle M. Van Dyck. (Riverside Art Series.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Johnson, R. U. Poems. Century Co. $1.20.
Joline, A. H. Meditations of an Autograph Collector. Harpers. $3.
Jonson, Ben. The Case is Altered. Chicago: The Chicago University Press.
Kirk, Ellen O. A Remedy for Love. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Kolbeck, Friedrich. Plattner's Manual of Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis with the Blowpipe. Translated by H. B. Cornwall and J. H. Caswell. New ed. D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.
Lindsay, R. The Story of Animal Life. D. Appleton & Co.
Mackinnon, James. The Growth and Decline of the French Monarchy. Longmans, Green & Co.
Maitland, J. A. F. English Music in the XIXth Century. (Music in the XIXth Century.) London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.75.
Mangasarian, M. M. A New Catechism. New ed. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co.
Marion, Henri. L'Education des Jeunes Filles. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Marston, E. Sketches of Some Booksellers of the Time of Dr. Samuel Johnson. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.
Martin, W. Gerard Dou. Translated by Clara Bell. (Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Mason, James. The Principles of Chess. London: Horace Cox.
Mason, W. P. Water Supply. New ed. John Wiley & Sons. $4.
McCall, S. W. Daniel Webster. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 80c.
Meisterbilder fürs deutsche Haus. Blätter 31-36. Munich: Georg D. W. Callwey. 25 pf. each.
Melvin, A. A. The Journal of James Melvin. Portland (Me.): Hubbard W. Bryant. $2.
Mercier, Charles. A Text-Book of Insanity. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Michaud, Henri. L'Idole. W. R. Jenkins.
Mudge, G. P. A Textbook of Zoölogy. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Muzzey, D. S. Spiritual Heroes. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Myrtle, Frank. A Lawyer's Idle Hours. Published by the Author. 50c.
Paton, W. A. Sicilia Pittoresca. Milan: Remo Sandron.
Paulsen, Friedrich. Die deutschen Universitäten und das Universitätsstudium. Berlin: A. Asher & Co.
Phillips, D. G. Her Serene Highness. Harpers. $1.50.
Poems by Arthur Upson and George Norton Northrup. Minneapolis: Edmund D. Brooks.
Prescott, A. B., and Sullivan, E. C. First Book of Qualitative Chemistry. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Pullen, Elisabeth. Mr. Whitman. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Report of the Earl of Durham. New ed. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Rhone, Rosamond D. The Days of the Son of Man. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
Rood, H. E. Hardwicke. Harpers. $1.50.
Roosevelt, Theodore; Van Dyke, T. S., Elliott, D. G., and Stone, A. J. The Deer Family. Macmillan. $2.
Rossetti, W. M. Gabrielle Rossetti. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Sapte, W., jr. By the Way Ballads. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Saunders, R. D. John Kenadie. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Searching for Truth. Peter Eckler. $1.50.
Sedgwick, W. T. Principles of Sanitary Science and the Public Health. Macmillan. $3.
Seebohm, Frederic. Tribal Custom in Anglo-Saxon Law. Longmans, Green & Co.
Shann, George. The Criterion of Scientific Truth. Cassell & Co.
Simpson, Carnegie. Love Never Faileth. Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.25.
Spencer, Herbert. Facts and Comments. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Stokes, H. K. Chartered Banking in Rhode Island, 1791-1900. Providence: Published by the Author.
Sumichrast, F. C. de. The Works of Théophile Gautier. Vols. XV. and XVI. George D. Sproul.
The Sonnets of Shakespeare. John Lane.
The Story of Mary Maclane, by Herself. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Tilton, Dwight. Miss Petticoats. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co. $1.50.
Tolstoï, L. N. What is Religion? Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60c.
Townsend, E. W. Chimmie Fadden and Mr. Paul. Century Co. $1.50.
Triggs, O. L. Chapters in the History of the Arts and Crafts Movement. Chicago: The Bohemia Guild of the Industrial Art League.
Trueba, Don Antonio de. El Mollinerillo, y Otros Cuentos. W. R. Jenkins.
Vanderpoel, Emily N. Color Problems. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Watt, Francis. Terrors of the Law. John Lane.
Whiteway, A. R. Recent Object-Lessons in Penal Science. London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Wright, W. J. P. Dante and the Divine Comedy. John Lane.

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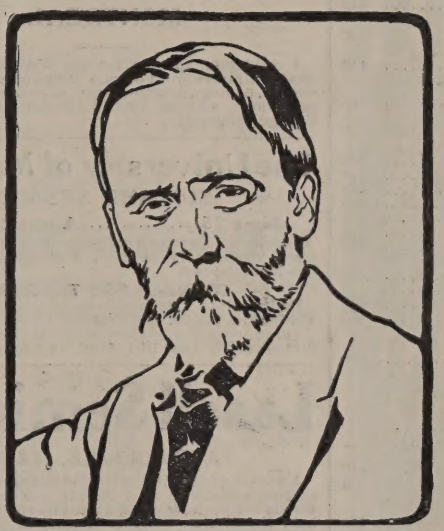

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 5, 1902.

The Week.

Mr. Gallinger of New Hampshire offered a resolution in the Senate, the other day, directing the Committee on the Judiciary to make an inquiry into the subject of lynching, and to report "whether, under the laws and Constitution of the country, there is any remedy for the evil." Mr. Gallinger is not a statesman of high rank as a Constitutional authority, and he frankly admitted that he very much questioned whether the Federal Government can do anything in the premises; but he rightly urged that an authoritative statement from the Judiciary Committee would be valuable. His resolution brought from Mr. Hoar the interesting and important statement that the Committee had already had the question before it. It appears that Mr. Albert E. Pillsbury, ex-Attorney-General of Massachusetts, drew a bill directly providing for the trial and punishment of such offences in the United States courts, sent it to Washington, and accompanied it with "a very able brief." But the Committee could not bring themselves to accept his view, and, by a unanimous vote of all the members present, Mr. Hoar was instructed to make a report to that effect, and to recommend the indefinite postponement of the measure. Apparently this action settles the question. The only way for the nation to stop lynching is to bring the public sentiment of the country to bear upon every guilty community, and thus to develop everywhere the feeling already manifested occasionally, and in the South as well as in the North, that sustains officials who refuse to surrender criminals to mobs, and who are ready to shoot even their own neighbors when they try to break down all law.

It is curious that Southern politicians and Southern newspapers should so generally treat the President's reference to lynchings, in his Memorial Day address, as a "sectional deliverance," and an attack upon one part of the country which is without precedent and without justification. Mr. Roosevelt's language on this subject was evidently chosen with care, and there is not a word or an implication of special reference to a particular section in this statement of a condition which is of the first importance to our national reputation: "From time to time there occur in our country, to the deep and lasting shame of our people, lynchings carried on under circumstances of inhuman cruelty and barbarity—a cruelty infinitely worse than any that has ever been committed by our troops in the Philippines; worse to the victims, and far more brutalizing to those guilty of it." Nor is there the slightest intimation of a sectional allusion in his further statement of an undoubted truth: "The men who fail to condemn these lynchings, and yet clamor about what has been done in the Philippines, are indeed guilty of neglecting the beam in their own eye while taunting their brother about the mote in his." Nothing could be more proper than the improvement by the President of a fit occasion for driving home the national disgrace that lynchings prevail in so many parts of the United States, and are so frequently accompanied by frightful barbarities, as in the recent burning to death of a negro in Texas, and similar atrocities in one of the chief cities of Kansas last year, and in a Colorado town the year before. President McKinley devoted a passage of his inaugural address in 1897 to this question, and in his annual message two years later repeated what he had then said, including the declaration that "lynchings must not be tolerated in a great and civilized country like the United States." Should we regard England, France, or Germany as a civilized country if every few months we read in the cable dispatches accounts of how mobs burned criminals—or alleged criminals—alive at the stake, inflicting the most frightful tortures upon their victims before the end came?

Let no guilty man wholly escape is the rule laid down by President Roosevelt for the wearers of our uniform in the Philippines. At all events, that is his decision in the case of Lieut. Preston Brown, Second Infantry. This officer, a Kentuckian by birth, was tried by court-martial at Manila for murder. The specification was that he "did wilfully, feloniously, and with malice aforethought, murder and kill by shooting with a pistol an unarmed, unresisting native Filipino, name unknown, a prisoner of war in his charge, and as a result of said shooting the native did then and there die." On this charge he was tried by a court-martial of his brother officers and found guilty, except that the word "manslaughter" was substituted for "murder." The sentence of the court was that Lieut. Brown should be dismissed from the service of the United States, and then be confined at hard labor in the United States penitentiary for the period of five years. On the 27th of January this sentence was commuted by President Roosevelt to a falling back of thirty-five points in the line of promotion, and to a forfeiture of one-half of his pay for nine months, and thereupon he was restored to duty. Such severity to a member of one of the proudest families of Kentucky for the mere killing of a "nigger" was astounding. Lieut. Brown was naturally indignant. He appealed to the President against the harshness of the thirty-five points and the docking of his pay. The President has set his face like a flint against any further reduction of the sentence. He is determined that the guilty shall be punished.

That Secretary Root is learning to adapt himself to the tone of the Roosevelt Administration is shown in his prompt publication of the report of Gov. J. G. Livingstone of the province of Sorsogon. The report itself is painful reading for any American. It tells how an American officer first extorted a confession from a presidente and a policeman, by half strangling them, and then, upon the evidence thus obtained, shot them summarily. Gov. Livingstone reports:

> "Upon careful consideration of the whole question, from my knowledge of the conditions existing at the time, and from my personal knowledge of those most directly concerned, I am forced to the opinion that the original order for the arrest of these men was absolutely unwarranted, possibly due to malinterpretation and overzealousness on the part of the corporal; that the two prisoners killed did not attempt to escape, and that their killing was murder."

Capt. E. Wittemeyer, who files a report for the army, adduces as evidence only his personal conviction, supported by the fact that the presidente had cared for wounded Filipinos after an engagement with the Americans. It was this ordinary act of humanity which an American officer interpreted as giving "aid and comfort" to the enemy, and punished with the death penalty. This reasoning would justify the summary execution of Red Cross nurses while engaged in their work of mercy.

Whether Gov. Livingstone is right in this matter or not, Secretary Root deserves credit for publishing the report fearlessly, and without waiting for the result of a necessarily prolonged examination. This action is in gratifying contrast to his treatment of the Gardener report, and one must welcome it as the end of that practice of suppression and apology which always had an incongruous look under the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt. It is better for all concerned to know just what this war against the brown men means. If these reports of atrocious cruelties are exaggerated, suppression merely heightens the horror, which only publicity will dispel or reduce to its true proportions. If they are true, the defenders of the present policy in the Philippines should be forced to

acknowledge the moral cost of conquest, and the army should be permitted to punish those who bring shame upon it. For a worse shame than the outbreak of brutality is the attempt to smooth over the fact, to call it an inevitable concomitant of war, or to deny that the outrage has occurred. President Roosevelt and Gen. Chaffee have, by their words and acts, insisted that the army shall be spared the ultimate disgrace of failing to atone for the crimes which, though committed by a few, must, until condemned, be shared by all. Secretary Root, in publishing freely one of the most unpleasant reports which have reached him, has definitely put himself in line with this sentiment. Better late than never. The comments of those newspapers which were his apologists in the Gardener case will be awaited with interest.

The gist of the Philippine deliverance of the Ohio Republicans on May 28 lies in two sentences: "Our title to the islands is perfect"; "Our flag is in the Philippines, and there it will remain." The growing sense of the country that all this talk about the title and the flag is but a "dark lanthorn of the spirit," was strikingly brought out in the action of the American Unitarian Association at Boston on May 27. This body of clergymen and Christian laymen, representing all parts of the country, were less anxious to boast about title and flag than they were to express their "concern for a just, honorable, and humane settlement of the difficulties with the Philippine Islands." Accordingly, after a free and full debate, they adopted resolutions which breathe a spirit of fairness and moderation, and which, for sheer statesmanlike grasp of the affair in hand, leave the Ohio platform looking like the resolves of a boy's debating club. We reprint this measured and admirable utterance of an American religious assembly:

> "With generous allowance for all the undoubted embarrassments of the situation, without criticisms or reflections upon those who are called to deal with the situation in counsel or in the field, without passion, prejudice, or partisanship, remembering that magnanimity is becoming to the strong when dealing with the weak, and aiming only at the end of that righteousness which exalteth a nation, we respectfully pray the President and the Congress of the United States to take such prompt and efficient measures as may *replace the present measures of coercion with a policy of conciliation and good will*, and we pledge our support to the President in his desire to secure for the people of the Philippine Islands *self-government after the fashion of really free nations*."

By thus taking a lead among religious gatherings, the American Unitarian Association has furnished what will be a landmark in the history of the Philippine agitation.

There is a chance that Uncle Sam may yet save the $5,000,000 that he has promised to his Danish Majesty in exchange for the uncertain harbor of St. Thomas and two or three uplifts of rock in the West Indies. It seems that his Danish Majesty has not been able to persuade his upper house of Parliament to ratify the treaty; and, the time limit being about to expire, an agreement was made to extend the ratification for one year. Whether the proposal to extend it came from Uncle Sam, who felt the money burning a hole in his pocket, or from his Majesty of Denmark, who felt a vacuum in his own, is immaterial. The whole question is put over till the next election for members of the Landsthing. Meanwhile we might enter into negotiations with France for the island of Martinique or with England for St. Vincent. No doubt they could be had cheap. The fact that they are suffering some temporary inconveniences from volcanoes ought not to count. For naval purposes there is not much to choose between earthquakes and volcanoes. It is notorious that St. Thomas is liable to earthquakes, and that we want St. Thomas as a naval station to protect Porto Rico and to maintain the Monroe Doctrine. With such noble ends in view, why should we draw the line at volcanoes?

Secretary Root has come forward, in his usual straightforward way, to assume the entire responsibility for those extraordinary payments which figure in Gen. Wood's Cuban accounts. They were made, it appears, with the sanction of the War Department. This, however, does not relieve them of a queer look. It was pretty well understood all along that our military government was subsidizing Gen. Gomez and other Cubans for the purpose of convincing the natives of the blessings of our rule; but to have the formal documents spread out before us, showing payments of thousands of dollars "for personal services to the island," with no vouchers required, is something of a shock to American notions. If the Spaniards had done this, we should have called it bribery; in ourselves it merely reveals a native shrewdness, demonstrating our great talent for governing subject races. When the Philippine accounts come to be published, we shall doubtless find many similar entries, in addition to that tribute which we openly pay, by treaty, to a slaveholding and polygamous Sultan. Such revelations place in its true light the pious but infinitely simple-minded opinion which Civil-Service Commissioner Foulke has recently expressed—namely, that "the perfect consummation" of governmental reform "may come from Manila to Washington."

The House of Representatives has passed a bill prohibiting the coining into silver dollars of any more of the silver bullion in the Treasury purchased under the Sherman Act of 1890. The silver purchased under that act, and against which the Treasury notes of 1890 were issued, was mostly held in the form of bullion until 1898. An act was then passed authorizing its coinage into dollars at a certain rate per month, and in 1900 another act required the Secretary to cancel Treasury notes of 1890 as fast as they came into his possession and to issue silver certificates in place of them, and to lay aside a corresponding amount of silver dollars for the redemption of such certificates. Now the bill passed by the House requires that all the silver still uncoined shall be kept for future subsidiary coinage. It does not require the Secretary to produce these subsidiary coins any faster than they are needed. The rate at which they shall be turned out is properly left to his discretion. After all the remaining bullion is coined in this manner, the Secretary may convert silver dollars into subsidiary coins as the public necessities may demand. Of course, this clause refers to the silver dollars owned by the Government, not to those held against certificates in the hands of the public. Under the operation of the act of 1898, the amount of "fiat money" in existence was increased by the amount of the seigniorage on the silver dollars turned out. This production of forty-cent dollars will be stopped if the bill becomes a law. It is no great matter, but the principle of the House bill is right, and we hope that the Senate may concur in it.

It is now proposed by the Committee of Ways and Means to kill all seals in the Pribyloff Islands except 10,000 females and 1,000 males, unless means can be devised to put a stop to pelagic sealing. This looks like killing the seals in order to save their lives. It would actually be killing the greater part of them in order to save the small remainder, and it is not an irrational plan; for if the total number is reduced so that it is unprofitable to fit out ships to capture them in the open sea, they will have opportunity to increase and multiply once more, and possibly regain their old number. The bill proposed by the Committee authorizes the President to open negotiations with Great Britain for a review of the existing regulations in order to preserve the seal industry from extinction, failing which the drastic remedy before mentioned shall be put in force. There is little doubt that Great Britain will accede to the proposal. It is probable that she will see the necessity of some radical change in the rules; but the question how to enforce the rules will be the most difficult one to deal with. As the number of the catch diminishes on both land and sea, the interest of either country in protecting the herd diminishes also.

Neither one has much motive now to keep a fleet patrolling Bering Sea, and it is a debatable question whether any force that can be spared from the navy of each can prevent pelagic sealing so long as the seals are numerous enough to tempt men to go after them. One thing has been proved, however, by the experience of the past five years. It has been shown that the law which prohibits the importation of sealskins and seal garments into this country has had no effect whatever to preserve the race from destruction. Nobody can suppose that one seal exists to-day that would not have existed if this non-importation act had never been passed, but many women have been grieved and much bad blood has been engendered by customs officers confiscating sealskin muffs and capes and cloaks, even from the hands and backs of arriving passengers; and yet the officers were only doing their duty under the law.

The most interesting feature of the late Oregon election was the submission of a Constitutional amendment applying the principle of the initiative and referendum in legislative matters. This amendment recites that, while the legislative power is vested in a Legislative Assembly, consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives, yet "the people reserve to themselves power to propose laws and amendments to the Constitution and to enact or reject the same at the polls, independent of the Legislative Assembly; and also reserve power at their own option to approve or reject at the polls any act of the Legislative Assembly"; and it is consequently provided that, whenever 8 per cent. of the legal voters petition for specific legislation, the same shall be submitted to popular vote, and shall become law if approved by a majority voting thereon; that any enactment of the Legislative Assembly may be submitted to popular vote by such Assembly, acting voluntarily, and must be when requested by 5 per cent. of the voters; and that the veto power of the Governor shall not extend to enactments voted on with approval by the people. This amendment had to be approved by two Legislatures before submission, and but one vote was cast against it the second time, while both of the great parties were committed to it during the recent campaign, and there seems to have been practically no opposition to it.

The most that can be said of the coal strike situation, at the moment, is that a long interruption to anthracite mining seems to be foreshadowed. Expert observers who have visited the scene of contest agree unanimously that the men who have quit work are disposed to prolong the period of inaction, and are able to face the stopping of their wages—having accumulated savings or else expecting a chance at outside labor. On the other hand, the mine-owners, who are able to put non-union workers at the pumps, cannot, apparently, replace the miners. The laws of Pennsylvania require that the work be superintended by a "certificated" miner, who has had two years' experience in the mines, and it appears to be precisely these miners who have struck. Rioting is, of course, always a possibility; but it is checked by the fact that the laborers have quit work because they could afford a space of idleness, and that no attempt at resumption of output from the mines is made. In brief, the one party to the case whose rights are ignored and trampled on is the outside public. The public foots the bill for this "labor war," whose real causes the Union still declines to state and outsiders are still unable to discover.

Newspaper enterprise has to bow to scientific enthusiasm in the matter of the first ascent of still smoking Mt. Pelée. Prof. Angelo Heilprin was already known as an intrepid explorer, delighting equally in Sahara and in Greenland, and climbing difficult Orizaba, whose height and preëminence among Mexican mountains he first correctly determined; but his calm rivalling of the elder Pliny—and surpassing him in good fortune—by mountng to study, *in situ*, a volcano in eruption, will make his name famous throughout the world. Of that result, however, we may be sure that he never stopped to think. His preoccupation was entirely that of a scientist, bent on discovery of the truth, even at the risk of his life. With intelligence to guard against every needless risk, and yet with constancy and professional zeal to make him face cheerfully all inevitable danger, he gave a fine example of the unconscious courage and heroism of the scientific spirit. No doubt he experienced intense exhilaration, amid those showers of boiling mud and red-hot cinders, as he went on quietly observing the phenomena which his trained eye could so well interpret. He performed a real service to human knowledge, and, as all journalists must admit, scored a tremendous "beat."

The elections of the Provincial Parliament of Ontario, which were held on Thursday, are of more than provincial importance, because, first, Ontario, the largest and most prosperous province of the Dominion, is unstable politically, the French and British elements fairly balancing each other, while, second, the Ontario Conservatives ousted the Liberals in the Dominion election of November, 1900, when the returning 53 out of 92 members was the sole advantage in an otherwise disastrous defeat. This advantage they have failed to hold in the Provincial election, for Premier Ross is returned with a majority of 4 in a house of 101. This reduces seriously his former majority of 10 in a House of 94. One must hope that this indicates rather a reaction of sentiment among the Liberals themselves than any substantial gain for the Conservatives. The Ontario Liberals generally have, contrary to the traditions of their party, gone in for high protective duties and for Provincial subsidies on a large number of manufactured articles. The Conservatives are so thoroughly committed to these policies, that they have had to make their campaign on virulent and apparently exaggerated charges of political corruption, while so able a paper as the *Mail and Empire* has been reduced to offering, day by day, as a political argument, the platitude that an occasional change of administration is conducive to the health of the body politic. The Liberals, on the other hand, have put forward only the argument of general prosperity and of letting well alone. Premier Ross has been fairly unctuous in promising the *poule au pot*, and it is to be hoped that his reduced majority is an indication that the Ontario Liberals are beginning to turn from paternalism to the authentic traditions of their party. There are, in fact, gratifying signs that blatant Imperialism has pretty well run its course in Canada, and one even hears of Liberals who are bold enough to inveigh against subsidies and to hint at tariff reduction.

M. Waldeck-Rousseau's resignation, formally announced last week, finds its explanation partly in the state of his health, partly in the internal difficulties of the present Cabinet. Of his associates it is said that only three—the Ministers of Finance, Foreign Affairs, and Education—can, or will, continue to serve. The withdrawal of the Socialist Minister of Public Works, M. Millerand, would seriously affect the Government's strength in the Left; it would be difficult to find any one so acceptable as Gen. André for the War Ministry, while M. Lannessan, who absurdly attacked certain religious observances traditional in a navy largely manned by Breton and Meridional Catholics, leaves his department in ill repute. These facts show plainly enough the wisdom of M. Waldeck-Rousseau's decision. If he really means to retire, he can hardly find a time when greater honors will attend his retreat. If he merely refuses to face a drastic reorganization of the present Cabinet, he does well to let the Cabinet resign. After one or two others have wrestled with the situation, he could return with all the greater prestige, and form a government unhampered by old obligations. Though purely selfish interests would undoubtedly counsel his permanent retirement, one must hope that return to power is not excluded from his plans.

PEACE—AND AFTER.

The end of the South African war finds all England, and nearly the whole world, ready to agree with the saying which, two years and a half ago, was gall and wormwood to the Jingo tribe —"There never was a bad peace." In the first general rejoicings over the cessation of hostilities, it would be in vain to review the course and causes of the war, to discuss the question whether a wiser statesmanship might not have prevented it altogether, or to inquire what further chances the Boers would have had if they had taken counsel of desperation. The war is over—that good news will stop recrimination and allay partisan clamor for one day at least. But the morrow will come when the bitter struggle will stand out in its true perspective; when the problems of peace will appear almost as appalling as the difficulties of the war; and when the future of South Africa, together with the readjustment of parties and of the Government in England, will be seen to be the great questions of the hour.

As for the war, it speaks for itself. Begun for ostensibly trivial reasons, it shook the pillared strength of Great Britain. Its terrible losses, its enormous cost, its heaped-up misery, its legacy of inhumanity and of hate—these are so many warnings, written in letters of fire, to stand hereafter before the eyes of any Minister or President who may be tempted to let loose the incalculable passions of war. As a horrible example of what war is, as the most vivid kind of deterrent, the South African contest will long serve a useful purpose. How low it brought the pride of England may be inferred from the open admission of Admiral Lord Charles Beresford the other day, "We must not forget that our colonies have pulled us through this war." It will be long before another Secretary for the Colonies imperils the Empire by needlessly bringing on such another.

The exact terms of peace were announced in the Commons on Monday. They are even more conciliatory than had been anticipated, and include full pledges of aid and recuperation to the Boers. This is in good keeping with the tactful language of the King, who hastens to appeal for appeasement of the old rancors, and to speak of Dutch and English now working harmoniously for the restoration of their "common country." It was time that this generous note was sounded. There seems little reason to doubt that peace might have been had on such terms a year ago. But at that time Mr. Chamberlain disallowed Gen Kitchener's proposals to Gen. Botha, and would hear of nothing but unconditional surrender. The surrender has come, however, on conditions, showing that, as Lord Rosebery said last week, in retort for one of the Colonial Secretary's own flings, "Mr. Chamberlain is a good judge of recantations." The heroic burghers are at least to be permitted to keep their own arms and to speak their own tongue, while they are to be helped back, if they wish to go, to their own farms.

We confidently look for the better traits of England's colonizing policy to appear in the carrying out of the South African settlement. There is still truth in what a British statesman wrote long ago: "Englishmen delight in a fair fight and a fair victory; but nothing is so revolting to them as anything which bears the semblance of ungenerous treatment of a fallen enemy." The task of binding up the wounds of the war will be immense. South Africa is practically a waste. A large part of its only true farmer population is now imprisoned in Bermuda and St. Helena, in Ceylon and in India. Twenty-five thousand, mostly young, are now in captivity. The hope of the Transvaal and of Orange River Colony lies in the restoration of these Dutchmen to their lands. Johannesburg cannot for ever furnish gold, nor Kimberley diamonds. In the cultivation of those great stretches of upland will be found the true and enduring wealth of the country, and the work will have to be done by the Boers, if at all. There will be no considerable English immigration. That the Government perceives this, and is alive to the need of restoring the Boers to the veldt, is shown by the provision of a large sum of money to aid them in restocking their farms, and also in the stipulation that no tax shall be levied upon land in the Transvaal to help pay for the cost of the war.

The settlement is a supreme illustration of the value of magnanimity. It has been late in manifesting itself, but in the end it is unmistakable. The furious and futile proclamations of Mr. Chamberlain in September last, threatening confiscation and exile, were quietly thrown into the waste-basket, and terms of peace arranged on a rational and even generous basis. It is needless now to debate the question whether the war was not unnecessarily prolonged by at least a year, through refusing conditions twelve months ago which are now conceded. What is certain is that if the war was a Conservative war, the peace is a Liberal peace. It is so in the sense that the terms finally made are substantially those which Mr. Bryce and John Morley and the other spokesmen for the old Liberal tradition have been urging upon an unwilling Government for more than a year. However the thing was brought about, whether by pressure from the King or the dawning of a better mind in the Cabinet, the final settlement is as magnanimous as it is judicious.

The example ought not to be lost on the world. To Americans in particular, with a somewhat similar problem of pacification and settlement pressing upon them for solution, the wisdom of the course finally adopted by Great Britain should peculiarly appeal. We, too, have taken our stand on "unconditional surrender," as mistakenly as Chamberlain did after Lord Roberts had reached Pretoria. Our Government has seemed to want to see all the Filipinos crawling to our feet, with halters about their necks. Like the British, we have talked of our intention of being lenient and generous, but have insisted that the men in arms against us should show themselves thoroughly cowed and broken-spirited before we would make them a single pledge, or even enlighten them as to their future. But the English got bravely over that in their attitude towards the Boers. Why should not we be as wise betimes in our dealings with the Filipinos?

We are very hopeful that the example in South Africa will hasten the advent of a more conciliatory policy in the Philippines. International relations are nowadays of great influence in such matters. Nothing can be done in a corner any more. If there has been a competition between Great Britain and the United States, to see which could exhibit most of the bitter and blundering spirit of Imperialism, there may be now a rivalry in peace-making. Certainly we cannot any longer justify our obstinacy in the Philippines by the stubbornness of the English in South Africa. They have acted at last almost in the temper of Gladstone, who was said to be the only English Prime Minister that ever allowed himself to be guided, in foreign relations, by his heart as well as his head. It is high time our heads were persuaded that our best weapon in the Philippines would be a friendly and thoroughgoing effort to find out what the natives want, and then give it to them.

Another pertinent example is furnished us in the experience of Germany in Samoa. A Foreign Office report details the success of the methods adopted in that island by the German Protectorate, since the international agreement of 1899. The main feature of the policy has been a deliberate consulting of native feeling. This was carried so far as to make Mataafa "High Chief" of Samoa. He, it will be remembered, was the able man, vouched for by Stevenson, who led his people in arms against the German Government. But he is the one Samoan who has the confidence of his people, and the German administration was wise enough to utilize him, and to make him, as the report explains, "the channel through which the Governor's wishes and commands are conveyed to the Samoans." The case is very much as if we had taken Aguinaldo and made him Governor of Luzon. This was exactly the course urged upon our Government

by Sir George Clarke, experienced in Malay administration, but, of course, we were then far too proud to learn of others. We are humbler now.

THE PRESIDENT SAYS "INDEPENDENCE."

President Roosevelt's Memorial Day address at Arlington was certain to catch the attention of the country. As was fitting, it passed quickly from the recalling of past sacrifices and glories to present problems and duties; and chief place among these it assigned to our national task in the Philippines. But the significant, the strategic thing, is that, in discussing the future of these islands, the President for the first time used the word "independence," and distinctly contemplated the possibility of an ultimately independent Philippine nation. President McKinley never spoke the fatal word—though he never said he would not speak it. It was employed by Senator Spooner two years ago; and on Thursday, in the Senate, he renewed his opposition to "permanent dominion" in the Philippines. Secretary Long referred some weeks since to Philippine independence as an "academic" possibility; but now comes the President of the United States to declare that independence may be the necessary culmination of our efforts to give the Filipinos freedom from Spain and a stable government of their own.

This is a deliverance of capital importance. Sometimes words are half-battles. The studious avoidance of the word "independence" by President McKinley, and by President Roosevelt until now, has made it possible for Republican politicians and newspapers of the baser sort to attaint for treason all champions of an independent Philippine nation. But that will be possible no longer. The President himself has said it. All the old circumlocutions and ambiguities about the "best possible government," and "as good a government as the Filipinos are capable of," are now to be interpreted in the light of ultimate independence. The case recalls the great difficulty with which Mr. McKinley was dragged up to the utterance of the word "gold" in the campaign of 1896. He used every possible amphiboly to avoid it; spoke of the "best possible currency," of money as "unquestioned as the flag," and all that. But it would not do. Finally he took his courage in both hands and said "gold." Then the country marched on to the establishment of the gold standard. Similarly, Mr. Roosevelt has now said "independence," and our goal in the Philippines shines before us in that word.

In this speech of the President's we have the deliberate and official gloss upon his extemporaneous declaration, the other day, that our flag in the Philippines would "stay put." Undoubtedly he means that the flag shall "stay put" until the work which it was sent there to do shall be accomplished; but that work he now describes as "the slow introduction of the orderly liberty, the law-abiding freedom of the individual, which is the only sure foundation upon which *national independence* can be built." And he distinctly says that the day will come when the question will have to be settled whether the Philippine nation is to exist "independently" of us. Then it has not already been settled. We have, therefore, in this carefully prepared speech of the President, which goes to the people with the dignity and solemnity of a Presidential message, an official admission by our highest authority that work for Philippine independence, by Americans and by islanders alike, is not the hopeless and treasonable thing it has been violently denounced as being, but is something that is vitally connected with the end and aim of our being in the archipelago at all, and that may lead to as glorious a furling of our flag in Manila as the one we have just seen in Havana.

For us this is the great hope and inspiration of the President's address. He may be building better than he knows; yet he can scarcely have been in doubt about the immense significance which will necessarily attach to his bold reference to Philippine independence. It is refreshing to find him not only thus courageous, but also so keenly alive to the great blessing which freedom and self-government are *per se*. This is the true American view-point. It is one which foreigners find it difficult to understand. The English lecturer on colonization at the University of Chicago, for example, takes Mr. Charles Francis Adams to task for asserting that "schools, roads, irrigation" are not as good for a people as free self-government. Mr. Ireland cannot grasp that. To him it seems almost like anarchistic doctrine. So it did to Napoleon III. Under his tyranny France was prosperous, so why on earth did Frenchmen want to think and speak with freedom? "Oh dear, yes," said a patriotic Frenchman to an English visitor in 1860, who asked if the people could not do as they pleased—"Oh dear, yes, if we wish only to eat, drink, and make money, we can do exactly as we please." But there are richer gifts in liberty's hand than clothing and food. President Roosevelt's oration shows that he is fully aware of that; and he speaks up for the life of the freeman which is more than meat and better than raiment.

If it is right for the President to say to Americans that the Filipinos may be independent, it is right for him to say it to Filipinos. If it is proper for the President to say it, it is proper for Congress to say it. Thus we come very close to Senator Hoar's position that the one healing and pacifying measure for the Philippines would be an official and solemn assurance by this Government to the inhabitants that they shall be independent as soon as, in President Roosevelt's words, "they have shown their capacity for real freedom by their power of self-government." Such a promise, duly authenticated, and immediately made the norm of all our conduct in the Philippines, would release our troops by the thousand, and would advance civilization in the islands faster than it can ever be got forward on a powder-cart. Then why not give it? Senator Spooner declares that we can make no promise to a man who holds a pistol at our breast. Yes, but if he holds it there because you have left him in ignorance of what you want; if your rifle levelled at his head is the only promise which you are actually giving him; and if a simple statement of your real and final intention would make him drop his pistol and enable you to ground your rifle, why is it not good military tactics and plain common sense at once to make it? What we are sure of is that we are brought immeasurably nearer to making it by the words spoken by President Roosevelt over the Union dead in Arlington.

THE CRAWFORD-HUMBERT MILLIONS.

In the early eighties, Thérèse Daurignac, a young peasant girl living near Toulouse, told her neighbors that, under the last will and testament of Robert Henry Crawford, a wealthy American, she had become sole heir to a fortune of 100,000,000 francs. This legacy, she explained, was an act of gratitude. When Crawford was stricken with illness on a railway train, her prompt ministration had saved his life, and she had later nursed him back to health. No caprice of an American *milliardaire* seems improbable in France, and Thérèse, who had the properly attested will to show, was promptly wooed and won by M. Humbert, whose father had been Minister of Justice.

A common adventuress would have rested at the capture of a wealthy and distinguished husband, but Mme. Humbert had only begun. Her legendary fortune was to be accepted far and wide as the equivalent of negotiable securities. To do this it was necessary, first, to obtain legal certification of the existence of the Crawford millions; second, to avert a demand to show the actual securities. At this juncture, two nephews of Robert Henry Crawford appeared, and opposed to the will which named Thérèse Daurignac as sole legatee, one of the same date and authority which, leaving a small annuity to Thérèse, divided the fortune equally between themselves, Robert and Henry Crawford, and Thérèse's younger sister Marie. It was

their uncle's dying wish that one of them should marry a Daurignac—either was willing to wed Marie—and thus unite the families of Crawford and Daurignac. Pending this amicable settlement of the dispute, Mme. Humbert and the Crawfords agreed that the 100,000,000 francs in securities should be sealed and deposited in Mme. Humbert's safe, not to be opened by her under penalty of forfeiting all claim upon the estate. Accordingly, a French notary certified—the law permitting this to be done without inventory—to the depositing under these conditions of 100,000,000 francs in approved securities; so that the Crawford millions gained legal standing, and became available as collateral.

Mme. Humbert, temporarily precluded from her inheritance, was soon obliged to raise loans upon this deposit. Her notes, "payable after the conclusion of my actions-at-law," were freely accepted by the banks. A Lille banker advanced 7,000,000 francs. She was on the books of a dozen other banks for sums ranging between one million and six millions of francs. Of her social successes at Paris, her great country places, her wonderful art collections, her ventures in commerce and finance, it would be superfluous to speak. Very few of her notes were ever paid, but the security was unquestionable, for every note was endorsed by her sister Marie, the alternative heir and the prospective bride of one of the wealthy Crawfords. It was in fact the activity of the Crawfords that was the most convincing proof that this great fortune existed. The Crawfords were a litigious lot. For upwards of fifteen years they fought Mme. Humbert in the courts, accepting compromises only to boggle at the terms of their execution, and, generally, exhausting the law's delay. But the Crawfords were generous, too, in a way; they were ever ardent suitors for Marie Daurignac's hand. Whenever Mme. Humbert's creditors pressed for payment, the happy marriage and the opening of the safe became imminent. The Crawfords would also on occasion take up Mme. Humbert's I.O.U.'s at par from uneasy creditors; thus manifesting their own unobtrusive kindliness and reëstablishing her credit.

So long as the Crawfords continued their losing fight, no one could doubt that the 100,000,000 francs actually lay under seal in Mme. Humbert's safe. But soon it was Mme. Humbert herself who, although she won suit after suit, and might at any time have taken out her millions, sought all manner of frivolous delays. The famous advocate, M. Waldeck-Rousseau, now Premier of France, pointed out this strange disinclination to enter into possession. He showed, too, that though everybody had heard of the Crawfords—as dining at Mme. Humbert's, as about to marry her sister, as about to testify in person—no living soul in Europe or America, except Mme. Humbert and her intimates, had ever seen them. This doubt as to the existence of the Crawfords and the inferential skepticism as to their uncle's millions Mme. Humbert met by finding a provincial magistrate who swore that he had seen and counted the securities. Something which he took for securities in quantity, he undoubtedly saw.

How for five years more she managed to delay the dénouement is matter of notoriety. She played upon the political and religious prejudices of a famous lawyer of clerical affiliations, and offered to a doubting world the undoubted probity of Maître Du Buit. It was his complete confidence in his client—a chance which she had to take—that led to the disclosure the other day. To terminate the unwarranted scandals which had gathered about Mme. Humbert, he, her lawyer, would open the safe in the presence of her chief creditors. Mme. Humbert's chimney took fire immediately, and she herself left her handsome residence a day or two before the opening of the safe. On the empty jewel case, the copper coin, the brass button, and the 5,000 francs in securities, it is unnecessary to dwell. These were all that appeared where the Crawford millions should have been; this was the total security for loans of 55,000,000 francs—half the amount of the fortune. The genius who had created the Crawfords was already upon the sea, with an unknown destination.

The clearing up of this extraordinary mystification awaits the arrest of the Humberts. There is no occasion for citing the hackneyed proverb, as *la femme* is evidently Mme. Humbert. Who were her confederates? M. Humbert, one may assume. But at what point was he enlisted? He apparently married his peasant bride in full confidence that she was the real heiress of an actual fortune. By what process of persuasion did his wife convince him that she could repay him handsomely for her deception out of the non-existent millions? Was it her father-in-law, the ex-Minister of Justice, who planned the endless lawsuits? Then, who played the part of the invisible Crawfords, who for a score of years were litigants at the French courts and enjoyed credit at the French banks? These are some of the things that one would wish to know. One must believe that the methods of this great fraud were very simple, and it may well be that most of Mme. Humbert's agents were never in her secret at all. It seems certain, for example, that most of the lawyers who conducted the Crawfords' various suits acted in good faith. How, said one of them pathetically, could one doubt the existence of clients from whom fees came constantly and generously? When Mme. Humbert is put upon the stand, we shall know more about these things, and this lends zest to the hope that this gifted woman may be spared the rigors of long and obscure exile from her beloved Paris. Since the Diamond Necklace there has been no more amazing swindle.

THE HOUSE OF THE DOUBLE AXE.

OXFORD, May 20, 1902.

Although the end of the present season will not entirely complete the explorations at Old Knossos, which will then have been carried on for three successive years, Mr. Arthur Evans writes in to-day's *Times*, under date from Candia of April 20, that there is "every hope that the main work may now be completed by the end of the present season." My immediate task is to summarize the discoveries of this year, which even now, with the results of a good month's work still to be heard from, yield in interest neither to last year's nor to the first year's discoveries. These last, as your readers are aware, consisted in a mass of inscribed tablets, processional frescoes, and miniature frescoes found (along with hoards of inscribed tablets, a large store of pottery, and details of exquisite ornamental stone-work) in a series of rooms which now prove to have formed the western wing of the great quadrangular palace. This wing was mainly "devoted to state and religious functions, business, and storage." Part of it contained the throne-room and other indications that here was the official habitat of the King, alongside of which were also what appear to be the women's apartments. That these were the residential quarters used by the ladies of the palace became still more clear in the course of last year's campaign, which accomplished the more thorough exploration of this western side of the quadrangle, cleared up the sort of back-door approach to the palace which constituted the northern side of the great parallelogram, and made many curious and startling finds on its southern side (the front). The most wonderful treasures here unearthed during the second year's excavations were remains of sculptures wrought in high relief, and exquisitely painted in one case, which were of such an unlooked-for quality that they might have come from some undreamt-of master of the Italian Renaissance—so instinct with life are they, and yet so strikingly without the characteristic serenity of Hellenic art. Last year also the discovery of the eastern side of the great quadrangle was begun. Here was found a vast hall, with double tiers of colonnades, approached from the higher level of the great central court, and of the three other sides of the parallelogram by a solidly built stone staircase leading down to it, with a triple flight of steps. Beyond this extended, on its lower level, a larger columnal hall, or Megaron. This "Hall of the Double Axes"—so called from the constant recurrence there of the symbol repeated everywhere on all sides of the great parallelogram—had at its eastern end a double portico, facing both south and east. The careful methods of excavation employed in exploring this hall and the adjacent "Hall of the Colonnades" showed that this part of the eastern side of the great parallelogram was a building of three stories. The topmost story was on a level with the rest of the palace, below which came an

intermediate story built over the two great halls above indicated, the level of whose floors was about twenty-five feet lower than that of the uppermost story and of the rest of the whole quadrangular building, which now proves to have covered fully five acres —not quite half the extent of the rambling palace at Fontainebleau, and nearly three-quarters of the area occupied by the Houses of Parliament, including Westminster Hall.

With this summary indication of the two first years' results, let me hurry on to the last thing unearthed by Mr. Arthur Evans just before he finished his report of April 30. This find was made in the course of explorations carried on not far to the north of the eastern end of the "Hall of the Double Axes," which occupies the eastern centre of the eastern side of our parallelogram. Here, on a higher level than the Hall, running north and south at the eastern extremity of the palace, is the upper "eastern terrace." In its basements and below the level of the later palace were found remains of a construction also on a royal scale, which was still earlier than our Minoan parallelogram. Here were found beautiful specimens of "Kamares" ware, with decorative paintings of notable artistic merit. Here also was found "a miniature vase of gold and porcelain, the thimble-like receptacle of which may have contained some perfume as precious as attar of roses." Lest we should deem that in this abysmally archaic period before the day of Minos the religion was not yet developed of which so many curious evidences have been accumulated in exploring the Minoan parallelogram, remains came to light showing a miniature pillar-shrine of painted terracotta with doves perched on its roof.

So much for the building which occupied this site before Minos and his "House of the Double Axe." In another basement, at a slightly higher level, and not far away, was found a curious record, wrought in a mosaic of small porcelain plaques, the deft handiwork and decorative beauty of which remind one of the wonderful draught-board discovered last year in one of the corridors east of the central court, and promptly copied by Mr. Beerbohm Tree, who utilized it for one of the presents proffered to Penelope by her suitors. In its original form the mosaic seems to have represented, says Mr. Evans,

"scenes disposed in various zones, recalling the subjects of Achilles's shield—the walls and houses of a city, a vine and other trees, warriors with bows, spears, and throwing-sticks, besiegers and defenders, and various animals. But the most surprising part of all is the houses of which the city is composed. Fragmentary as are their remains, it has been possible to reconstitute about a couple of scores of these. The varying character of the structure—stone, timber, and plastered rubble—is accurately reproduced, and the walls, towers, gateways (a whole street of a Minoan city) rises before us much as it originally stood. But, what is even more surprising than the fact that the elevations of these prehistoric structures should thus be recovered for us intact from the gulphs of time, is the altogether modern character of some of their features. Here are three stories (some of the semi-detached kind showing contiguous doorways), with windows of four panes, or double windows of three panes each, which seem to show that the inmates of the houses had actually some substitute for glass."

What else may by this time have been discovered in these palace basements we cannot know for a time, but this series of antediluvian genre pictures is in some ways the greatest of all the many surprises yielded by the Cretan Labyrinth.

After this we are tempted to make light of things which might otherwise have electrified us. The discovery, for instance, of a "fine painted frieze of spirals and rosettes," which was still partially clinging to the walls of a small bath-chamber, and of the remains of a painted terracotta bath, seems hardly worth recording; but our flagging attention revives a little at the mention of the wall-paintings under this frieze, which apparently served to decorate this bath-room and the portico beyond. "Quite an aquarium of fish, naturalistically rendered, including parts of two large dolphins and many smaller fry, several of them complete," adorned these walls. Mr. Evans makes the further observation that this fresco "supplies the counterpart to one of flying fish discovered by the British School in their excavation of the prehistoric settlement at Philokope on the island of Melos. In the Knossian fresco the blues are used mainly in depicting the fish, and therefore the sea is indicated by "azure wreaths and coils of dotted spray on a white ground." Again, we cannot, after all, be totally indifferent to an elegant lady in a yellow jacket and light tunic who is found on another fragmentary fresco just unearthed. "Her flying tresses and outstretched arm," says Mr. Evans, "suggest violent motion." Another fragment shows an almost nude female figure "in the act of springing from above and seizing the horns of a galloping bull." Precisely similar scenes were found by Mr. Evans last year. There was a "Mycenæan cow-boy" turning a somersault over the back of a charging bull, to whose horns in front clung "a girl in boy's costume," while another girl, performing behind with outstretched hands, seemed "to wait to catch her as she was tossed over the monster's back." That these acrobatic evolutions, like their lineal descendants, the bull-fights of modern Spain, were not unaccompanied with danger, is shown by another of last year's fragments, representing the fallen body of a man underneath a bull. The crude toreador fresco found by Dr. Schliemann at Tiryns takes its place along with these far more spirited depictions of the bull-fight, although it is a lamentable instance of decadence in an art which was not far from its zenith when the palace at Old Knossos was built and decorated.

Let us return now to the top of the staircase with triple flight leading down and eastward from the middle of the eastern side of the great central court or quadrangle into the "Hall of the Colonnades." On a lower level extends a corridor opened out last season. Below this, also extending eastward from a point contiguous to and north of the first downward flight of our stairway, another corresponding corridor has now been opened out. It was originally lighted from a window opening southward into the "light-well" of the "Hall of the Double Axes." Here Mr. Evans has made the largest find of inscribed tablets yet recorded—100 "perfect documents, dealing with palace accounts." His scrupulous study of the vast number of tablets found in previous years has stood him in good stead here; for he recognized the numerals at a glance, and has made out here again the prevalence of a consistent decimal system, and the fact that these tablets deal largely with percentages. Having found last year in the basements of the south side of the palace a counterfeit matrix of the royal signet ring, he has this year discovered, along with these tablets, several large clay impressions taken from the ring itself, "exhibiting a goddess and her attendants."

This newly discovered corridor or hall lying to the north of the "Hall of the Double Axes" not only is the means of approach to the preserved bath-room, but also (and here, as Mr. Evans intimates, Homeric students may well attend) there is a private staircase leading up by a double flight from the corridor on its northerly side, the side furthest removed from the "Hall of the Double Axes," from which it derived its light. This stairway gave access to upper rooms which are on the general level of the great central court and of the originally discovered buildings on its west side; but they are isolated, because a large room, to which apparently they have no means of access, intervenes between them and the great central court. Even more secluded were the rooms entered from a passage lying on the west side of this new corridor or hall. Here was a suite of rooms built on the level of the Halls of the Colonnades and of the Double Axes. This year, remains of an upper story have come to light.

Just in these secluded apartments much exploration is still going on, and has yet to be heard from. Already Mr. Evans has discovered there the remains of a wooden staircase, the upper part of which was literally "choked with broken seal impressions from what must certainly have been a secretary's office on the first floor." One of these impressions is unquestionably made "from a Babylonian cylinder," and bears startling witness, therefore, of the most direct kind to correspondence in Minoan days between Knossos and what we now are learning to call "the near East." As if to invite us to make certain that these secluded apartments of the palace were scrupulously made comfortable and salubrious for royal occupancy, the only unmistakable traces of a highly complex system of drains which the site has thus far yielded are found here. The point is so important that Mr. Evans's actual words must be given:

"The well-paved floors," he says, "are underlaid by quite a network of stone channels, in places crossing each other at different levels, and roomy enough to allow a man to crawl along them. A succession of stone shafts leads down to these from an upper story, in one case apparently connected with a latrine of which a curious and in some respects very modern example also occurs on the ground floor."

"In another part of the palace," reports Mr. Evans, without specifying where, "sections of a terracotta drain-pipe have been found of a most advanced form, with stop-ridges."

Finally, for even the discoveries made in the first two months of the third year's explorations must have their end, another group of smaller chambers was discovered, south of the block of halls, corridors, stairways, and apartments just described. Here were smaller rooms, occupied apparently by minor officials and servants. Excavations here, as in so many places explored during the first year's work on the western side

of the great parallelogram, have yielded hoards of inscribed tablets. One of these contains lists upon which Mr. Evans's practised eye discovered frequent repetitions of the "man sign," well known on tablets discovered in several parts of the palace. The other hoard shows frequent "outline figures of swords," and presumably refers to the armory. Furthermore, the pottery of this whole region of the palace has yielded new and unexpected illustrations of the prehistoric writing of Crete. There are graffiti, and on one Mycenæan sherd is a painted inscription suggestive of those on later Greek vases. Yet again, the inside of a cup found this year is covered over with a linear inscription of three lines written in ink, like those on the sherds found by Professor Flinders Petrie in Egypt. Vases decorated with lilies "in the earliest palace style" were found near the hoarded tablets. And last, but not least, there came to light a painted shrine. The capital importance of this in its bearing on the local cult requires the quotation of Mr. Evans's actual description of it, as follows:

"On a small dais, beside a tripod of offerings, and with a miniature votive double-axe of steatite before her, rose a painted terracotta figure of a goddess, pillar-shaped below, according to the old religious tradition, and with a dove on her head, while in front of her stood a male votary, holding out another dove. That a goddess was associated in the palace-cult of the double-axe further appears from a gem on which a female divinity is seen bearing this symbolic weapon in her hand."

That this hasty glance at two-thirds of this year's discoveries should occupy so much space, augurs well for the revelations to be looked for during the present month. In closing, let me venture to add that another year's work will probably be necessary at Knossos in order to make certain on the spot as to various details, and also to make provision against dangers of weather and the like in the case of those numerous and interesting features of the site which cannot find shelter in the old Venetian Arsenal, which has now become a museum. Of its collections, Professor Goodwin, who visited it at the end of April, writes me that it is "intensely interesting," and he adds:

"Before long this will be one of the great museums of the world, especially for prehistoric things. It is now stocked with the results of all the recent explorations in Crete. Of course, Evans's have the chief place; but the finds of Miss Boyd (our countrywoman) and of Halbherr, Bosanquet, and others are very conspicuous. Almost all the more perishable things, like the bright-colored frescoes from the walls of the palace, the vases, and the ornaments, have been brought in from Knossos to the museum, and they make a great show."

In view of the necessity for further expenditure next year and this—quite beyond the amounts raised by the Cretan exploration fund—it is to be hoped that those whom Mr. Evans's discoveries enlighten and delight may add to that fund in some substantial measure. LOUIS DYER.

JEROME BONAPARTE.

PARIS, May 23, 1902.

Among the numerous books which form the Napoleonic literature of the day, it is only just to cite a volume of M. André Martinet on 'Jerome Napoleon, King of Westphalia.' I will say at once that it cannot be compared to the works of M. Frédéric Masson or of M. Vandal. It is too much in the style of a panegyric, and is not sufficiently critical; but it contains many documents, taken from the national archives, the archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the War Ministry, and from the correspondence of Queen Caroline, the wife of King Jerome. Queen Caroline is well known to have been the most devoted of wives; she wrote to the King of Würtemberg, her father: "Forced by politics to marry the King, my husband, fate would have it that I found myself the happiest woman that could exist. I feel for my husband a union of love, tenderness, and esteem." History has not been quite as indulgent as this excellent person, and King Jerome has been rather severely judged before its tribunal. M. Martinet is not sufficiently impartial to reform its judgment. Jerome Bonaparte will still be considered the spoiled child of the Bonaparte family. He had all the graces and also all the defects of a spoiled child. Could much prudence and wisdom be expected from a young man who was called, before he was twenty-five years old, to the kingdom of a country of which the geography was hardly known to him?

On the 8th of July, 1807, Prince Jerome received from the Emperor Napoleon the following letter, written from Tilsit:

"MY BROTHER: I have just concluded peace with Russia and Prussia. You have been recognized as King of Westphalia. This kingdom comprises all the states enumerated in a note. I will let you know seasonably when I go to Dresden, so that you may be there at the same time. We will concert with regard to the organization of your kingdom. . . ."

Jerome Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio on the 15th of November, 1784. He remained with his mother in Corsica and at Marseilles, and arrived with her in Paris in November, 1797. He pursued his studies at the College of Juilly, and spent his holidays with his mother Letitia and his uncle Joseph. He was only fifteen years old when Bonaparte returned from Egypt, executed the *coup d'état* of the 18th Brumaire, and was made Consul. The boy left college to live in the Pavillon de Flore at the Tuileries, where he lodged near his illustrious brother, who had great affection and indulgence for him. Jerome amused him, distracted him from the cares of state, and was his favorite. At the age of sixteen, Bonaparte entered him as a mere private in the regiment of the Chasseurs of the Consular Guard, and his formal order was that Jerome should be treated like every other soldier. Jerome was, however, very averse to discipline, and, in order to break him, Bonaparte sent him to Brest, with the following letter for Admiral Ganteaume, who was preparing to go with a squadron to Egypt: "I send you, Citizen General, Citizen Jerome Bonaparte, to undergo his apprenticeship in the navy. You know that he needs to be made strictly to toe the mark and to make up for time lost. You will see that he fulfils exactly all the duties of the profession which he has adopted." To his young brother himself Napoleon writes a little later: "Mount the masts; study the various parts of the ship; let me learn that you are as agile as a good ship's-boy. Don't let anybody do your part. . . . Remember that the navy is to be your career."

On the 2d of November, 1802, Jerome was appointed lieutenant in the navy, and received command of the ship the *Epervier* under the orders of Villaret de Joyeuse. He wanted to distinguish himself by some bold feat of war, but the peace of Amiens was signed soon afterwards. From Saint-Pierre, in Martinique, we see him going to the United States, on an American ship. In that country he was obliged to remain for some time. It is well known that he was married on the 24th of December, 1803, to Miss Elisabeth Patterson. Jerome felt convinced that his family would soon feel the seductions of his young and charming wife. The news of his marriage reached Paris at the very time when Bonaparte assumed the imperial dignity; he was much incensed by the conduct of his young brother, and struck his name off the list of the new "princes" of the blood. We read in a letter of Talleyrand's: "M. Jerome Bonaparte, in contracting a marriage contrary to the laws of France, of which he is a citizen, could not hope that his marriage would be considered valid in France. His Majesty does not consider it as such, and does not recognize it." Such were the instructions given by Talleyrand, by order of Napoleon, to the diplomatic agents of France.

In the year 1805 Jerome tried to obtain pardon in person, and embarked at Baltimore for Lisbon. The Consul-General of France in Portugal consented to give him a passport, but refused to add to it the name of his wife. She was obliged to leave for England, while Jerome set off alone for Italy, in order to meet his brother. Napoleon had been crowned King of Italy at Milan, on the 26th of May. He left afterwards for Alessandria, to be present at a great celebration of the anniversary of the battle of Marengo. The moment was favorable to a reconciliation of the two brothers. The Emperor pardoned Jerome, but on conditions which Jerome accepted with a levity that differed much from the determination which Lucien had shown in somewhat similar circumstances. He bowed before the iron will of the Emperor and joined the French fleet at Genoa, with the mission of going to Algiers to claim from the Dey the immediate deliverance of some French and Italian slaves. He accomplished his mission successfully, and brought back from Algiers about two hundred and fifty Europeans. At the close of 1805 he went to Brest and was appointed second in command in the squadron of Admiral Willaumez. He captured some English vessels, and, being pursued by four English ships of war, succeeded in entering the dangerous bay of Concarneau.

On his return to Paris, he was appointed Rear-Admiral, and received the grand cordon of the Legion of Honor. A senatus-consultum of September 24, 1806, decreed that, failing any male issue of his Majesty the Emperor Napoleon, Joseph, King of Naples, and Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, should be heirs to the crown, and that "the imperial dignity should devolve on Prince Jerome Bonaparte and his descendants, by order of primogeniture." It entered into the plans of Napoleon to create close ties between France and the German confederacy, and to marry princes of his family with German princesses. Eugene Beauharnais married the daughter of the

King of Bavaria; Josephine's niece, Stéphanie, became the wife of the hereditary Prince of Baden. Napoleon resolved to marry Jerome to the Princess Catherine of Würtemberg; but he was still very young, and, before becoming the husband of the Princess, he was put at the head of the divisions of Bavaria and Würtemberg, from November, 1806, to July, 1807. He conducted the operations of some sieges during the campaign in Prussia before the armistice at Tilsit. The marriage took place soon after the conclusion of the peace on the 28th of August, in the chapel of the Tuileries.

M. Martinet gives us the text of the letters addressed to her family by the young Princess, accustomed to the quiet existence of the Court of Stuttgart, and now surrounded by the magnificence of the Imperial Court of France. She was impatient to leave Paris for Westphalia, as Jerome had been made King of Westphalia. A Constitution had been rapidly drawn up for the new kingdom, divided, after the fashion of France, into eight departments. On the 22d of November, 1807, the King and Queen left Paris. Their capital was Cassel. The royal residence was barely furnished. "I have," she wrote to her parents, "to send to Frankfort or Paris for everything. I cannot even find here a bit of ribbon, and when I ask why, they tell me that the late Elector could not bear any sort of luxury." The Treasury was empty, and there was a deficit of nine millions; pensions and salaries could not be paid; the cities had all been ruined by the incessant passage of troops.

M. Martinet's volume has many interesting details on the short-lived kingdom of Westphalia, on the efforts made by King Jerome to improve Cassel, and to make it a capital, on his lavish expenditure, on the administration of the kingdom, on Jerome's financial difficulties, which became so great that at times he threatened to resign. Napoleon had attached to him Reinhard, who had been for a short time Minister of Foreign Affairs under the Directory, and who belonged to the diplomatic service of France, though he was a Würtemberger. Reinhard carefully informed Napoleon of all Jerome's doings.

The account of the various conspiracies and revolts which took place in Westphalia is perhaps the newest part of M. Martinet's volume. Everything was still uncertain in Germany. Napoleon made exchanges of territory in the Confederacy; he annexed Hanover to Westphalia, and thus for a time increased the kingdom of Jerome. Some time afterwards, the Emperor took Hanover back. He thoroughly justified the lines of a famous song of Béranger:

> "Un conquérant dans sa fortune altière,
> Se fait un jeu des peuples et des rois."

The latter part of the volume shows us Jerome's star in its decline; the kingdom of Westphalia disappeared in the great catastrophe which filled the last years of the Empire. The tide of the invasion of France swept it away. Jerome had to take his place near his brother, and did his part bravely at Waterloo; he concealed himself for some time afterwards, and Fouché, who remained secretly attached to him, favored his flight from France. He found an asylum at Göppingen, with his wife Catherine, who remained faithful to him to the end.

Correspondence.

THE ODE TO DUTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Mr. A. T. Quiller-Couch's 'Oxford Book of English Verse,' on pages 606-7, occurs the following stanza, inserted in the third from the last place in Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty":

> "Yet not the less would I throughout
> Still act according to the voice
> Of my own wish; and feel past doubt
> That my submissiveness was choice:
> Not seeking in the school of pride
> For 'precepts over dignified,'
> Denial and restraint I prize
> No farther than they breed a second Will more wise."

I have never seen these lines before, and cannot find any allusion to them in the notes of Dowden or Knight. They seem to me, moreover, entirely unworthy of a place in so noble a poem, containing as they do nothing but a feeble and prosaic attempt at a logical justification of its central thought. Assuming that Wordsworth wrote such verses, it is natural to conjecture that he afterwards expunged them, with more discretion than he sometimes displayed in the revision of his works.

Perhaps some Wordsworthian, perhaps Mr. Quiller-Couch himself, will inform us as to this stanza's history.

Sincerely yours, H. J. Edmiston.

Bryn Mawr, Pa., May 21, 1902.

Notes.

'Cromwell's Army,' by C. H. Firth, is to be published in America by James Pott & Co.

W. R. Vansant & Co., Chicago, announce for immediate publication 'Martinique and the World's Great Disasters,' by Trumbull White.

In course of issuance by the Abbey Press are 'Surgery: Its Principles and Applications,' by Hamilton Fish, M.D., and 'Ruskin's Mornings in Florence,' by Margaret Baker, with seventy-four illustrations.

Mr. Sidney S. Rider has in preparation a book in illustration of a map of Rhode Island with the territory named as known to Canonicus and Miantinomi—phonetically, not orthographically. Mr. Rider exhibits forty-two different spellings from the Early Records of the designation of the first purchase (now Providence), and a forty-third form written thus in the original deed by Roger Williams—"Notaquonckanet."

Lemcke & Buechner, 812 Broadway, solicit subscriptions for a facsimile reproduction of the illuminated copy of the *Sachsenspiegel* preserved in the Royal Library at Dresden, and dating back (for its contents) to 1250, when Eike von Repgow brought together the chief elements of the ancient German law in force during the reign of the Suabian dynasty. For its illustrations the Dresden is the best of four, and graphically exhibits the history of mediæval law and art, costumes and arms, economics, and Saxon civilization generally. The facsimile will consist of 184 phototypic plates, in two portfolios. Publication, already begun by Karl W. Hiersemann in Leipzig, will be concluded in October next.

The Dent-Macmillan 'Dramatic and Early Poems by Matthew Arnold,' succeeding in the Temple Classics the 'Poems Narrative, Elegiac and Lyric,' is much the same disservice as if Arnold's own 'Selections from Wordsworth' had been followed up with the rejected matter. Here, for instance, is the *succès d'estime*, "Merope," the impossible "Empedocles," the Rugby and the Oxford prize poems, with other pieces suppressed by the author's better judgment; here are the Sonnets, which furnish many a line of familiar quotation, yet no one of which structurally would demand a place beside the best in the language. And still, to know Arnold as a poet we must have these examples no less than those in the companion volume. Then, his apology for the "Merope" is worth reading and re-reading. Mr. Buxton-Forman amply supplies the bibliographical apparatus. The proof-reading, which was notably careless in 'Poems Narrative,' seems here better; but lines 144-146 of "Merope" suffer a sad change from mispointing.

When Judge Charles C. Nott put forth 'The Seven Great Hymns of the Church,' many years ago, he withheld his name, not desiring "to assume a scholarship which [he] did not possess." A revised and enlarged edition (E. S. Gorham) has the "Dies Iræ" as its backlog, and offers no less than seven versions of it. This is well enough if the poem be taken historically, and not recommended as suitable for public or private devotion in our time. The "Stabat Mater" and the "Vexilla Regis" also, in less degree, belong to the past. The others retain more life, *i. e.*, are better suited to modern use. The books which the editor relies on, though among the best of their kind, are all old—Neale's 'Mediæval Hymns' and 'Rhythm of Bernard,' Mrs. Charles's 'Voice of Christian Life in Song,' Mr. Benedict's 'Hymn of Hildebert,' and Dr. Schaff's 'Christ in Song.' He ought, at least, to have dipped into a few still older volumes, especially 'Lyra Catholica.' Edward Caswall, though no great poet, did some creditable and useful work. Not all the versions here given are of marked merit. Miss Winkworth's is not the best rendering of "Veni Sancte Spiritus." The compiler's comments are less illumining than those quoted from Dr. Neale; but he is not far wrong in putting "The Celestial Country" in the front of his little book, and calling it "the sweetest and dearest religious poem that our language contains." In this, Neale surpassed his own other translations from the Latin as much as he excels other men's lumbering and heavy renderings of the "Dies Iræ."

Mr. E. Marston, who is beguiling his old age with a modest form of professional biography, supplements his book of a year ago by 'Sketches of Some Booksellers of the Time of Dr. Samuel Johnson' (London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners). The notices, which appeal chiefly to literary antiquarians and to the trade, deal with Dodsley, the Lintots, Cave, Bowyer, T. Davies, T. Evans, and a few others. Dr. Johnson's father, Michael (1656-1731), is the earliest, and John Nichols (1744-1826) the latest. There are seven portraits.

The difficult profession of philanthropy has been expounded by Miss Jane Addams

in a course of lectures delivered at various places, and published in some of the periodicals. These lectures are now made into a book entitled 'Democracy and Social Ethics' (Macmillan Co.). There is much that is suggestive and interesting in the tales concerning the recipients of philanthropic attentions, especially in the account of the relations of a Chicago Alderman with his constituents. The attempt to discuss the situation philosophically does not seem to us so fortunate in its event. The course of political thought in the past is not referred to, and the obscurity of the style appears to be due to lack of clearness in the thought. But the lesson that the standards of morality are very different for different ranks and for different individuals is well enforced, and no lesson is more important for all who undertake the care of the morals of others.

Such a leviathan as the United States Steel Corporation well deserves a monograph, and Prof. Horace L. Wilgus of the University of Michigan has undertaken the task. His treatise, published by Callaghan & Co., Chicago, under the above title, consists of three lectures and many tables and documents. The agreements, circulars, charters, etc., fill seventy-five octavo pages. The lectures contain a good deal of biographical matter, which, although somewhat in the nature of gossip, has historical interest and value. They also contain many particulars concerning the methods in which the business of the corporation is carried on. We do not observe that any legal considerations of novelty are presented. Professor Wilgus thinks that the State and general governments should require the publication of full accounts. He regards the anti-monopoly laws already enacted as sufficient to provide such regulation as the interests of the public demand. The book is liberally indexed, and will be found convenient for reference.

The Bibliographical Society of Chicago has republished, in a very limited edition, a monograph by Augustus de Morgan 'On the Difficulty of Correct Description of Books.' The numerous instances cited of blunders in catalogues and bibliographies, and the causes which give rise to such blunders, especially in the case of old books, are very curious. It is somewhat odd that a pamphlet of thirty-three pages only, on such a subject, and issued under such auspices, has apparently gone from the imposing-stone to the press without intermediate proof-reading, which could hardly have failed to detect several glaring errors, and especially one on p. 21, where the misplacement of a line throws a whole paragraph into confusion. (We had written this before we received from the Society a corrected leaf to replace pages 21, 22.)

Under the title 'Some Unpublished Letters of Horace Walpole' (Longmans), Sir Spencer Walpole has made public some thirty letters of considerable interest. They are addressed to the writer's cousin, Thomas Walpole, and to his son, and extend over twenty-six years from 1766 to 1792. These letters are almost entirely personal in character, very little notice being taken of the public events of those momentous years. The aged and blind Marquise du Deffand, for whom Walpole cherished the most tender friendship, died in 1780, and much of the correspondence relates to her, the grief that he felt at her loss, and the trouble he had in securing her papers, which she had bequeathed to him. The popular idea that Walpole was a mere fribble and dilettante, who cared for nothing seriously and for nobody but himself, should be modified by the perusal of these letters. The volume contains a portrait of Walpole and one of Mme. du Deffand.

We printed last week an item from Dr. Stiles's Diary undermining the legend of "Brother Jonathan" as an expression derived from Washington out of affection for Gov. Trumbull of Connecticut. The legend is effectually riddled in an exhaustive inquiry contributed to volume vii. of the Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts, by Mr. Albert Matthews. It appears that "Jonathans" were, first, the disaffected colonists as viewed and derisively denominated by the Loyalists. Mr. Matthews's earliest quotation is of 1778, and postdates Dr. Stiles's, which, moreover, starts full-fledged as "Brother Jonathan," and in Boston, after Bunker's Hill. If the term was originally meant to be synonymous with Yankee and New Englander, it soon took on a wider significance. There were South Carolina Jonathans. Mr. Matthews's article is curious reading for much else besides his main theme; indeed, his excursions are so numerous and copious that sometimes we cannot see the wood for the trees.

Mr. Matthews also reprints from the *Monthly Weather Review* for January and February last an equally laborious examination of the history of our American expression "Indian summer," for which his first quotation is from Major Denny, in 1794, this officer having been a native of Carlisle, Pa. Once more we are impressed with our searcher's prodigious industry, and once more (in view of what on page 50 he calls "odds and ends") with the great desirability of an index to such comprehensive studies.

Romesh Dutt is well known, not only as an Indian politician, but as a scholar, and the author of condensed editions in English verse of the Mahabharata and Ramayana. Nearly twenty years ago a novel of his in an Indian vernacular, published at Calcutta, met with considerable success among his countrymen. He has now translated it into English under the title of 'The Lake of Palms' (London: Fisher Unwin). It is an interesting story of modern Indian domestic life, which may enable us better to understand Indian ways of thought and bring us in sympathy with the people. Politics and the different standpoints from which life is regarded in the East and in the West are not unduly obtruded. Old and new ways jostle each other—pilgrims crowd to holy Hindu shrines by rail. In the East as in the West it is being found out that to continue orthodox it is not necessary always to place old interpretations upon Scriptures. We realize that devotion and sweetness of life flourish under the Hindu as under the Christian scheme of life. The tenderness, purity of thought, and deep religious feeling that undoubtedly characterize masses of the Indian people, are here brought home to us.

We had occasion to mention, in these columns, some years ago, a paper read before the Academy of Sciences in Christiania, by Prof. S. Bugge, relating to a lost runic inscription, of which there now is merely a paper copy extant, taken early in the last century, and in which Bugge had found a verse containing reference to an expedition to Vinland. Since that time energetic search has been made in the district of Ringerike, on the farm where the stone originally belonged, to find it again, but in vain. Professor Bugge has now published his interpretation of this inscription as a part of his serial publication of Norwegian runic inscriptions. It is of interest not only as the only contemporary record of the Vinland voyages—the Icelandic sagas being about 300 years younger than the occurrences chronicled—but also because it must refer to an expedition of which there is no record left in the Sagas, showing that the intercourse was more active than would appear from the written sources of information.

The principal article in the *National Geographic Magazine* for May is an account by Mr. W. D. Wilcox of an expedition through the unexplored region in the Canadian Rockies lying between the railroad and the United States boundary. This comparatively unknown territory, "which is a blank on Dawson's map," has an area of more than 2,000 square miles, and contains the sources of numerous tributaries of the Elk and Kootenai Rivers. Some reproductions of photographs of characteristic scenes show a rare and beautiful combination of snowclad mountains, glaciers, lakes, forests, and charming meadows crowded with wild flowers.

In the *Geographical Journal* for May the Rev. Thomas Lewis describes the ancient kingdom of Kongo, now forming a part of the province of Angola, and its present condition. Its history for the last four centuries is simply one of Portuguese misrule and neglect. A flourishing state whose people had attained a relatively high degree of civilization has become an unknown wilderness inhabited by savages. The capital, San Salvador, once a well-built city of over 100,000 inhabitants, has now barely 1,500. The chief vestiges, apparently, of the Portuguese occupation are the titles Don and Dona given by the natives to their children, and the prevalence of the crucifix among the fetishes of the priests. In Zombo the crucifix is a symbol of power passed down from one chief to his successor. Notwithstanding the negro's present degradation, Mr. Lewis firmly believes in his mental capacity. The mind of the savage is not a blank. "After most careful observations, extending over nineteen years, I have come to the conclusion that there is nothing in the customs and fetishes of the African which does not represent a definite course of reasoning." But his ambition must be aroused. "Not until the *man* in him is found and recognized can there be any real progress made in the development of Africa."

The aim of the Children's National Guild of Courtesy, founded in England ten years ago, is to promote among boys and girls "kindly and thoughtful consideration for others." As members' rules, simple directions for conduct are given under the separate heads of "courtesy as regards yourself," at home, at school, at play, at table, in the street. These begin with "Be honest, truthful and pure," and end with "Be tidy." There were at the close of last year 499 branches in as many different towns in the United Kingdom and the Colonies, with a membership roll of 31,887. In the annual re-

port, strong testimony is borne by teachers to the success of the Guild, to "a manifest improvement in the behavior of our boys and girls." One of the three "bravest and greatest men who ever lived" commended to English children because of his courtesy to others is George Washington.

The Bodleian Library is to celebrate its tercentenary in October next. The collection founded by Duke Humfrey of Gloucester about 1450 had been allowed to suffer dispersal in the course of a century. Sir Thomas Bodley at his own expense refitted and replenished the bare walls, and threw the library open to the public on November 8, 1602. The celebration will last two days, concluding with a dinner on October 9.

—The neglect of the outer covering of the Harvard College Library is notorious, and (amid the incessant flow of benefactions) both curious and hard to explain. The one occasion on which we have heard it the subject of remark at a commencement dinner was when Mr. Choate, fresh from his triumph over our law-givers in the argument concerning the income tax, proposed that every one of his hearers should contribute to the Library building the sum thus saved to him. Mr. Choate's reputation as a jester was too well fixed to make this suggestion redound to the advantage of the Library a single penny. Meanwhile, the crying need for greater present room, for a construction also for the future, has become more crying, and at the approaching commencement dinner something might well be said on the report of a committee submitted March 31, 1902, which is obtainable in pamphlet form. The present miserably overcrowded building is shown to have but half the capacity of Columbia's great edifice, the princely gift of President Low, and but little more than a third of Princeton's. The decision against further tinkering of the Gore Hall structure is unimpeachable. A wholly new design being assumed, the committee in some detail work out the size and functions, and conclude that "a plain brick building fireproof construction can be erected for twenty-five cents per cubic foot," with a total cost of $750,000 to $800,000. But the administration of the enlarged library will involve increased expenditure, calling for an additional fund of half a million, or a million "to make the Library independent of the College, and enable it to carry on its work easily and effectively." A word to the rich is sufficient. Four men (or women) giving half a million each would meet the need. Incidentally, the report contains a very interesting discussion of the question lately raised anew of separating "live" from "dead" books.

—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have published, in attractive book form, the address of Representative S. W. McCall before Dartmouth College, of which he is an alumnus, on the one-hundredth anniversary of Daniel Webster's graduation. The address is printed with some slight revision of its form as prepared, and without the abridgment made necessary by the conditions of its public delivery. The occasion required more of a eulogy than was consistent with entire critical sincerity, and Mr. McCall met the requirement with an apology that falls little short of being a panegyric. Little is made of Webster's college life, the tradition of it is so parsimonious. The lawyer is considered first, and then the orator and statesman. By a happy circumstance, Webster's plea for Dartmouth before the national Supreme Court gave him assured standing in that court. For his great jury case, the White murder trial is selected in accordance with a very general legal opinion of its preëminent character. It is interesting to find George Ticknor fearing an apoplexy from his emotion excited by Webster's Plymouth oration, while Mr. McCall demurs at its florid and ineffectual imitation of Burke. Deservedly much attention is paid to the reply to Hayne, the spoken peroration of which is given and preferred to that commonly known, which is more artificial. There is a discussion of the relative merits of Webster's oratory which arrives at the conclusion that he was surpassed by no English-speaking orator and equalled only by Burke. The apology for Webster's support of the "tariff of abominations," in direct reversal of his position four years earlier, is that the tariff had in the meantime created New England manufactures and given him a bill of divorcement from his former principles. Even more lame is the apology for the Seventh of March speech. It may be conceded that Webster's love of the Union was genuine, and also his fear for its safety. But there is no proper apprehension of Webster's declension from his earlier anti-slavery position, and Mr. McCall simply puts Webster's desire for the Presidency out of court. Allusion is made to the "noble reparation" of Whittier's "Lost Opportunity" for the "Ichabod"; but the later poem retracts little or nothing. It simply regrets that Webster did not live to see his Union-saving doctrine come into general fashion. The wonderful picture of Webster in the tall stove-pipe hat is the effective frontispiece to the little volume.

—Henry Loomis Nelson opens the June *Century* with a discussion of law-making at Washington by the hierarchy of the three majority members of the Committee on Rules. We get a vivid presentation of actual conditions, but Mr. Nelson hardly makes out a good case for his proposal to seek reform further along the same road that has led the House into its present condition. A recognized committee in each branch, composed exclusively of members of the majority party, for the express purpose of selecting both the subjects to be presented to Congress and the form in which they shall be presented, is his prescription. This, he thinks, will make it possible for the country to know, as it does not now know, where rests the responsibility for failure or the credit for achievement. But how are the voters at large to enforce responsibility against such a party committee? About one voter in a hundred would have an opportunity to strike at some member of the committee at the polls. Other members of the majority party, in case the committee should become offensive, would save themselves with their several constituencies by the entirely plausible plea that the action of the committee was against their judgment. Mr. Nelson makes the common assumption that the House, previous to the Reed rules, had become an inefficient mob, and that the new system has transformed it into something better. The proportion of fiction to demonstrable fact in the latter half of this assumption is unduly large. Professor Pickering contributes an interesting bit of comparative astronomy, arguing from the similarity of the "canals" on Mars and the moon, and the known scarcity of air and water-vapor on the latter, against the supposition that the "canals" on Mars are the product of living beings. No astronomer, he thinks, will be tempted to reverse the argument and use it in support of the inhabitation of the moon.

—*Harper's*, like the *Century*, draws upon the Harvard Observatory for its June issue. Ralph Bergengren, working upon material furnished by Professor Pickering, describes some of the discoveries read by astronomers from the autobiographies which the stars are made to write upon the plates of the photographer. Harvard has already more than 115,000 of these plates filed away, and instruments both at Cambridge and at Arequipa are constantly increasing the collection. An incident or two will show the value of this collection for future study. When Mme. Ceraski of Moscow discovered an Algol variable, in 1898, a reference to the Harvard plates disclosed more than two hundred photographs of this star, taken between 1890 and the date when the plates were examined. Again, the negatives proved that Nova Aurigæ, discovered by Dr. Anderson of Edinburgh in 1892, had been visible at least six weeks before it was actually seen. Of the eight most important new stars among the discoveries of the past decade, six were first noticed by Mrs. Fleming, the curator of the collection, in the routine examination preparatory to filing and cataloguing. Dr. Henry C. McCook makes a contribution in popular science in a very different direction, through a study of the relation of insect life to the progress of human civilization. Even the coal measures which have been so important a factor in the industrial life of recent generations, we owe to insect life, in so far as the conifers of the coal-forming era were dependent upon insects for fertilization. Darwin has shown the function of the earthworm in the preparation of soil for agricultural processes, and the writer concludes, from his own observations, that the part played by ants in the same work is, within their sphere, almost as great. On the other side of the account, the destructive work of insects in this country has been estimated by various authorities at from three to four hundred millions of dollars per annum. Mr. Howells, from the Easy Chair, gives a pleasant account of his trip down the Ohio, fifteen months ago. Readers acquainted with the ground will find his treatment of the "shanty-boat" population defective in its failure to recognize the relation of these people to the illicit liquor traffic, growing out of the ease with which the floating "speak-easy" crosses the line of State jurisdiction along the Ohio River.

—Money, world-politics, and golf—these are the three subjects upon which Americans now care to talk, according to William Garrott Brown in the current *Atlantic*. The editor has recognized all three. Charles M. Skinner's paper on the Electric Car talks in billions of American investments in trolley railways, though the financial aspect is only one feature of his study. More interesting to those who care to go beyond Mr. Brown's trinity of current conversation is the question of the sociological effect of the trolley, now that it has ceased to con-

fine itself to the city and is mingling country, village, and city population as they have never before been brought together in the world's history. As to world-politics, we wearily learn from the paper of Remsen Whitehouse, on "Austria and Pan-Germanism," that another great field for American "influence," armed if necessary, is looming up. If "militant Pan-Germanism" shall go to the extent of incorporating Austria, as its scheme demands, then there is a call for the active intervention of the world Powers, "among which the United States has assumed so important a place, and corresponding responsibilities." Mr. Brown's readable apology for golf, as a recreation fitted to take a man's brain out of the modern whirl, and teach him some of the quiet habits of mother Nature, is at once witty and convincing. Even those of us who lack courage to take up a game which requires a new language in addition to the three or four of the college course, can yet bless the golf club for drawing off competition, and leaving us so much more nearly alone with the trees, the stream, the trout, and the bamboo. Prof. Irving Babbitt considers the present position of "the Humanities" in a paper which should have the earnest attention of educators, classical or otherwise. He sounds again the needed warning against the ruin of classical studies by losing sight of their true function, and importing into them on false analogy "scientific methods" which belong in other spheres.

—W. S. Harwood gives a glowing account in *Scribner's* of "The New Agriculture," meaning thereby the improvement which has resulted from the work of the various agricultural experiment stations established under the acts of 1887 and 1890. It is unquestionable that these stations have done a large amount of careful and valuable scientific work in the short period of their existence, but a little open-eyed travel over the country, combined with a careful study of crop statistics, must convince even the enthusiast that the new agriculture is as yet pretty closely confined to the experiment stations themselves and the files of their published bulletins. Not until a more vital relation is established between this work and the average farmer will it be true to say, as Mr. Harwood says, that "the progress in agriculture in the last generation has been greater than in all the generations that have preceded." Harvey Maitland Watts attacks in a determined way the theories of the Gulf Stream as a climatic factor which have had such vogue ever since the publication of Lieut. Maury's famous 'Physical Geography of the Sea.' Within a year of the appearance of Maury's book, William Ferrel contributed to the Nashville *Journal of Medicine* a paper which marked out the way for the views now held by scientific observers, assigning to the Gulf Stream a very low position, as compared with the cyclonic and anti-cyclonic movements of the atmosphere; but Maury was read with delight by the masses, while the more scientific views were unknown except to the scientific few. Perhaps there is a lesson in all this for those who look askance at any literary quality in the scientist. Maury was read because he aimed to be readable, and succeeded. Editorially, we have some remarks on Russian literature, to the effect that the Russian writer, if he be a man of any power, sees no use in writing at all "unless you write with the intention of getting as nearly as may be at the secret of why one happens to be alive."

—The interesting story of King Horn has of late been the subject of much careful study. The Middle English poem appeared last year in two new editions, one by Professor McKnight of Ohio State University, and the other by Mr. Joseph Hall of the Hulme Grammar School, Manchester. At the December meeting of the Modern Language Association two papers were devoted to the Horn story. We now have the elaborate study of a young German scholar, a part of which appeared last year as a Kiel dissertation ('Studien zur Hornsage,' by Otto Hartenstein, in the *Kieler Studien zur englischen Philologie*, part iv.). Its chief value lies in its full digest of the history of opinions regarding Horn problems. As an original contribution to the subject it will not rank high. The points which chiefly interest Hartenstein are the authorship of the French version, and the original home of the legend. He concludes that Mestre Thomas was a wandering singer, no longer young, who had been well educated in a cloister; whose home was in southern England, perhaps in Sussex, where he possibly became a man of family; and who, while speaking Anglo-Norman French, was acquainted with English. The legend is Germanic; that it originated in England this scholar thinks is shown chiefly by the names, only two of which, *Aaluf* and *Thurston*, are surely Norse. The identification of *Horn* with *Orm*, which seems to come from Professor Gering, is doubtful, and, as Hartenstein adds, unnecessary. Like many other critics, however, Hartenstein fails to take sufficient account of the Celtic character of localities and surroundings, and it seems probable that Dr. Schofield's theory, which locates Horn's home in the Isle of Man, will ultimately find general favor. A valuable feature of the book is the bibliography. The compiler, however, seems not to have known of McKnight's excellent reëdition of Lumby, although it appeared some weeks in advance of Hall's, which he notes in his *Nachträge*.

WALTER BESANT.

Autobiography of Sir Walter Besant. With a Prefatory Note by S. Squire Sprigge. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902.

Sir Walter begins his autobiography with an elaborate conceit of his original choice of the place and time and circumstances of his birth, of the family he would be born into, and the training he would get therein. He imagines himself as having chosen exactly those things which were actually his portion. But, had his prevision extended to the publication of this book, it is extremely doubtful whether he would have chosen Mr. Sprigge as its editor. It is quite certain that he would not have done so, for Mr. Sprigge's "Prefatory Note," twenty pages long, is to a considerable degree an apology and a depreciation. It tends to beget in the reader's mind a suspicion of the quality of Sir Walter's account of his own life. Some of the particulars are well enough. Besant's habitual method was to make a rough manuscript first, revise that to some extent, then have a typewritten copy made, and revise that carefully. The manuscript of the Autobiography never got so far as the typewritten stage. The earlier chapters were, however, fully and freely revised; the later ones were not, and there were gaps in them which Sir Walter would have filled up—one of them very notable. Much of this the reader would have surmised without editorial help. The points at which the editor has overstepped the bounds of prudence are those relating to Sir Walter's opinions of the critics and the theologians. We see no reason for supposing that Sir Walter said anything of either of these sets of people which did not fairly express his thought and feeling, and, could he revisit the earthly scene in which he took a strong man's pure delight, Mr. Sprigge would quite possibly have a bad quarter of an hour. We are assured that Sir Walter's hatred of the evangelical theology was "an expression of his delight in life, and had nothing to do with his sacred convictions." But he had no more sacred conviction than that life was a good thing and meant to be enjoyed. Mr. Sprigge is confident that the "bitter acerbity" which distinguishes his remarks on ritualism would have been sweetened if he had been spared to think over the passage. They might have taken on a keener edge. Mr. Sprigge also deprecates the acerbity with which the critics are treated; but Sir Walter knew well enough that there are critics and critics, and he does not fail to discriminate between the better and the worse.

There is little intimacy in Sir Walter's disclosure of the facts of his career. He keeps pretty steadily in mind his purpose to set forth his literary life, and he neglects the more personal part except as this interprets or illustrates his literary ambitions and successes. He is at his best in his account of his early years, at Portsea, near Portsmouth, where he was born August 14, 1836. Much of the local situation passed into his novels, and from these a number of long extracts are made which are less effective than the direct reminiscence. The father, who was "not a pushing man and mostly waited," was a book-lover, and liked plays particularly. He had a large collection which he got rid of when he thought they would harm his boys; not, however, until after Walter had read all of them. Sir Walter's hatred of Calvinism was the fruit of which his father's indifference to it was the flower. Regular in his attendance at church, the father never presented himself at Holy Communion. "Since we were warned how we might, by unworthily partaking, cause our own damnation, it was generally felt that it was wiser not to take the risk." The boy enjoyed the long sermons very much. They left him to his waking dreams. So long as he lived, he was never able to listen to a sermon. "The preachers begin," he says; "I try to give them a chance. Then the old habit returns. Involuntarily my eyes drop, I fly away, I am again John-o'dreams." This is very pretty, but it is quite spoiled by the confession that he went to church but once or twice in thirty years. Was that his idea of giving the preachers a good chance?

His mother was the cleverest woman he ever knew, the quickest-witted. Such imagination as he had he credited to her. A rare passage in the book is that which describes himself sitting at her feet in the deepening twilight, looking into the red

coals and listening to her stories of the New Forest. He writes of his senses as being imperfect. He was short-sighted, he says, and slow-sighted, and, likewise, dull of smell. This is strange for the eulogist of Richard Jefferies. But there was some alleviation.

"I have a companion (who has tried to teach me all she knows) who finds, I am aware, a thousand breaths of fragrance where I find only one. She hears in the warbling of the woods a hundred notes, and distinguishes them all—to me they are mostly like; she knows all the trees, with the infinite varieties of leaf, of color, of bough and branch, with the loveliness and the charm that belong to each—I take them all together; she knows all the wild flowers and loves them every one for its own sake and for its own special charm—I love them all together. This comes of a childhood spent in streets and on the seashore, and of a boyhood wherein the leisure hours were chiefly passed up in a corner, nose in book."

The story of Besant's early schooling and later education abounds in interesting matter. His first school was kept by three sisters, two of them "serious," the third never serious; and her cheerfulness gave the school its characteristic note. It was at this early stage that he began his independent reading with 'Pilgrim's Progress,' 'Robinson Crusoe,' and the Apocalypse. His best schooling was the next in order. Thanks to it he knew more Greek and Latin at the age of twelve than when he went up to Cambridge at eighteen. But though he could "rattle off miles of Homer and Virgil," he could never say his catechism straight. He always broke down at the question, "What desirest thou in the Lord's Prayer?" "There I met my fate; the cane was at hand—whack! whack!" Other private schools followed, and then, with a view to his taking holy orders, which was not dissipated till he was twenty-four, Besant entered a London grammar school which had a subordinate relation to King's College. Better than the games, at which the school was not great, he liked to get away to the City of London, which was then to him, as ever after, a place of mystery, full of things to be discovered. He then and there began London archæologist. In 1854 he left the suburban school with the honors of its captaincy and a barrowful of prizes, and entered King's College, after signing, as required, the Thirty-nine Articles, four of which he learned in the course of his first year, and "the remaining thirty-five I continued to accept on trust." The period at King's was the most dreary part of his whole life.

"We were," he says, "left absolutely alone. . . . No one appeared to know how desperately miserable an evening in lodgings may be. . . . When my nerves could stand it no longer, I have taken my hat and rushed out into the streets. . . . I wonder that some horrible obsession of the devil did not fall upon me as it fell upon hundreds and thousands like myself, turned into the streets because I could not bear to sit alone."

Yet the college which drove a boy into the primrose path of dalliance, after this fashion, was "then, even more than now, a bulwark of orthodoxy and the Established Church." He took a mathematical scholarship and carried off prizes in classics, mathematics, and divinity, ironical as that may seem. "But nobody cared about any of the students; during the whole time I was there, I never remember a single word of personal interest or of encouragement." From the hard actual he took refuge in the ideal, and resolved to be a poet. The poems were put away, neatly labelled. Long afterward he looked them over. "Heavens! How could any one, even at the present day, imagine that such stuff was poetry!" But what with their royal borrowing and earnest aspiration, he recognized that the writing of that stuff was part of his education.

The account of Christ's College, Cambridge, whither, in 1855, he betook himself from King's, and of the University in general, is very interesting, but not more flattering than Gibbon's picture of the Oxford of his time. "The dulness, the incapacity, the stupidity of the dons brought the small colleges into a certain contempt. Naturally the dulness of the fellows was in some sort reflected among the undergraduates. There were certain colleges which never seemed to show any intellectual life at all." The "depth and the extent and the intensity of the ignorance of the undergraduates" generally were unspeakable. But there were exceptions among both teachers and students. Christ College had the good luck to have a tutor, Enson, "who, for the first time in the annals of the College, actually concerned himself about the men individually; who stormed and bullied the indolent and encouraged those who worked." Hence a succession of able men whose names are given. Skeat, the Anglo-Saxon scholar, was one of them, Seeley another, Robertson Smith a third. But the emphasis is on the poet Calverley. He was already a bachelor when Besant entered, and, soon competing for a gold medal for an English essay, Besant won it and was bracketed with Calverley. By that incident the two men were made friends. One day Calverley came to him and said, "I've got a young Frenchman. He's clever. Come and be amused." Besant went and was amused. The young Frenchman "told quantities of stories in a quiet, irresponsible way," and, after two or three hours of port, he sang Italian opera in the finest style. Why not "Ben Bolt"? for he was George Du Maurier. Besant writes down his own university course as creditable, but not highly distinguished. It was certainly not distinguished for an active piety. He attended Holy Communion but three times in his three years—all three in the last two terms; and for this scandalous behavior nearly lost his certificate. No wonder his Cambridge residence made holy orders impossible for him. The wonder is that he "did not as yet understand this important fact." It knocked all his literary aspirations on the head. "Writing had to wait." But it improved his manners, and for this he was properly grateful. It widened his mind in every imaginable way.

After graduation there was a tramp abroad with Calverley and two other Cambridge men, which, for Besant, meant a great deal. He came back to England to find trouble brewing. He had passed a theological examination and was now to pass the Bishop's. "I put myself," he says "in communication with the Bishop's secretary, and with great depression of spirits prepared myself for perjury, because by this time I understood that the white tie would choke me." It was rumored that he was not sound on the Atonement, but his name and credentials were sent to the Bishop. "And then—oh, happiness! a door of release was thrown open." His choice was given him of two colonial professorships. He chose Mauritius, South Africa having snakes. There he lived six years and a half. He writes little of the college, where a continual fight was going on between the rector and professors, but had he been consciously looking up material for his novels, he could not have been better placed. Some of his experiences are narrated in his most vivid manner. There was a visitation of cholera; another of the plague. Finally, he got away on a year's furlough, and never went back. On the way home he got in more rough material for his novels, the Cape of Good Hope justifying its other name—the Cape of Torments—and the officials at Cape Colony showing him the first diamond found in those parts. It emitted no gleam of recent happenings. Resolved not to go back to Mauritius, he turned to literature for a livelihood, with a confidence that was amazing in his retrospective eyes. Before his 'Early French Poetry' was published (1868), a great piece of luck came to him in the post of secretary of a Palestinian exploration society. He held the office eighteen years. Besides a certain income, it brought him the friendship of the Arabic scholar, Palmer, which meant a great deal. His term of service was signalized by a great find—the Moabite stone—and a great fraud, viz., a contemporary copy of Deuteronomy, which deceived some of the very elect. Shapira, the forger, wanted a million pounds for his parchment. Being discovered, he went out and hanged himself, leaving with Besant the leaden cover of Samson's coffin—but about that Shapira was not quite certain. Neither was Besant. But for the secretaryship, Besant is sure that he could never have realized his literary ambition, and he advises all literary aspirants to get a position of that kind. "Anything, anything, rather than dependence on the pen, and the pen alone!"

A chapter on Sir Walter's literary work, outside his fiction, is too detailed to recapitulate. In the next following he pays his respects to the "critics and criticasters" in his familiar strain. Let the galled criticasters wince, the honest critics be consoled. The same chapter tells the story of Besant's collaboration with James Rice. He declines to explain its method because Rice died in 1882. But they worked without regular partnership and without disagreement, each carrying on meantime his independent work. The arrangement lasted ten years and produced as many successful novels. Nevertheless, Sir Walter pronounces decidedly against the method. "There will come a time when both men fret under the condition; when each desires, but is not able, to enjoy the reputation of his own good work; and feels, with the jealousy natural to an artist, irritated by the loss of half himself, and ready to accept the responsibility of failure in order to make sure of the meed of success." Of the books Besant wrote with Rice, he liked best 'The Chaplain of the Fleet,' and thought it perhaps the best of his eighteenth-century novels.

From 1882 onward he was "The Novelist with a Free Hand," and wrote eighteen novels in as many years, with great enjoyment, fancying each the best while he was writing it. Each took him eight or ten

months, from start to finish. This means a thousand words a day, but he had no such command of his talent as Trollope, who could grind out his stint on shipboard as easily as in the quiet and still air of his own study. There is a good account of Besant's methods, which he compares to the boring of a tunnel, the rough blasting going on ahead, while the completion often slowly follows. He thinks 'Dorothy Foster' the best of his eighteen unassisted novels. This was one of four eighteenth-century stories. There are brief comments on all the others. 'The Fourth Generation' is the most serious. He rejoices in them all, in the troops of friends that they have raised up for him, and "a whole army of enemies—exactly such enemies as one, at the outset, would desire above all things to make": "the spiritualist fraud," "the sickly sentimentalist," "the shrieking sisterhood"—these in revolt against his 'Revolt of Man.' The philanthropic novels, 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men' and 'Children of Gideon,' are assigned to a separate chapter on his "Philanthropic Work." The story of the Palace of Delight, which grew up from the former of these as a foundation, is one of melancholy failure in the main. 'The Children of Gideon,' as an attack on the sweating-shops, did not do much better. Those sweated were too anxious to become sweaters in their turn. In this connection Sir Walter strikes out boldly for the Salvation Army and at Professor Huxley. He does not estimate highly his own speech-making, but thinks he made one good speech, and it was in defence of the Salvation Army.

Strangely enough, he forgets to write as he intended on the Society of Authors, in which he took great interest and a leading part, and the omission has been corrected by the introduction of a speech he made on the subject in 1892. It lacks the freedom of the other chapters. His London studies get honorable mention, and in conclusion we have "The Conduct of Life and the Influence of Religion." Here he recurs to his early London loneliness and his evening amusements. It is encouraging that he thinks that such amusements were much coarser then than now. At Cambridge there was a suburb called Barnwell, apparently given over to "lubricity," which was patronized by fellows of colleges and men intending holy orders. As for his religious opinions, "having shovelled away the evangelical rubbish, [he] was ready to make a clean sweep of a good deal more." But he never became agnostic. His simple creed was that of the radical Unitarian. He reserves for ritualism his hardest blows. He finds all sacerdotalism repulsive, and ritualism merely its absurdest form. "Now, at last," he says, "there is not left to me a single rag or scrap of the ecclesiastical rubbish."

There is an excellent portrait which seems to take him in the act of thinking in this fashion. It represents a man who was sturdy, wholesome, honest, but not delicate; not one of the finer spirits.

MORE FICTION.

Michael Ferrier. By E. Frances Poynter. Macmillan Co.

A Double-Barrelled Detective Story. By Mark Twain. Harper & Brothers.

The Opponents. By Harrison Robertson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

In the Country God Forgot. By Frances Charles. Little, Brown & Co.

Sarita, the Carlist. By Arthur W. Marchmont. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

The Sport of the Gods. By Paul Laurence Dunbar. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Bread and Wine. By Maud Egerton King. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Roman Biznet. By Georgia Wood Pangborn. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'Michael Ferrier' affords space to breathe from history, warfare, and dialect. It is a love-story of modern England without drawbridge and without Napoleon. We regret that the clever authoress found a pistol indispensable when all was going so nicely uncomfortably without it. But—if one can forgive her for turning a novel of manners into a tragedy, in a day when our books need tragedy so much less than they need manners—we can allow that she has done it ably, and so as to convey a genuine fillip of consternation. The characters stand out alive and well defined. The writer's skill and delicacy in this branch of her art have led her into too great minuteness here and there in introducing accessories and in describing them, their natures, their consorts, their previous conditions of servitude, or otherwise. But it is all done with the pen of literary good breeding, and the book is not so long that one need quarrel seriously with anything that extends it.

"A novelette in which the author enters upon a field that is entirely new," is the official motto for Mark Twain's latest story. As one reads it and balances the claims of Sherlock Holmes *in propria persona* with those of the boy born with a bloodhound's scent, the question arises whether this is likely to be the corner-stone of a new school—whether in Conan Doyle's next book the sub-hero will be Tom Sawyer; whether Seton-Thompson will exploit the jumping frog; whether possibly, as the movement grows apace, Winston Churchill may not take as his hero Oliver Herford, and Henry James write a novel about Mark Twain. The consideration that makes against it is that happily Mark Twain is inimitable.

Mr. Robertson's first chapter reads almost as vengefully as Mark Twain's. Like that it is of injury, of vengeance that aims far deeper than killing—that would condemn its victims to lifelong torture. In the former case burlesque comes tripping in to apply poultices, while in 'The Opponents' the rather sensational opening has a coherent and even righteous sequel. The self-appointed judge and executioner lives to see what evil he has wrought his own nature by trying to take upon himself the functions of Providence. His ascent to a loftier moral plane is not wholly natural. When middle-aged suitors feel themselves unworthy of nice young maidens, they are not often self-convicted to the point of telling them in what shady ways their political paths have lain. In fact, Morgan Tunstall is an improbable combination of scruple and the reverse, although he is made very present to the reader. If the theme of his revenge and reconstruction is somewhat forced, the treatment is in a marked degree self-contained and satisfactory. The political background of the story is uncommonly successful, and the episode of the toll-gate raids lends novelty to the oft-told tale of Kentucky elections. Some fine old Kentucky characters, black and white, exude humor without pain. The love interest is enlivened by the agreeable naturalness of the women; the heroine's hesitation between the attraction of masterful power on one side and energetic youth on the other, being very humanly seen and told. Mr. Robertson may be congratulated on a work of more than usual substance, accomplished with a nice sense of symmetry.

'In the Country God Forgot' has a fibrous strength of its own. The sky and the cacti and the droughts of Arizona are stamped in on the brain as one reads. The characters loom forcibly out of the arid air. The plot is slight but sufficient. But the way of telling is quite intolerable. The involutions, affectations, crudities, elaborations are as irritating to the spirit as the dry atmosphere of Arizona to the skin. It is Margaret Fuller and Pater translated into Yankee Doodle language. As one rises from the reading—no, one does not rise, one falls back exhausted—there is a positive Arizonian thirst for simple statement, as of the multiplication table, or "Mary had a little lamb."

The story of adventure and the domestic drama will soon be one, for former ages are well-nigh depleted of their harvest. The Wheel of Things has forced the writer forward, and now he gives us the doughty deeds of the last three centuries with the *dramatis personæ* of to-day. The swashbuckler of Mr. Marchmont's story might have been a Russian, a Gentleman of France, or whatever, but remains, spite of all temptations, a simple Englishman; as valorous as a third of Three Guardsmen, as single-minded as Sir Galahad (we thank him for that), as lady-beloved as the first-person hero always is, as indispensable as Richard Carvel, as astute as Sherlock Holmes, as effective with pistol and fist as a Knight of Zenda. It would not be surprising to learn that Mr. Marchmont had read the 'Prisoner of Zenda,' by the way. If the mind be attuned to these perfections, and if it does not give one a chilly feeling to find the Queen Regent and the young King of Spain under personal obligations (personally and chummily expressed) to the hero of 'Sarita,' then the reader need fear no drawback to the enjoyment of a lively, eager-flowing story. Risks and escapades, private and political, keep up a rattling pace through more than four hundred pages, yet it can be truthfully conceded that the interest does not languish. There are no snags of disquisition to arrest the current which carries one far but fast. The novel is, furthermore, marked by the cleanliness which in a novel is even more requisite than godliness. And all ends as it should: the wicked are cut down without crime; the good inherit fortunes and wives. (There are no meek.) The rejected find comfort in others or in convents.

Mr. Dunbar's story is of a negro wrongly imprisoned for theft, of the hounding of his family out of a Southern town, of their degradation in New York, whither they take their flight, of innocence reëstablished when it is too late for anything but a ghost of happiness. The picture of sordid downfall and crime in the city reads no more pleasantly of blacks than it would of any other race. But it stands as a plea

against an indiscriminate Northward and cityward rush by those for whom "good agriculture is better than bad art." The crime is shifted from innocent black shoulders to guilty white through the instrumentality of yellow journalistic greed; the neighborhood colonels and judges profoundly regretting the act of justice that brings a distinguished Southern family to shame. The story is thus of unrelieved wofulness; its moral, that the negro has no chance against unjust suspicion in the South, nor any against ruin in New York.

If the Gentle Reader is not extinct, he may solace himself with 'Bread and Wine,' a story of Davos, dealing with the natives, where a little human weakness is the darkest shadow, where family affections furnish the high lights, where the scene is the winter valley or the summer Alp; where the breath of cows sweetens the pages, where mountain brooks tinkle, Alpine rose and gentian bloom, and little children tell fairy stories in the woods. Pastoral, natural, and sincere, it sets the Tyrolese jodel in a key novel enough to seize and soothe the ear.

How nice it would be if the novel of heredity should now and then show that good as well as evil traits are transmitted! It is always the ancestral murder and madness that come out in the text; truly the foreparents of fiction are a sorry lot. Roman Biznet was peculiarly unfortunate in his. His father forged, stole, and committed more than one revolting murder; his Indian grandmother slew her (it must be admitted) objectionable German husband with an axe. Both grandfathers played the fiddle, and Roman inherited their musical genius, a sloping forehead, and two warring natures. As a boy, half of him teased, stole apples, wandered at night like a wood creature; while the other half played on the piano and made all the women like him. As a man, he was double-natured, too. He played the 'cello, composed music, and remained popular with the ladies, while he had a temper that was annoying to say the least; deceived the rich lady who brought him up, pinched and threatened, and had slaughterous dreams, particularly when the medical student had given him morphine. A fight between father and son closes the story. "They bit, tore, scratched, fighting grotesquely as anthropoids may have fought before men were."

The victory for the moral side of Roman Biznet will strike the reader as a very doubtful one, we think. But let us hope for the best. The story is not all of fights and morphine. There are domestic, schoolroom, and farmyard scenes in a northern New York settlement, and various studies of various human types, less anthropoid than the Biznet family. Dr. Winthrop is one character with whom one can be wholly in sympathy. In differing degrees we put up with the others—the narrow-minded aristocrat who adopts and makes miserable the orphan children; Elizabeth, who is poetic and untidy; Kitty, who is impervious to cultivation; Maud, who is patrician, but reads letters not meant for her. The strength of the study, the originality of the types are undeniable, but the evolution of a man out of generations of musical beasts is not comfortable reading. Even worse as to taste are remarks thrown in gratuitously here and there, mainly about hair. In fact, although a clever book, 'Roman Biznet' moves in an atmosphere disagreeable beyond the disagreeableness of theme. We do not expect the jovial in a psychological novel, but we should like matters to be less creepy, and we should like to think the hero worth redeeming. The fault of overloading with incident is natural and venial, for it is a "first novel," we are told, by "a member of the class of '96 at Smith College." No indulgence need be extended to the style, which is unaffectedly terse. A quick and incisive power of observing is turned to account. There is no trace of what Green calls "a forced muddy-boot originality." The story is spontaneously planned and told. Possibly the unpleasantness is too spontaneous. There is true sentiment in a phrase like this: "A warm wind seemed looking nervously among the bushes for something that it could not find but must have at once if some calamity were to be averted." The trouble is that the book makes the reader feel like that warm wind.

A NEW ESKIMO GRAMMAR.

Grammatical Fundamentals of the Innuit Language, as spoken by the Eskimo of the Western Coast of Alaska. By the Rev. Francis Barnum, S. J., of Georgetown University, D. C. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1901. Large 8vo, pages xxv, 384.

This well-printed volume contains grammatical notes and a vocabulary of the Eskimo dialect spoken from Norton to Bristol Bay, on the Western Alaskan coast, collected by a missionary of the Jesuit order. Father Barnum started for the Alaskan mission in June, 1891, and established a mission-house at Tununa on Nelson Island, opposite Nunivak. With a companion belonging to the same religious order, he valiantly struggled against the rigors of the climate, while simultaneously striving to conquer the oddities of an eminently polysynthetic language. Nature herself seemed to oppose her mightiest obstacles to his efforts, for frequently he risked having his hand frozen when removing the mitten in order to make a memorandum of some expression that seemed of importance to him in the pursuit of his studies. To bring his manuscript to its degree of perfection, Father Barnum subjected it to subsequent revision for eight years, and is still conscious of many weak points in the lexical as well as in the grammatic portion. In acquiring the language he was aided by the almost absolute uniformity of dialect observed even in villages a thousand miles distant from each other. Many previous travellers have expressed their astonishment at the same fact, which is explained by the great paucity of natives inhabiting those coasts.

Father Barnum uses an alphabet of fifteen vowels, three diphthongs, and seventy-one consonants to write down his dialect. The letters are given the values they have in the English alphabet, which he finds more appropriate than others to express the sounds heard in Eskimo. This is a debatable point, in which the majority of linguists will certainly differ from our missionary. By means of diacritical marks he manages to distinguish four kinds of *a*, two of which would be expressed by *e* by those using the standard alphabet of Lepsius. One of his two *e's* is *i*, and of diphthongs there seem to be only *au* and *ya* in the languages. In the use of macrons (-) and breves (˘) Father Barnum is certainly too liberal; he puts one of these two marks on every one of his vowels, instead of simply stating that vowels without the macron should always be considered short. Accenting the stressed syllable is another short way of obviating any misunderstanding in this respect, and, generally speaking, our author's phonetic transcription must be set down as too artificial.

The most characteristic feature of all Eskimo dialects is their high degree of polysynthesis and their large incorporating faculty. In these points they seem to be more richly endowed than all other languages in the world. The numerous modes and voices in the verb, the wealth of nominal cases, are surprising; the number of particles that can be inserted in the word is almost unspeakably large. That nouns can be inflected for tense we notice in many American languages, but here it is the "regular thing." In the noun the locative cases are superabundant, and quite specific in their meanings. The dual, which has disappeared from most languages that ever had it, is prominent in Eskimo, in the noun as well as in the pronoun and verb; noun-forming suffixes able to form a number of derivatives from verbal stems are in abundance also.

What Father Barnum calls *modes* we should define as adverbs incorporated into or suffixed to (Eskimo has no prefixes) a verbal stem; they either refer to action, and then are transitive, or to being, and then are intransitive. They are inserted immediately after the stem or root of the verb, so that a verb consists of a stem followed by one, two, three, etc., modal particles, and closes with the person-suffix. One of the modes, *e. g.*, corresponds to our inchoative verb, stating that "the act is about to begin"; it is characterized by the suffix -atatoa. These inserted particles, forming modes, have to follow one another in the following order: particles of mode, of adjutant, of negation, of object and number or tense, and finally of person (page 176). The term *adjutant* corresponds to what we call subordinate sentences introduced by causative or temporal or conditional, etc., conjunctions. The author gives a list of 170 modes with their characteristic particles.

The objective inflection is also rich in forms. Verbal stem comes first, then the index of tense, combined with the pronominal object, then the personal subject pronoun which closes the word, in the quality of a suffix. The negation *not* is intercalated between the stem and the temporal index, and lengthy paradigms of the negative forms are subjoined, in the three tenses, present, past, and future. The two interrogative paradigms, one positive, the other negative, have again their three tenses for each of the three persons (pp. 117, 119).

The fact that the substantive verb *to be* does not exist in the language, causes a number of attributive verbs to come into existence, the most cumbersome adjunct imaginable for verbal inflection. On page 96 Father Barnum produces a long array of "locative verbs," in which adverbs become verbified by the suffix -tok.

The words called by us prepositions and adverbs can also be converted into verbs by incorporating tense-marks, case-marks, and possessive pronouns. Each one of them has at least two cases, the *vialis* and the

terminalis, and the result is that any adverb or preposition can with these helps be made either a noun or a verb. When an adjective is formed from an adverb it is personified and placed in one of the three numbers, singular, dual, or plural, and, moreover, provided with case-endings (pp. 98, 99). Synthesis, not analysis, is the absolutely dominant rule in Eskimo morphology.

In view of all these facts, the want of any grammatic gender cannot surprise us, for the contrast between masculine and feminine never entered to any tangible extent into the spirit prevailing in this and in other American languages; it was the contrast between animate and inanimate that was sought to be expressed, and even of this the distinction is often left to be decided by the context.

The numerals form a very polymorphic part of speech in Eskimo. There are to be found not only our cardinals, ordinals, distributives, and adverbial numerals, but also series like "one by one," "seven by seven"; or, "there are five," "there are six"; or, "I got four," "I got five"—all expressed by *one* single word. "I am in four, five places" is also expressed synthetically in one single verb. This is enough to teach us that the Eskimo has some difficulty in thinking of a numeral abstractly, as he prefers to combine it with some verb or other expression, and thus creates manifold new inflections for it. The Eskimo numeral system is the quinary one.

A number of attractive "Native Stories," obtained from individuals who act as story-tellers, are given from page 270 to 299, with glossaries and translations. They form a needful complement to the grammar, and greatly help in exemplifying the dry rules of morphology and syntax found at the beginning of the volume. A few popular songs are inserted on pages 309-311.

Farther Barnum's collection of vocables extends over the dialects spoken at Tanuna, Kuskokwim, St. Michael; the words are presented in their simple or radical form only, most of the compounds having been excluded. There are between five and six thousand words in the list, all being syllabicated and accented with punctilious care. The language of which Father Barnum treats is called by him the Innuit language, and the people speaking it, the Eskimo. These natives call themselves Inuit, men, not doubling the *n*, for the singular is inok, inuk, man. The customary use of the plural Innuits is like speaking of the "Apaches" language, or of the "Cherokees" language. As to Eskimo, this word means "raw eater," and corresponds to the Mexican *comecrudo*, which has also been used as a tribal or national name. These people, again, do not so call *themselves*.

Father Barnum's volume has given to science the latest details of an Eskimo dialect comparatively *new* to us. Every work of this sort has to contend with numerous difficulties not apparent to the majority of students; to have achieved as much as he did in eight years is highly creditable.

Poverty: A Study of Town Life. By B. Seebohm Rowntree. Macmillan Co. 1901.

The depressing title of this book is fully justified by the dismal records which it contains. The town whose life is studied is the city of York, in England; a town having a population of only 75,000, but as much and as wretched poverty, in proportion, as London. Indeed, Mr. Charles Booth, whose opinion on such matters commands universal respect, declares his belief that other English cities would show a percentage of poverty not differing greatly from that existing in the metropolis. Mr. Booth, it may be added, bears witness to the thoroughness of the present inquiry. Mr. Rowntree's methods, he says, are more complete than those he found available for the large area of London. In his celebrated investigation of the life of the London poor, he computed the number visibly living in poverty, and separated the cases in which poverty amounted to destitution; but he did not enter into the questions of economical and wasteful expenditure. This Mr. Rowntree has done; and he has also enumerated separately those whose income is such that they cannot by any means afford the expenditure which his inquiries point to as an absolutely necessary minimum.

Shutting our eyes to the painful nature of the subject and the startling character of the results of the inquiry, we can derive a certain pleasure from the genuinely scientific methods employed. The research has almost the beauty of a mathematical demonstration, and may justly be held up as a model before all who propose to ascertain the actual condition of any large body of men. In certain respects we conceive that the inductions are open to criticism; some important assumptions are made on evidence that requires scrutiny. Before taking up these questions, however, it is desirable to state precisely what Mr. Rowntree has done.

In the first place, the facts concerning the numbers, the occupation, and the housing of the working people were ascertained by direct inquiry covering practically every family of this class in York. To a certain extent, earnings also were ascertained by direct inquiry, but in most cases accurate information was otherwise attainable. By various methods the minimum weekly expenditure on which merely physical efficiency can be maintained in York was determined. The number of persons whose earnings are so low that they cannot meet the expenditure necessary for this standard of living was thus calculated to be 7,230, or very nearly 10 per cent. of the total population. One person in every ten, therefore, in the city of York, and presumptively in the other cities of the United Kingdom, is actually suffering more or less acutely from starvation.

Families whose total earnings would have sufficed to maintain mere physical efficiency had they not been wasted or otherwise employed are said to exhibit "secondary" poverty. By house-to-house visitation the number of persons in this condition was ascertained to be 13,072, or 17.93 per cent. of the total population. The number of persons in York living in poverty is therefore 27.84 per cent. of the population. Mr. Booth's inquiry indicated that the percentage in London was 30.7 per cent., and the close correspondence of the figures goes far to prove the accuracy of the methods employed. Mr. Booth's figures were for the period 1887-92, when trade was less prosperous than in 1899, the date of Mr. Rowntree's investigation. The condition of the rural population has not been so carefully studied; but it is now only 23 per cent. of the whole, and we are forced to admit the probability that from 25 to 30 per cent. of the people of the United Kingdom obtain less of the necessaries of life than are required to maintain their bodily efficiency. One person out of every four in the richest country in the world except our own is, therefore, to a greater or less degree, starved.

The minimum weekly expenditure on which physical efficiency can be maintained in York by an average family—father, mother, and three children—is determined to be 21s. 8d. For rent, 4s. is allowed; for clothing, light, and fuel, 4s. 11d.; and for food 12s. 9d. The wage-earning classes in York number 47,754, and the average earnings of the family amount to 32s. 9d. per week. This income is made up of the wages of the father, of the mother, of children earning not more than 7s.; of payments for board and lodging by older children, and of payments by lodgers. But families numbering altogether nearly 6,500 persons have incomes under 21s. per week. Families numbering 15,710 persons, or one-third of the working class, have incomes averaging 26s. 7d. Families numbering 24,595 persons, or 52.6 per cent. of the working class, have incomes averaging 41s. 9½d. The conclusion cannot be avoided that over 20,000 persons, or 43 per cent. of the working class in York, live, to say the least, in indigence. What is signified by the limitation of expenditure to the absolutely necessary minimum will appear from the following statement:

"Let us clearly understand what 'merely physical efficiency' means. A family living upon the scale allowed for in this estimate must never spend a penny on railway fare or omnibus. They must never go into the country unless they walk. They must never purchase a half-penny newspaper or spend a penny to buy a ticket for a popular concert. They must write no letters to absent children, for they cannot afford to pay the postage. They must never contribute anything to their church or chapel, or give any help to a neighbor which costs them money. They cannot save, nor can they join sick club or trade union, because they cannot pay the necessary subscriptions. The children must have no pocket money for dolls, marbles, or sweets. The father must smoke no tobacco, and must drink no beer. The mother must never buy any pretty clothes for herself or for her children. . . . Should a child fall ill, it must be attended by the parish doctor; should it die, it must be buried by the parish. Finally, the wage-earner must never be absent from his work a single day. If any of these conditions are broken, the extra expenditure involved is met, *and can only be met*, by limiting the diet; or, in other words, by sacrificing physical efficiency."

Of course most of these conditions are constantly broken, and must be; therefore physical efficiency suffers. The results appear in stunted growth, feeble health, deficient weight, abnormal susceptibility to disease, and an excessive death rate, especially among young children. They appear also in drunkenness, vice, and mental as well as physical debility. The children suffer most, or the mothers, according to the devotion of the latter; the father must eat, or the sustenance which depends upon his wages will be cut off. Some help comes from public, much from private charity; most, perhaps, from those who have but little beyond their own needs.

Possibly, as we have suggested, the minimum expenditure for food is put a little

too high. Mr. Rowntree accepts, after due comparison, the results obtained by Prof. Atwater in this country. The "standard of life" is higher here than in Europe. "Considering the body as a machine," Prof. Atwater says, "the American working man has a more strongly built machine and more fuel to run it than has his European brother." Hence he is capable of and performs more muscular labor. Conversely, the foreign laborer does not require quite so much food in order to do his work. If he is smaller, and does not work so hard, he can exist on less food. A horse doing moderate work may exist, and even thrive, on hay. If he is to do more work, he must be fed with grain; and a large horse needs more food than a small one. But the possible reduction from Mr. Rowntree's standard is very small; and we cannot escape the conclusion that if the poorer class of laborers in England were better fed, they would presently increase in physical size and in physical efficiency. Their condition has greatly improved within a century, and had it not been for the deplorable mania for "empire" which has lately affected the English people, it would have continued to improve. But when a nation spends a thousand million dollars for glory, the poor cannot escape paying their share; and increased taxation for such an end means increased poverty.

The Brothers Dalziel. 1840-1890. With selected pictures by and autograph letters from Lord Leighton, etc., etc., etc. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Dutton. 1901. Small 4to, pp. 359.

Any one whose notice and recollection of wood-engraving antedate the rise and culmination of the American school, needs no introduction to the genial George and Edward Dalziel, who here modestly celebrate themselves. Their narrative is loosely chronological, and is copiously illustrated by specimens of their woodcuts in connection with each artist as brought upon the scene. Edward, himself a designer, is occasionally thus represented, as is Thomas, who began with copperplate, and E. G. Dalziel (eldest son of Edward). Another brother, John, associated with the firm, died in 1869. From 1851, Margaret, one of four sisters (there were eight brothers, all artistically minded), also assisted with the blocks. Portraits of this generation and of the parents heighten the interest of the retrospect.

The Brothers are discursive, and diversify their story with character sketches, anecdotes, letters (often in facsimile), in a way to offset the catalogue nature of their book. They were natives of Northumberland, and the youngest was born in Newcastle-on-Tyne, the seat of the revival of wood-engraving under Thomas Bewick. Bewick had been seven years in his grave when George Dalziel came up to London to learn the art under John Gray, a pupil of Nicholson, who had been Bewick's pupil. George's brother Alexander was also taught by Nicholson. In the early forties the new firm had much to do with the eccentric Ebenezer Landells, one of the projectors and original proprietors of *Punch*, who, having begun with Bewick, had finished under Nicholson. The Brothers Dalziel were, further, on the most cordial terms with William Harvey, Bewick's favorite pupil. The Tyneside tradition, therefore, came down very straight through our authors, but it is something of a disappointment that they have forborne to review the progress of the technique of wood-engraving, or the decline and fall of the craft. In a chapter regarding their own pupils—among them, Harry Fenn, who came to America to make his reputation—we read of Hal Ludlow (p. 350):

"His work had become so popular that Mason Jackson came to us on behalf of the *Illustrated London News*, to know if we would allow Ludlow to make drawings on wood for that journal, saying, 'it was a pity that such clever drawings should all be reproduced by process,' which he regarded as an inferior manner of rendering them. What a change has come since that period! How completely has the then thought 'superior' manner had to stand aside for the inferior! [The Dalziels closed their engravers' office in 1893.] We may here state that, in the long past, we always thought some automatic process would be perfected for the proper reproduction of point work, or what was always known as 'facsimile' drawing."

William Harvey died at seventy in 1866, but, remark our authors, "even in his own time what changes took place! He said that in his early days if merely a frontispiece were wanted for a book, John Murray would invite him and John Thomson, the engraver, to dinner at Albermarle Street, that they might discuss the subject fully before beginning the work" (p. 15). As to the designers' preparation, we are informed (p. 41):

"In Kenny Meadows's days, the artist in black and white had not thought of the advantages of drawing from the living model; neither William Harvey nor Sir John Gilbert ever drew from nature, and George Thomas was one of the first, if not indeed the very first, to draw on wood direct from life. This was about the early part of the Crimean war. . . . No doubt Mul-ready had life models for his 'Vicar of Wakefield' drawings, and, later on, Millais never drew without the life, nor did any of the pre-Raphaelite school; but this was the gradual and natural development of a new method, and innumerable drawings by the younger artists which passed through our hands were all drawn direct on wood from the life."

These drawings were so beautiful in themselves that the Dalziels sought to preserve them by "getting fairly good photographs for the engraver's purpose on other pieces of wood. . . . Then followed, as a matter of course, the constant practice of making drawings upon paper which were photographed on wood." It was the invariable custom of the gifted and amiable Birket Foster "to make small water-color sketches for his more important black-and-white work; sometimes they were partly pencil, or pen and ink tinted." Foster, by the way, had essayed wood-cutting under Landells, but made no progress.

"Among the early drawings by John Leech that passed through our hands, were those he made for Thackeray's 'Irish Sketch-Book,' which were probably copied from Thackeray's own pencil work, for he was not above having help on his drawings, the result not always being such as he expected." Dicky Doyle

"had a facile pencil when once fairly at work, but he was singularly deficient as to the value of time. . . . On one occasion, when illustrating a story by Thackeray, the number had to be issued short of certain pictures that had been arranged for. Thackeray was a good deal annoyed, and asked Doyle if he could give any reason why he had not done the drawings. He replied, in his cool, deliberate manner: 'Eh—er, the fact is, I had not got any pencils.'"

"Half a dozen of the *hardest*" was his requirement, as appears from an undated letter here given. It was Doyle who introduced the Dalziels to Millais, and one of the most interesting facsimiles is of a letter (p. 84) in which Millais gives minute directions for retouching a woodcut after his design, and sketches the parts in question.

When Fred Walker came out of school with an ambition to be an illustrator, he took counsel of the Dalziels, who "advised him to begin by copying, in pen and ink, pictures from the *Illustrated London News* and other illustrated periodicals, specially recommending the works of John Gilbert and Birket Foster as the best models for style and manner." One wonders what old Bewick would have said to this.

Had we picked out the plums of personal anecdote we could have made a more entertaining notice of this handsome volume, but our aim has been to show its relation to the history not of book illustration but of wood-engraving. The latter relation, we feel, might have been much more valuable. Still, no one can peruse this record of a talented family without being greatly attracted to the chroniclers as thoroughly lovable men, strongest as wood-engravers, not remarkable as designers or as poets; generous patrons of art, undertakers of great art publications, and founders of the Camden Press, still flourishing in the hands of their posterity, as this product testifies.

The Amherst Papyri. Part II. Edited by Bernard P. Grenfell and Arthur S. Hunt. H. Frowde. 1901.

This work, published by the Oxford University Press, contains certain classical fragments, and many documents of the Ptolemaic, Roman, and Byzantine periods, besides some theological fragments, chiefly from the 'Shepherd' of Hermas, which have been identified since the issue of Part I. Such a collection is always a lottery, and this particular lottery offers nothing so striking as the "Words of Jesus," the poem of Sappho, the list of Olympian Victors, and the long petition of Dionysia, which made the Oxyrhynchus papyri so rich in agreeable surprises and in legal information. On the other hand, the present volume must be consulted by every student of the original sources for the social and legal conditions in Ptolemaic and later Egypt. The student of palæography will also find in it an almost unique series of specimens, ranging from the third century B. C. to the seventh century A. D. Many of these can be dated with absolute precision and others with close approximation. They supplement, therefore, and modify in some interesting particulars the history of this science and the statements in Mr. Kenyon's treatise on the subject.

The fragments belonging to the classical period include fifteen broken lines of an unknown tragedy, pieced out in part by Blass, and possibly, as he surmises, from the "Νηρηίδες" of Aeschylus, and a slight trace of the "Sciron" of Euripides. A brief commentary by Aristarchus on the first book of Herodotus rescues for us a short quotation from the "Ποιμένες" of Sophocles, and confirms the special meaning of the word ἄμιππος. Another papyrus of the early fourth century A.D., containing three fables of Babrius, is very curious as pre-

senting a bad Latin translation, dictated, apparently, to a scribe who knew less Latin than the translator. In it occur the unheard-of and problematic Latin forms *frestigiatur*, *babbandam*, and *sorsus* as a translation of πλήρης. The Greek text, though inferior to the Athous manuscript of the British Museum, yet has its value in showing that the form of the eleventh fable and a suspected reading (βαλόντος) go back to the fourth century, and that an alphabetical arrangement of the fables dates back to the same period.

The miscellaneous documents supplement our information about the administration of Egypt, and also with regard to many technical and legal details. Though they furnish many coincidences of months in the Egyptian and Macedonian calendars, yet they do not afford sufficient data to settle the perplexing question of the Macedonian calendar and its relations to the Egyptian. They do, however, determine the date of certain Egyptian prætors, and incidentally extinguish one imaginary official (Dioscurus, A. D. 105). They show that the Government monopoly in oil, as practised by the Ptolemies, was much relaxed under the Roman period, though certain other administrative methods persisted even into the Byzantine period. They give frequent hints of conflicts between the Egyptians and the Greek settlers under the later Ptolemies; the Egyptians complain that they are overreached by the Greeks in the apportionment of certain lands, while the revolting Egyptians (B. C. 165) burn and destroy title-deeds, a proceeding aimed against the Greeks. Still, under the Ptolemies, the prevailing impression we receive is of a reign of law and of the tax-gatherer. It was the excess of these civilizing agencies rather than their deficiency that the inhabitants might complain of.

This is well shown by a detailed instance of the administrative processes, preserved with unusual completeness in Papyrus 31. The document dates from B. C. 112, in the reign of Soter II. Senpoëris, daughter of Onnophris, surreptitiously enclosed a piece of desert land (about 55 square metres) with a view to planting date-palms. An overseer of the revenue, while collecting taxes in the neighborhood, gets wind of this encroachment, visits the spot, probably applies torture (πειθανάγκη), and extracts a fine together with twice the ordinary taxes. This fine is paid over to a banker, and the transaction requires the signature of the overseer of the revenue and of the royal scribe, fortified by the certificates of two minor officials that the land measurements are correct. Senpoëris survives to pay two years later a Government tax of 10 per cent. on the purchase price of a house and land. The collection of revenue was naturally carried out with great rigor. Granaries were sealed by Government agents, and were not released (ἄφεσις) till they were assessed and the taxes paid—a procedure similar to that of the Turkish Government in the sixteenth century. Moreover, parties suspected of defrauding the revenue were expressly deprived of the assistance of advocates. Advocates who dared render assistance in such cases were themselves subjected to heavy penalties and disabilities by a decree of Philadelphus, cited in an interesting petition of certain landholders (No. 33), wherein they accuse a Komarch not only of peculation, but of the further misdemeanor of bringing advocates to plead for him in the royal court.

A notable feature of the present collection of documents—quite familiar, however, in Egyptian jurisprudence—is that in all business and legal transactions the women are rather more in evidence than the men. They make loans and purchases, inherit property, and execute contracts of every description with remarkable freedom and apparent equality before the law. The custom of intermarriage between brother and sister is strikingly illustrated in several of these fragments. A census return by a certain priest, Panephremmis, reports himself as forty years old and married to his full sister, aged seventeen. A petition by a certain Demetria in behalf of her son, claiming exemption from poll-tax for him on the ground that he is descended on both sides from a gymnasiarch, gives the family tree for five generations, which offers three successive instances, on the mother's side, of marriage between own brothers and sisters. The names, too, in this genealogy are all Greek, with a single exception. A family correspondence of the second century A. D., between Sarapion and his son, and a sister who was probably his wife, is occupied with questions of crops and laborers and clothing and money; the son, however, shows genuine anxiety about his father's health. But expressions of affection come high when papyrus costs three obols a sheet, and when, in a memorandum of expenses, we find the single item of papyrus set down for 80 drachmæ, against 100 drachmæ for travelling expenses. The Greek of these excerpts, corrupt and misspelled as they often are—in fact, by reason of their misspelling and corruption—constitutes in itself an interesting study, ranging as it does far into the Byzantine period. The fragments from the 'Shepherd' of Hermas, belonging to the sixth century A. D., add a little to the portions already discovered by Tischendorf and Professor Lambros; but the few lines of the lost ending are especially valuable because they coincide pretty closely with the Latin version, and furnish a clear proof of the forgery of Simonides.

It is superfluous to praise the work of the editors. Nothing has been omitted in the indexes and annotations to make the contents of the sumptuous book accessible and available.

Commonwealth or Empire. By Goldwin Smith. Macmillan Co. 1902.

No one can deny that Goldwin Smith is a true friend of this country; and his wounds are faithful. Up to the close of the last century, he tells us, the United States, if not the United States alone, represented the ideals of freedom. They were imperfectly realized, like all ideals, but they were recognized and respected. "The American Republic was the home of democracy and the hope of labor. It promised to do something more than the Old World towards correcting the injustice of nature, equalizing the human lot, and making the community a community indeed." Hence it was an object of alarm to the enemies of popular government, who hailed the secession of the Southern States with shouts of exultation. They hoped to see the end of a government founded on the principles set forth in the Declaration of Independence.

Shall their hopes now be realized? Against the commonwealth are now arrayed Plutocracy, Militarism, and Imperialism, three forces which instinctively conspire. The plutocrat is by constitution an Imperialist, and by necessity a believer in a standing army. We need not dwell on the present great power of aggregated wealth, for it is illustrated every day. Nor need we argue that its spirit is anti-democratic.

"Its ostentatious prodigality and luxury are a defiance of democratic sentiment and subversive of democratic manners. At heart it sighs for a court and aristocracy. It worships anything royal or aristocratic. It barters the hands of its daughters and its millions for European titles. It imitates, and even outvies, in some things, the gilding of European nobility. Its social centre is gradually shifting from America, where its inclinations are still in some measure controlled, to England, where it can get more homage and subserviency for its wealth, and take hold of the mantle of high society. . . . The political colors of American plutocracy were plainly shown on the occasion of the South African war. The drawing-rooms of New York at once declared themselves on the side of the drawing-rooms of London."

The relation of Militarism to humanity and to political liberty has been the same ever since the military power enslaved Rome. England owes her freedom to her immunity from standing armies. In this country we have had no standing army, for the armies of the civil war were citizen armies, and dissolved when peace came. Yet the army of the North gave birth to a great military interest, and its prodigious exactions in the shape of pensions show that our rulers do not dare to refuse its demands. Few of them dare even to criticise the conduct of the army in the Philippines; many of them go so far, in their anxiety to propitiate the military element, as to declare that our soldiers are justified in torturing the wretched people whom they are attacking, and that those who protest against cruelty are unpatriotic.

That this is a normal development of Imperialism is shown by the British rule in India. The Sepoys committed atrocities on the English at Cawnpore, and the English retorted with similar cruelties. The commandant at Cawnpore proposed impaling and burning alive as punishments. Lord Elgin said:

"It is a terrible business, however, this living among inferior races. I have seldom, from man or woman, since I came to the East, heard a sentence which was reconcilable with the hypothesis that Christianity had ever come into the world. Detestation, contempt, ferocity, vengeance, whether Chinamen or Indians be the object. . . . When the passions of fear and hatred are engrafted on this indifference, the result is frightful—an absolute callousness as to the sufferings of the objects of those passions, which must be witnessed to be understood and believed."

We need only read the current newspapers and the debates in Congress to recognize the spirit which Lord Elgin describes, and it is encouraged by the attitude of many of the clergy. We hear them dwell on the advantage of warfare, and an eminent English ecclesiastic even quotes approvingly the lines—

> "That God's most perfect instrument
> In working out a pure intent
> Is man arrayed for mutual slaughter:
> Yea, Carnage is His daughter."

Although this is a book of but eighty pages, it contains a whole arsenal of arguments against the abandonment of the prin-

ciples on which our Government was founded. Perhaps the argument as a whole is too condensed; it would be more effective with ordinary readers were it a good deal expanded. Professor Smith has history at his fingers' ends, so to speak, and he could fill in the framework here erected so as to make it a splendid and impressive treatise. As it is, his book should be read by all thoughtful citizens, as containing the views of a bystander who is not only friendly, but also competent beyond most other men to understand our situation.

The Story of Manhattan.—When Old New York Was Young. By Charles Hemstreet. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The clear, bold typography of these little volumes, and the clever illustrations enlivening them, correspond well with the simple style clothing the historic statements they contain, and the accuracy of their careful researches into the details of half-forgotten localities. The first book traces lightly the thread of the political history of Manhattan, touching upon the names of those English Governors who were the pensioned minions of royalty, and, so far as the age permitted, as wicked as any Roman proconsuls, and giving due praise to such Governors as the Dutch Stuyvesant and English Burnet, who labored honestly for the welfare of the province. Certain picturesque passages in the social life of earliest New York are dwelt upon, as the Leisler episode, the negro plot, and Kidd's piracy, without any discussion of the doubts that even at this day obscure their details. The reader is left to decide, aided by John Fiske's impartial comments, whether Kidd's crimes sought official accomplices, or Leisler suffered judicial murder.

The other volume concerns itself more with topography than with personalities, showing how the crooked byways and cowpaths of Old Amsterdam lengthened and widened and straightened themselves into the stately avenues now none too ample for the commerce and luxurious abodes of the island we live in. A neat diagram prefixed to each chapter conducts the reader through these changes.

Both these books do much to clear up a vagueness which for most people hangs over the steps in New York's growth, and both might deserve, from their solid information and clear precision, to serve as a basis for manuals for the use of schools in the subjects of which they treat.

The Brook Book: A First Acquaintance with the Brook and its Inhabitants through the Changing Year. By Mary Rogers Miller. Doubleday, Page & Co.

This is a series of pastoral idylls, which lack but a very little of being entirely charming. The author, who is "lecturer on nature study at Cornell University," is a true lover of woods and streams, and a trained and excellent observer of the different forms of life they nourish and maintain. No one at all apt in deciphering the half-hidden sights through which Nature reveals her secrets, or even such as may want to learn how to recognize them when seen, can fail to be impressed with the knowledge the author has of her subject, and her generally delightful and accurate way of imparting it. The varied aspects of the Brook, during the different months of the year, and of the woods and meadows in western New York through which it flows, furnish the frames which Miss Miller fills with vivid details of animal and vegetable life, full of interest even to those who knew most of them before, and of information about common things useful to every reader. The titles of the chapters give such imperfect hints of their contents that it will serve no purpose to mention more than one or two of them. Those on Dragon-flies and May-flies, relating the history of the various transformations and habits of these common insects, are so well done, and have so much other matter of interest which fits in naturally with the story, that they retain the attention of the reader through every line. There are other chapters which, in the style and power of appreciative description of natural life and scenery, recall strongly the tone of Dr. van Dyke in many of the best parts of his 'Little Rivers.'

One must not, however, in spite of the general and great excellences of the book, be blind to certain faults which mar parts of it. One of these is a tendency to "gush" that occasionally breaks forth: *e. g.*, on page 5, a really fine description of some strawberry plants in bloom concludes thus, "Their beauty fairly hurt." There are some rather tedious details of æsthetic impressions and purely personal experiences connected largely with dress, and many of the chapters contain matter they would be better without; these slight imperfections being the more apparent from the goodness of what attends them.

The illustrations are numerous, appropriate, and altogether delightful. They consist of engravings and half-tone reproductions of photographs. The latter are conspicuous for the beautiful natural scenes they portray and for their uniform and unusual excellence.

Meditations of an Autograph Collector. By Adrian H. Joline. Harper & Brothers. 1902.

Man is naturally a collecting animal. Some lower vertebrates, as the magpie, the raven, and the Australian bower-bird, have what to the superficial observer seems much the same habit; but there is an important difference: they accumulate, he collects. They gather useless things of many kinds; he as many as possible of one kind. Nothing so insignificant, nothing so hard to get, but may become the object of ardent pursuit: a queen, according to one author, collected a museum of button-holes, and a millionaire, according to another, made a collection of echoes. Collecting, if a weakness, is on all hands admitted to be an eminently respectable weakness; and if Europe would only look upon the Sultan as a collector, whose hobby is Circassian damsels, the Eastern question would pass into a milder phase.

As to the rationality of his hobby, the collector of autographs stands high. Earle's "Antiquary," who "would give all the Bookes in his Study for sixe lines of Tully in his owne hand," was not altogether an ass. No one can be insensible to the interest that attaches to the handwriting of an illustrious man; nor lives there among English-speaking men one with soul so dead that it would not thrill at the discovery of an autograph of Shakspere.

One does not need to be a collector to find pleasure and entertainment in the book whose title is given above. In it the amiable author lays his choicest treasures before us, and chats familiarly about them and the writers, about the joys and sorrows of autograph collectors, interspersing the whole with anecdotes. The volume is illustrated with facsimiles and portraits, and has for frontispiece a full-length of Lamb, "scratched on copper from life," in which full justice is done to the exiguity of his legs, and perhaps more than justice to the prominence of his nose. On p. 250 the author says that he cannot understand the question, "Who is to be Prince George of Denmark?"—in a letter of Lockhart's, written in 1837. Of course it means, Who is to be the husband of the young Queen Victoria?—who had just succeeded to the throne.

Histoire de la Littérature Juive, d'après G. Karpelès. Par Isaac Bloch et Émile Lévy. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1901.

The study of the literature of the Jews in its place among the other literatures of the world is fairly with us. When comparative literature arose, this particular aspect could not fail to assert itself, and so for the last fifty years there has been a vague recognition that many of the most puzzling problems of European letters and folklore might be helped far on their way by taking the Jews into account. But while phrases like "Jewish influence," "the Jews as transmitters," etc., have had in historical strife the blessedness of Mesopotamia, they have also had, for all but a very elect circle, its emptiness of meaning. Jewish literature has been treated hitherto either on a scale and in ways which made it intelligible to the Semitic specialist only, or in sketches which had no value save Mesopotamian and provocatory.

The present book strikes a more happy *via media*. It is of some extent—624 pages of text and 60 of indices; but it is also readable and self-explanatory. It has the French lightness of touch which can conceal a *Gründlichkeit* deep as that of any German. Its plan and breadth of sweep also are of the broadest. It takes within its arms all Jewish literature, regardless of language or country, form or substance, and traces the different periods of florescence from Old Testament times to the present day. The periods, indeed, are different and many. If the Jews have not produced many writers of the highest genius, they have shown in letters, as in everything else, an inexplicable power of recuperation and a persistent reassertion of their national genius. The story of it all is given here with considerable wealth of detail, and it will probably be a revelation to most. The book of Karpelès which this is *après*, has been treated very freely, abridged, recast, supplemented, and rearranged. The divisions into sections and chapters, on which in such a work so much depends, are happy and clear. The periods and intervals stand out. Regrettable is the strangely archaic tone in treating the Old Testament scriptures. A word is thrown in for the unity of the Pentateuch, the Solomonic authorship of the "Song of Songs" and "Ecclesiastes," and for the historicity

of the Great Synagogue. Nor is the literary perception at this point always certain. The "Book of Proverbs" and "Ecclesiastes" can hardly be reckoned as poetry, even didactic poetry—if such a thing there be. In treating the later literature, the eyes of the writers are not so closely holden. Regrettable, too, is the lack of references, with clues to further information. Even the specialist will find here and there in these pages notices the source and basis of which he would gladly know. But the book in general is excellent, and the indices especially cannot be too highly praised.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Fool's Errand, by One of the Fools. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Altsheler, J. A. My Captive. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25
Balch, E. S. Antarctica. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
Cox, Mrs. J. F. Home Thoughts (Second Series). A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
Davidson, Marie A. The Two Renwicks. F. Tennyson Neely.
Foster-Melliar, A. The Book of the Rose. New ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Headlam, Cecil. Peter Vischer. (Handbooks of the Great Craftsmen.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Josselyn, Charles. The True Napoleon. R. H. Russell.
Lyall, Edna. The Hinderers. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Marsh, G. C. A Singular Will. F. Tennyson Neely.
Rives, Hallie E. Hearts Courageous. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Shaw, E. R. School Hygiene. (Georgia Edition.) Macmillan. $1.
Tarver, J. C. Tiberius the Tyrant. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
Vielé, H. K. Myra of the Pines. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Williams, Margery. The Late Returning. Macmillan. $1.25.

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IMPORTANT ANNOUNCEMENT

TO BE PUBLISHED THIS FALL

History of the Expedition of Captains Lewis and Clark

1804-5-6

NOTWITHSTANDING that in America few names are more familiar upon the tongue than Lewis and Clark, it is a singular fact that at the present moment a full and adequate account of what they did is almost unattainable. The complete journals of the explorers are still in manuscript. The published work of 1814, abridged and adapted from the journals by the accomplished Nicholas Biddle (though the name of another appears on the title-page as editor), has long been out of print. The fragmentary accounts that preceded the Biddle edition have become very rare, as also the various foreign presentments, English, Dutch, German, and French. The noble reprint of the Biddle edition which appeared in 1893, prefaced, annotated, and supplemented in every needful way by Dr. Elliott Coues, a work of great bulk and cost, has quite disappeared from the market. At the present moment whoever desires to own the story of Lewis and Clark must content himself with abridged compendia or unsatisfactory reprints, or pay high for copies, usually tattered and mildewed, in auction rooms and the stores of dealers in old books.

The lack thus existing, felt now more and more as the centenary of the great exploration draws near, Messrs. A. C. McClurg & Co. propose to make good. In the early Fall of 1902, there will appear over their imprint a beautifully printed edition of the Travels in handy form, at a popular price, which will be planned to fill all the requirements of libraries and private buyers, and thus become the standard edition of this great American classic. The text will be that of the Biddle edition, which must hold its place as the only account approaching adequacy.

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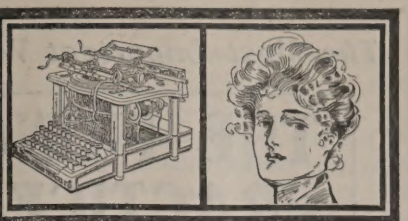

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 12, 1902.

The Week.

In substituting its own bill for the Senate measure for protecting the President and punishing anarchists, the House has been well advised. The terms of the Senate bill are less carefully guarded, from a legal point of view, than those of the House; and the proposal to make even an attempt upon the life of the President punishable with death is one to which American penal laws will probably not long, if ever, give place. As a deterrent it would be, from the nature of the case, valueless. So would be the provisions against the immigration and naturalization of anarchists, which are contained, to nearly the same effect, in both bills. The Senate bill, however, takes the palm for absurdity in the clause providing a bodyguard for the President, consisting of a detail from the regular army. This would be exceedingly distasteful to any conceivable President; most of all, one would say, to Mr. Roosevelt. Certainly, it would take an active and well-mounted bodyguard to attend him. "They'll have fleet steeds that follow," he would say, Lochinvar-like, as he set off for his daily cross-country. The House very properly refused to agree to anything like a Swiss Guard at the White House.

The conclusion of the debate on the Philippine bill in the Senate was darkened by a tale of torture quite as horrible as the acts of Major Waller and the orders of "Hell-Roaring Jake." Just before the vote was to be taken on the bill, Senator Culberson said that he had been trying to secure the passage of a resolution calling for copies of charges preferred by Private Andrew K. Weir of the Fourth Cavalry against Lieut. Arnold and Sergeant Edwards of that regiment, but that action on the resolution had been deferred from day to day, at the instance of Senators Spooner and Lodge, who desired to know first whether a court-martial had been ordered in the case. Mr. Culberson had got tired waiting for other Senators to satisfy their private curiosity, and accordingly had procured for himself a copy of the charges of Private Weir, and also a copy of a report made thereon by Capt. P. W. West of the Fifth Cavalry as Inspector-General of the Department of Northern Luzon. These papers he sent to the Secretary's desk to be read. Before they were read Senator Lodge desired to know how they came into Senator Culberson's possession, but was not enlightened.

Capt. West's report was dated August 27, 1901. The question naturally arises, Where has this report been kept during the past ten months? After the reading had been concluded, Senator Beveridge desired to know where Senator Culberson had obtained it. The latter declined to gratify his curiosity. Then Mr. Beveridge asked the frank question whether these two papers had been obtained, either directly or indirectly, from Gen. Miles. As Senator Culberson made no answer, Beveridge added, "That is all," conveying the idea that the culprit had been discovered at last. And it seems to be the prevailing notion in high quarters that the first thing to be done is to punish the Commanding General of the Army if it shall be found that he divulged these shocking facts. The men who practised these horrible atrocities may or may not be punished; the man or men who concealed the facts will certainly not be punished; but if it can be shown that Gen. Miles either gave out or connived at giving out this damning report, then we may see discipline exercised upon him at all events.

The charges of Private Weir were embraced in a letter dated April 10, 1901, and addressed to the writer's uncle (name not given). It began by saying that the writer thought that the army had been sent to the Philippines to represent law and civilization, and he wanted to know whether the Constitution of the United States and international law did not prohibit torture. He said that he had been an unwilling witness to torture inflicted by an officer on captured insurgents, and that he told this officer that, if he did not stop it, he should report him to higher authority; that the officer replied that he would stop it, for which reason he (Weir) did not report the facts that he had witnessed. But he had learned that the officer had not kept his promise, but "was doing the same or even worse every day." He then proceeded to tell what he had witnessed. A prisoner was captured, from whom the officer (Lieut. Arnold) desired to obtain information. So he told Sergeant Edwards to take the man and get what information he could out of him. Edwards took the man and asked him what he knew. The man replied that he had no information to give. So Edwards caused him to be stripped naked, and laid on his back. Then the "water cure" was administered to him, and while he was undergoing this, he was whipped and beaten unmercifully. He was then stood up and "asked to confess." As he did not do so, he was beaten and clubbed again, and strung up by the thumbs, and, while so held up, was beaten again. As this treatment was ineffective, the man was strung up by the neck. At this point, Private Weir went to Lieut. Arnold and told him what Edwards was doing, and remonstrated against such practices. Arnold became very angry, and threatened him with court-martial for insubordination. He said: "When I give a man to Sergeant Edwards, I want information; I do not know how he gets it, but he gets it any way." He said that "these people," meaning the Filipinos, "should not be treated as human beings." Mr. Weir told of other cases of torture inflicted by Arnold, even worse than the one here described, but these other cases had not been personally witnessed by Weir. The charges against Arnold were inquired into by Capt. West, whose report concluded with the words: "I believe that a thorough investigation into this matter will substantiate the charges made by Private Weir."

The growth of Imperialist opinion on the water cure is practically complete with the testimony of Major Glenn before the court-martial which is trying him on charges of cruelty to the natives. Major Glenn declares that the notorious "water cure," to which he had submitted himself for experimental purposes, is by no means painful, and only slightly uncomfortable. The criticism that it has received is therefore unwarranted. Thus is a torture described in the old histories of the Inquisition reduced to a humane expedient for getting information. To this complexion are its apologists come. There was a time, not a year ago, when the fact that a native torture was being employed by Americans in the Philippines was indignantly denied. Next, in the face of overwhelming evidence, it was admitted that sporadic instances of torture had occurred under circumstances of extreme provocation. So far no one doubted that to undergo this "cure" was an awful experience, and it was only the other day, though the correspondent of a society paper had given some hint of this view, that the innocuous and possibly beneficent effect of having some gallons of water poured into one was fully set forth by Major Glenn. Thus a fact once denied, then grudgingly admitted, is at last explained away. But is it, until we know first how far Major Glenn is correctly reported, and next how crucial was his experiment of the cure? The German spas recognize cures and half-cures. Did Major Glenn's physician hold his pulse so that the water might be administered until the heart was on the point of stopping from the pressure of the distended stomach? Did Major Glenn try dirty water, which in one of the recent trials was recommended as efficacious where clean water had

failed? These are some of the things one would wish to know before adopting the water cure as a harmless and hygienic recreation. One must hope that Major Glenn has been misreported, for the army at least should be free from the cant of the "benevolent assimilators."

We are in receipt of a pathetic appeal from brothers of the press in Manila. The editors and proprietors of the Manila *Freedom*—so named, we believe, from its policy of making free with all the good things in the Philippines—inform us that they have been arrested by the Philippine Commission for "scurrilous libel and sedition," and that "the liberty of the press in these islands" is endangered. It seems that *Freedom* accused the Commissioners of various rather vague offences, such as appointing Filipino rascals to office instead of Americans down on their luck, of having "press agents" to place Government "advertising patronage" where it would do the most good—not in *Freedom*, we'll be bound—and, in general, undertaking "too much work." Simply for this the arrests followed, and the alarmed editors ask the press of the United States to come to their rescue. For our part, we must decline. These newspaper gentlemen are merely getting a useful experience of what military government is. They were perfectly willing and even anxious to have its severities fall upon 10,000,000 natives, and now they are offered a taste of it themselves. In this we see rather a case of poetic justice than of outrage, and as for "liberty" in the Philippines, it remains just where it was—namely, in the hand of the General commanding.

Before our benevolent assimilators leave off rejoicing over the strength of "Expansionist sentiment" on the Pacific Coast, they should note the language in which that sentiment is locally expressed. The Portland *Oregonian*, for example, frankly said on the eve of the election that the "policy of National Expansion" was simply one of "business sense," with an eye to the "great gain" which was to be had from the "exploitation of the lands of the Pacific." But this is nothing compared with the San Francisco *Argonaut*. That truly Imperialistic newspaper feels that "the talk about benevolent assimilation is insufferable cant," and lays down the true doctrine of Expansion as follows:

> "We do not want the Filipinos. We want the Philippines. The islands are enormously rich. But, unfortunately, they are *infested by Filipinos*. There are many millions of them there, and *it is to be feared that their extinction will be slow*. . . . The development of the islands cannot be successfully done while the Filipinos are there. *Therefore the more of them killed the better.*"

We like such frankness, and could wish there were more of it. The *Argonaut* is to be commended for "stripping," as it says, "all hypocritical verbiage from national declarations." It is aware that "certain excellent gentlemen now in Congress" would repudiate its sentiments as "brutal." But its retort is unanswerable: "*We are only saying what they are doing.*"

Custom requires that the Democratic State Convention held midway in a Presidential term shall "reaffirm" the National platform upon which the party had made its campaign two years before. Thus, the Indiana Convention of 1898 declared that "we reaffirm and emphasize the platform adopted by the National Democratic Convention of 1896 at Chicago," and also that "we express our undiminished confidence in William Jennings Bryan, our peerless leader in the National campaign of 1896." The Bryanites at Indianapolis last week therefore had on their side the argument that to "reaffirm" the Kansas City platform of 1900 would be the natural thing, and that a refusal to do so would be interpreted as a rebuke to Bryan. The opponents of Bryan accepted this issue and carried the day, forcing the adoption of a set of resolutions which contain no reference whatever to either the platform or the candidate of the last National Convention. In other words, the party wipes the slate clean and takes a fresh start. The platform adopted is noteworthy for the ingenious device by which the old silver issue is discarded. The Convention at the corresponding time in 1898 declared that "we are in favor of the free and unlimited coinage of both gold and silver at the existing ratio of 16 to 1, without the aid or consent of any other nation." This year's platform "recognizes as an economic fact the increase of standard money, arising from the vastly increased production of gold from our own and foreign mines, as a demonstration of the truth of the quantitative theory of money," and says not a word about silver.

The plank on the tariff issue is brief, but it packs the whole logic of the situation in this compact statement: "We denounce the Dingley Tariff Law as the breeder of Trusts, and demand that tariff duties shall be levied for the purpose of revenue only, and limited by the needs of the Government, honestly and economically administered." Clear and definite also is the declaration of principles regarding the Philippines. After condemning the policy of the Republican Administration as having "embroiled the republic in an unnecessary war, sacrified the lives of many of its noblest sons, and placed the United States, previously known and applauded throughout the world as the champion of freedom, in the false and unAmerican position of crushing with military force the efforts of our former allies to achieve liberty and self-government," the resolution on this subject proceeds:

> "The Filipinos cannot be citizens without endangering our civilization; they cannot be subjects without imperilling our form of government; and, as we are not willing to surrender our civilization to convert the republic into an empire, we favor an immediate declaration of the nation's purpose to assist the Filipinos to establish for themselves an independent government, protecting them from outside interference, and securing to this country such commercial and naval rights and advantages as would be just and fully and fairly protect American interests."

Texas has been a stronghold of Bryanism and silverism, and it is therefore significant that the Democratic Congressional convention in the Fifth District of that State was as silent about both as the Democratic convention in Indiana. It seems to have been a representative body, and its platform lays chief stress upon the question of the tariff and Imperialism. "We denounce the Dingley Tariff Law as the breeder of Trusts," it says, "and demand that tariff duties shall be levied for the purposes of revenue only, and limited to the needs of the Government honestly and economically administered." The Philippine policy of the present Administration is denounced, and what is favored in its stead is set forth in the identical phraseology of the Indiana platform above quoted. Finally, these Texas Democrats declare that "we believe that the question of Imperialism and the Trust-breeding tariff should be the paramount issues in the next national campaign."

There is no place where small favors are more gratefully received than at the New York Custom-house, and Secretary Shaw has deserved well of everybody by facilitating the delivery of express parcels and liberalizing the system of making individual payments at the customs. The plan is a very simple one. The express companies keep at the Sub-Treasury a daily deposit large enough to cover all possible duties on the consignments of that day. The Collector simply draws upon this deposit the amount of the duty as soon as it has been properly assessed. The express companies may also act as agents for individuals. Thus it is possible for an incoming tourist to turn over his baggage to an express company immediately after the examination. This saves considerable delay at a time when delay is particularly vexatious, and will undoubtedly be a more satisfactory arrangement than can be made with a Custom-house broker. The saving of time on express packages is expected to be eight or ten days. Secretary Shaw again deserves credit for removing obstacles to traffic which have grown up in the customs service, and especially

for doing everything in his power to make the first landing of a guest or the return of a native something less than a punishment for foreign birth or absenteeism.

For the first time in its century and a half of existence, Princeton chooses a layman for its President. This marks the final step in that secularization of the American college of which Prof. A. B. Hart writes in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June: "Whatever might be thought on that subject by the President of Bowdoin, or Dartmouth, or Amherst, or Wesleyan, or Chicago, there is no doubt that the layman is now preferred for such appointments; nor that the dominie has ceased to be the typical teacher and guide of academic youth. . . . The community of college graduates, and their associates throughout the country, seem convinced that the educational side of a university is best cared for by the trained educator." Every word of that description might be applied to the President-elect of Princeton University, and it might be added that, besides the catholic sympathies and knowledge of affairs which are implied in the title "educator," he bears a high reputation as a brilliant investigator of problems of politics and government, and holds an honorable position in American letters as a judicious essayist. It is very rarely the case that the candidate for a university presidency can show so complete and convincing a register of qualifications, and it was this obvious fitness of Dr. Woodrow Wilson which made it possible for an old president to step out and for a new one to be appointed the same day—a case unparalleled in recent times—without so much as causing a proper feeling of surprise. President Patton's resignation was also of an unusual kind. Leaving in the full vigor of middle life, with health and popularity unimpaired, he resigns a charge which he has administered with indubitable success, because he feels the call of his old studies, and because he realizes that a man of different training may more advantageously utilize the prosperity which he has done so much to procure.

Manitoba and the Canadian Northwest are repeating with great rapidity the history of the winning of our West. The problem of absorbing the Galicians, Russians, and other refractory races is specifically Canadian, but the remarkable influx of American settlers in these regions must affect both Canada and ourselves. As yet we have no accurate statistics of this agrarian invasion, but some idea of its significance may be gained from the following figures. In the years 1899-1901 the total immigration from America to Canada was, respectively, 11,945, 15,500, and 17,987. By June 1 of the present year the Great Northern Railroad alone had carried 25,000 immigrants into Manitoba. While some of these were taken directly from the incoming steamers, many were either American-born or thoroughly Americanized. This cannot continue without producing its effect upon the relations of the two countries. The United States cannot wholly repudiate her children who have taken up Canadian farms and accepted Canadian citizenship. A constant social interchange and common agricultural interests in the Northwest will more and more reduce the boundary to its definition as an "imaginary line." The palpable "Chinese wall" now absurdly maintained between Canada and this country will never seem quite so absurd as it does where it prevents John Smith of North Dakota from selling surplus produce to or buying it from John Smith, jr., of Manitoba.

The reported combination of several British steamship companies, including the Cunard, Allan, Castle, and Elder-Dempster Lines, has the similitude of truth. The law of self-preservation requires the companies not included in the Morgan combination to take common action, since it would be possible for the combination to coerce them one by one, as it did perhaps coerce the German lines. Naturally, the outside concerns think that they must hang together, unless they would hang separately. The question of most importance to them is whether they can secure railway connections on this side of the water to offset a possible combination of the East and West trunk lines in the United States with the steamship consolidation. If the shipping syndicate should be able to offer a preferential rate from the Western grain fields to English ports which the other steamships could not match, the latter would be at the mercy of the former. Hence we are not surprised to hear that the Cunard Company and its allies are looking to the Canadian Pacific Railway as a resource in the event of an adverse railway combination. The Canadian Pacific could tap the wheat-fields of the Red River valley, and even if it did not itself carry much wheat to the seaboard, it could put a strong curb on the competing American lines. There is talk also of a British Government subsidy to the opposition line; but such a thing is most unlikely. The two combinations, if there are two, must work out their problems for the present without Government interference. Meanwhile a new factor will appear upon the scene before long. The private shipping that has been employed in connection with the Boer war, estimated at two million tons, will presently be released, and will be looking for freights elsewhere. It will find employment partly in the North Atlantic, and its influence in the coming struggle will be not inconsiderable.

The new British Ambassador, the Hon. Michael Herbert, is comparatively unknown beyond the British Foreign Office. So was Lord Pauncefote at the time of his appointment to Washington. One may assume that, like his predecessor, the new Ambassador will be a working, not a talking diplomat, seeking to win confidence rather than the reputation for brilliancy. His training is of the most thoroughgoing, and he comes with the prestige of long service in the most highly organized diplomatic corps of our day. This training produces men of the office rather than men of the platform. In fact, no other diplomatic service than our own could permit itself such a succession of salient personalities as the American representatives at the Court of St. James. Lowell, Phelps, Bayard, Hay, and Choate were free to do an amount of speechmaking that would have infallibly terminated the career of a European diplomat. We believe—where our selections have been carefully made, as for England—it has been a fortunate dispensation that has given us not diplomats, but engaging excursionists in diplomacy; since the expansiveness that our Ministers at London now are required to maintain has generally brought them a sound personal popularity which has been more valuable than the treaties they have negotiated.

The difficulties attending the abolition of sugar bounties in Germany have culminated in a project to make the sugar industry a Government monopoly. There are other state monopolies in the Old World. Tobacco and friction matches, for example, are monopolies in France, and Bismarck tried in vain to create a tobacco monopoly in Germany. These, however, are monopolies for public revenue. They are not assumed by the Government to enable individuals to dispose of a losing business. Such would seem to be the aim of the proposed Government sugar monopoly. The export bounty on German sugar is of two kinds. It consists, in part, of the excess of rebate paid by the Treasury over the internal tax collected on the beet roots, and in part of the cartel, which enables the sugar manufacturers to charge higher prices to buyers for domestic consumption than to exporters. This is made possible by the tariff on sugar of foreign production. The abolition of all bounties on exports has been decreed by the Brussels Convention, to take effect in the autumn of 1903. What to do with the property nursed into life by this hot-house treatment is a puzzle on all hands. Apparently, the owners have conceived the plan of unloading it upon the taxpayers, and very likely they will succeed.

OVERLOADING THE PRESIDENT.

The ill-advised attempt to induce President Roosevelt to intervene in the coal strike was but the latest of many recent symptoms of an unhappy political tendency: we mean the resort to the President in every time of trouble. Whether the difficulty be industrial or political, regional or national, small or great, we run with it to the White House in childlike confidence, or else in weak dependence. We are coming to think of the Chief Executive as if he combined in himself the attributes of an Oriental King and a mediæval monarch—as if he were a Solomon to decide all our controversies, and a Louis to decree righteous judgment from a "bed of justice."

Congress inclines more and more to call upon the President to cut its Gordian knots for it. Is it a question of wisely choosing the route for an Isthmian canal? Senator Hoar introduces a bill to leave the matter wholly to the President. Do legislators find it a hard task to draw a bill for reciprocity with Cuba in such a way as to cut off the Sugar Trust from all benefit? Senator Spooner would refer it to the President. Let *him* execute a law which it passes the wit of the Senate to frame. Or is the rebate plan to be adopted, and is the objection made that the money voted might not go to deserving Cubans? Put it all in the President's hands, urges Senator Burrows; *he* will see to it that our dole reaches only the right persons. Allah is great, and the President is his prophet!

We consider this increasing willingness limply to lean upon the President as most mistaken and perverse. It is bad for him, and bad for us. It injures his office, while changing it and impairing its true efficiency; and, on the other hand, it cuts the nerve of self-help and initiative among the people, and enables Congress to dodge and shift where it should debate and decide. The Presidency is already overburdened. If the strain of responsibilty which it imposes was so great in Jefferson's day that he cried out at the "splendid misery" of his office, what would he say to the daily besetment and besieging of our later dwellers in the White House? In mercy to our chosen chief we should spare him these added cares. Besides the danger of breaking him down physically, we expose him to the more serious danger of a day so devastated by intruders and a night so spent in consultations that he has no time to think, no leisure to clarify his mind, and form his convictions, in the larger matters of national policy to which his best strength ought to be given. Burke warned us that "they who always labor can have no true judgment"; and our growing habit of invading the White House on every occasion and with all possible forms of business, tends directly to degrade our Presidents to the level of his men who "exhaust their attention, burn out their candles, and are left in the dark."

What alarm this magnifying of the President would have struck to the hearts of the framers of our Constitution, need not be said. They lived in the remembrance and shadow of the time when the people's representatives resolved that "the influence of the Crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." To them, our present-day adulation of the President, and turning over to him of power after power of the state, would have seemed the entering upon a path at the end of which is the figure of a "man on horseback." Frankly, we do not now fear that traditional shape of dread. What we are afraid of is, not a man on horseback, but a man in his private office dictated to by politicians. They, of course, are really aiming to add to their own power, under pretence of exalting the President's. When they induce Congress to "leave it all to the President," they expect, in their secret hearts, that he will, in turn, leave it all to them. Not tyranny, but corruption, is our most threatening foe; and there is no instrument of corruption like a President wielding the vast and abdicated powers of Congress in a way to suit the schemes of party bosses. The practice got a great impetus under Mr. McKinley. That it has been continued with his successor, shows that the party managers have as yet found no reason to be dissatisfied with their plan of usurping power by ostensibly giving it to another.

By this repeated reference of controverted matters to the President, Congress advertises its own humiliation, and writes itself down as either too lazy or too stupid to do its proper work. What are legislators there for but to legislate? It is the President's business simply to execute the laws which they enact. Is it pretended that he is a fountain of supernatural and unfailing wisdom? Would he, for example, in the choice of a canal route, have a particle of information or expert advice not freely at the service of Congress? Everybody knows that he would not. What he would do, if Congress were to put the responsibility upon him, would simply be to turn to those skilled investigators whose report is before both houses. But if that is the right thing for him to do, why do they not do it? Will they confess themselves either shirks or incompetents? Their proposed action speaks ominously of a deepening disinclination for the serious work of legislation, for that forging of laws in the heat of debate and under the hammer of argument, which has been the glorious tradition of Parliament and Congress. Are we grown so weary of the burdens of liberty that we must make haste to shift them to other shoulders?

Nor can we omit to mention the partisan aspect of the matter. To call upon the President as the *deus ex machina* is, just now, a pretty obvious scheme of the Republican leaders in Congress to get their party out of a scrape. It is torn to pieces over Cuba. It is discordant about the Isthmian Canal. So the managers blandly propose to the Democrats to pass along both questions to the Great Father in the White House. But the Democrats ought to fight the plan, tooth and nail. As it stands, it is a partisan manœuvre. It is designed to free the Republican party from an irksome responsibility, and, at the same time, to give it, through a back-door use of the Presidency, the prestige and advantage which it is not able to win by intelligent legislation in Congress. Let the thing be squarely stated. If the Republican party is not able to make the laws which it has promised and undertaken to pass, and for enacting which it has an ample majority in both houses of Congress, let the disgraceful confession be openly made. To hide behind President Roosevelt's coat-tails the party should be ashamed to attempt, and its opponents should die in their tracks before allowing it.

THE HOUSE PHILIPPINE BILL.

The most important action to be taken by Congress during the remainder of the session will be the disposition of the measures for the civil government of the Philippine Islands. The chief point of difference between the House and Senate bills is that the former provides for an actual beginning of Philippine self-government, while the latter merely continues the present régime of conquest and subjugation. A notable impulse was given on Saturday last to the measure proposed by the House by the publication of a dispatch from Acting Governor Wright, saying that the archipelago is now pacified, and that no reasons exist why civil government should not be established in all the provinces except the Moro country. By the phrase civil government he meant municipal as distinguished from military government in the provinces; but if pacification has been secured, the same reasons which point to withdrawal of military rule are potent for the beginning of representative government on a larger scale. The Senate bill provides for nothing but the taking of a census, and the extension of local municipal government "so far and so fast as communities in such civil divisions are capable, fit, and ready for the same."

The authority of Gov. Taft has been given distinctly in favor of the House bill. In an article written by him and published in the *Outlook* of May 31 he says:

"We of the Commission are very earnest and sincere in our hope that at least the provision for the election of the legislative assembly and of the two delegates con-

tained in the House bill shall be embodied in legislation. We think that the Filipino people would accept this provision as the most indubitable evidence of the desire of the United States that self-government should be given to the people in as large a measure as they are capable of carrying it on."

At the time of writing this article Gov. Taft was aware that certain members of the Senate Committee believed that the organization of a legislative assembly in the Philippines was too radical a step. They believed that men would be chosen as members who would make seditious speeches and stir up fresh strife. Gov. Taft considered this danger wholly imaginary. Even if the Assembly should select Aguinaldo or Mabini or some other insurgent leader to represent it in Washington, he would not consider such action dangerous or undesirable. A representative assembly would give scope for the political aspirations of the people, and would be a great educational school for the better class of Filipinos. Mr. Taft, while differing from President Schurman as to the time when full freedom should be given to the Christian people of the islands, agrees with the latter that the growth of free institutions can be promoted only through their exercise by the people whose destinies we have taken charge of. In short, the two highest authorities we have to guide us in the premises—the first and the second Philippine Commissions—concur in favoring the House bill.

A more important reason for supporting the House bill is the fact that it is in harmony with American principles, or, at all events, not in conflict with them, as the Senate bill certainly is. The latter measure is the same kind of an *impasse* that we have been toiling in from the beginning. It leaves everything undecided. It does not even point the way to anything better than the existing condition. It does not even contain the element of hope. It is a bad education for both Filipinos and Americans. Every day that the present arbitrary government lasts is a bad omen for both sides of the Pacific Ocean. It teaches the lessons of despotism to both the rulers and the ruled, and no one can say to which of the two the injury is the greater. The House bill has the inestimable advantage that it turns our faces once more towards the sun of liberty. This change ought to be most welcome to the Republican party at the present time, when it is about to enter into a campaign rendered doubtful by the exposure of shocking cruelties practised upon a distant people in order to overcome their desire for liberty and independence.

In comparison with the actual beginning of representative government, which the House bill provides for, all other matters are relatively insignificant. Even the proposed establishment of the silver standard in the monetary system of the islands is a secondary consideration. Yet all signs point to a stubborn fight on this question also, and we hope that the House will adhere to its rational plan of assimilating the currency of the islands to that of the United States.

"EDITORIALENE."

This is the name for the editorial writing of commercialized newspapers which is suggested in the striking article in the June *Atlantic Monthly* on "The Newspaper Industry." The writer, who signs himself "Brooke Fisher," is evidently a man who knows at first hand the thing he describes. After tracing the way in which the tyranny of the counting-room has, in too many instances, smothered editorial utterance, he hastens to add:

"Of course there will be the usual quantum of matter that looks like editorials, but on examination it is found to be what might well be patented under the name of editorialene. Editorialene shrewdly selects men of straw to trample upon. It enunciates axiomatic platitudes with a ponderous affectation of wisdom. It 'socks it to the satraps' of a safe distance in the past and a safe geographical remoteness. It also twitters sprightly commonplaces about minor moralities. But you will seek it in vain for direct, courageous, helpful dealing with the burning questions, the political and social and local issues really engrossing the best minds of the community."

We are all painfully familiar with this product of the "business-run press." "Yes," said a college professor, "the editorials of the New York ——— are favorites of mine, since they furnish just what I need—complete mental rest." A witty literary man was asked recently if he was reading the editorial page of another New York paper, setting up to be a model. He said he was not. He had tried to, but found it only a simulacrum of real writing; "and yet," he added thoughtfully, "it has every appearance of being a newspaper, too." It was all "editorialene." We will not multiply illustrations. Anybody in search of them could find an endless store in the treatment of the revelations of the Waller court-martial by the great organs of the American press. First silence, then deprecation, then calling for a suspension of judgment, then terrific arraignment of unnamed "slanderers," then noble tributes to our glorious army—their whole course could have been accurately forecasted by any one familiar with their editorial pages. This power to predict exactly what certain editors will say on given subjects is one of the proofs that their speech is not free. As the *Atlantic* writer says, their writing is of the perfunctory type which any one may foresee, and which a moderately skilled pen could duplicate in advance.

Now this tendency to commercialize the press, which Mr. Fisher depicts in rather sombre colors, is one which has obviously been operative for a long time. Like the parallel commercialization of education and of religion, of which we hear so much, it is largely an incident of our passing from the day of small things to the time of large undertakings. The capital required by a modern daily newspaper is too great to be furnished by one man. Editor and proprietor can no longer, except in rare instances, be united in one personality. A corporation necessarily has control; and, whether it has a soul of its own or not, it is certainly not so anxious to save the souls of others as the editors of an elder day used to be. As primarily a business corporation, its first concern is naturally dividends. Hence has come about inevitably that paralysis of the editorial function, as compared with the money-making function, which the *Atlantic* article describes. It is, in many ways, deplorable, yet it was not wholly preventable.

Is there now any remedy? Is the outlook so dark as Mr. Brooke Fisher represents it? We may put aside at once his preposterous suggestion that the weekly paper will rise in importance as the daily declines in vigor and independence. There is no evidence that the average weekly is any less under orders from the counting-room than is the average daily. In any case, the people will demand the news twice a day, and this puts the weekly hopelessly out of the running as a competitor. With the news in their hands, readers will not wait a week to get an editorial opinion on it. Nor can we expect the owners of newspapers to turn philanthropists, as a class, and pocket losses in order to propagate ideas. Exceptional proprietors have done this, but the newspaper business, as a whole, has to be conducted on business principles; and unless they will justify, in the long run, a fearless and unfettered editorial page, we shall not see it restored.

But it may be hopefully contended that independent and honest editorial writing is more and more coming to seem a good investment for a newspaper. We believe that the counting-room has been far too timid and short-sighted. Colorless newspapers are not good property. In the anxious effort to offend nobody, they disgust everybody. To suppose that the public likes blind flattery and time-serving is to underrate the general intelligence. Happily, there are multiplying instances of newspapers that are highly successful, though entirely independent, and ready at any time to speak their minds freely in the face of party or local prejudice. Their owners have made the fortunate discovery that there is money in courage and ability. It is in the spread of education and of tolerance, and in the power of honest and earnest writing to command respect and appreciation, if not approval, that we see the hope of a press unbribed and unafraid. People will not, in the end, be imposed upon by "editorialene," any more than by repeated newspaper

"fakes." Abraham Hayward heard a cabman under his windows in 1870 rebuke a newsboy for foisting upon him a fraudulent *Echo:* "If you goes on selling me battles as haven't been fought, I'm d—d if I don't kick you." When newspaper-owners are given to understand that such will be the indignant attitude of the public towards insincere or flabby writing on the editorial page, as well as towards invented news in the other columns, they will encourage more than they do now the free expression of well-considered views, and will agree with Thomas Arnold that the times will bear whatever an honest man has to say.

OUR SUPERIORITY IN MANUFACTURING.

A man of large affairs and clear mind, like Mr. James J. Hill, cannot make a public address, as he did before the Illinois Manufacturers' Association at Chicago last week, without uttering a suggestive word. The most instructive thing he said seems to us his quiet but sure pointing to the true reason for American superiority in manufactures. This can be traced, he affirmed, to our "enormous natural resources." It is not the protective tariff which brought about the tremendous growth of our iron and steel industries, but, primarily, the vast deposits of iron ore in Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and elsewhere. This is in line with what Mr. Carnegie said in London the other day. America must be reckoned with, he told the Englishmen, because she can produce "the cheapest steel." And the reason we can produce it is, in the last analysis, simply that nature has given us the largest and cheapest stores of iron and coal to be found anywhere in the world.

It is well to remind ourselves of this truth, both for reproof and instruction. We hear too much idle boasting on this subject, too many mistaken explanations of our superiority. It is often said, for example, that American machinery is what insures our triumph. But American machinery rapidly finds its way to all countries. It is speedily put at the service of our commercial rivals. There is no export tax on American inventiveness. Indeed, our makers of machinery are among our chief exporters. The dispatches have recently told of the formation of a Pneumatic Tool Company in London, backed by American capital, to introduce the American pneumatic riveter and other labor-saving devices of the kind into British and Continental ship-yards and shops. This process is going on all the time. Mr. Vanderlip has told us of finding the very latest Yankee contrivances in the hands of German workmen. In the nature of the case, it must be so. We are but repaying an old debt. Improved machinery for our cotton-spinning we borrowed from England; now she comes to us to buy or copy the best she can find in our factories. It is clear, therefore, that it is not upon our superiority in labor-saving machines that we can depend for beating the foreigner. We sell him those machines as fast as we invent them.

Much the same may be said about the assumed finer talent for business possessed by Americans. Now no one can surpass us in admiration of the shrewdness and energy and administrative genius of our captains of industry. But it is obvious that, if these are inherently American qualities, they existed in our national character generations ago. Yet a half century since no one was saying that Americans were the best business men in the world. It was to England and France that we then looked for the typical masters of finance, princes of commerce, and kings of industry. If the American as such is so superior to all mankind in the capacity for business, why was he condemned to so long a period of apparent inferiority? The answer is plain. The development of the country's natural resources had not then reached a point to give American ability in that direction free scope. That is, it is what nature has done for us that really opens the way for our commercial conquest of the world.

An alternative explanation is sometimes offered in the assertion that it is our industrial organization, our combinations of capital, that have given us our successes. Some who are willing to admit that the American is not necessarily so superior to all other men in point of sheer mental power, yet point to our system of manufacture by Trusts as the secret of our great commercial expansion. But as to this, two things are to be said. The first is that, if there is any sound and lasting merit in this form of manufacturing organization, we cannot keep it to ourselves any more than we can our newest machinery. Foreigners will be as quick to take over the benefits of the one as of the other. In fact, they are doing it. So we must not think that we have any mysterious and exclusive patent, in the shape of the Trust, to assure our preëminence. The other remark about the Trust is that, if it has industrial advantages, it has also financial vices. This was trenchantly expressed by Mr. Hill when he said that too many Trusts were organized for the purpose of manufacturing, not commodities, but "sheaves of securities."

Here we come upon another reason often advanced for our industrial triumphs—the vast capital now under corporate control. This has undoubtedly been a striking feature of our development during the past half-dozen years. Cheap and abundant capital has been at our command. But what evidence is there, aside from our continued ability to develop the natural products of field and mine, that this will be continued, that we can go on borrowing from all Europe? Capital available has ebbed and flowed before, and it may again. Nothing is more certain than that a bad year or two, with the tumbling down of a few of the topheavy and overcapitalized concerns whose "sheaves of securities" have been unloaded upon a "generous and confiding people"—to use the politician's phrase—will produce a stringency where now we have a plethora. In any case, capital is but the incidental and shifting element in our national prosperity. The solid bases of our manufacturing superiority rest upon the fact that nature has lavishly endowed us with the raw materials which enter into manufacture. That is what we come to in the end: our industrial lead, as has been pointed out by a clear-headed English economist, Mr. Courtney, is due to our advantage in having cheaper coal at the pit's mouth than any other nation, and iron ore in quantity and at a cost beyond the power of any competitor to rival.

If any morals are to be drawn from all this, they are, obviously, (1) that our thanks should be addressed to Providence, and not to a tariff; (2) that any form of squandering our natural resources, or making them needlessly costly, as by artificial prices paid at the behest of either Trusts or labor unions, is a form of national madness; and (3) that all schemes of militarism or paternalism which would impose the burden of heavy and needless taxation upon our powers of production, are a direct playing into the hands of competing nations. They cannot beat us by direct rivalry or by force of arms; but they may vanquish us by the aid of our own follies.

ENGLAND AFTER THE WAR.

Current reports of the formation of an English shipping combination, of sufficient magnitude to rival the huge Ship Trust capitalized under American auspices, occurred rather strikingly in the week of the Transvaal peace announcement. Whether the reported "rival combine" is or is not as large as rumor would have it, and whether it does or does not contemplate keen competition with the Morgan undertaking, the mere fact that such a project is on foot directs attention to an extremely interesting phase of the present situation. The question which the next few years will have to solve is the question how far the recent decline of England's supremacy in foreign trade has resulted from causes permanent in their nature, and how far from the temporary exhaustion due to a costly war. It is needless to point out the great significance, to the world's commercial future, which is involved in this question.

The question cannot be answered yet with absolute confidence, because too

many varying influences have been at work simultaneously. Political economy has a way of cheating the seeker after principles by confronting him with two or more independent causes for a given result—causes often conflicting in their nature. Nowhere is this confusion greater than in the industrial sequel to a war. We believe it to be the fact that many intelligent people, even in high circles of finance, contend to-day that the recent immense prosperity of the United States, and particularly the overflowing of its capital into foreign markets, was somehow connected with the waging of a successful war. No particular effort is made to demonstrate how the war could have caused the prosperity; whether the prosperity would have come had our harvests failed and our industry not been on a sound basis; whether the Napoleonic and Crimean wars, for instance, had the same results. Precisely such confusing influences as were at work in causing American prosperity after the Spanish war have had a hand in England's industrial reaction during the Transvaal struggle.

Three influences have been operating against England's commercial prestige during the past three years—a prolonged and enormously expensive war; the blockade of the Transvaal goldmines, from which fully $75,000,000 annually in gold had previously been drawn; and aggressive competition from the United States, whose entry into the contest for neutral trade took place at the moment when England's own energies were being diverted. How far the drain of war expenses—on capital through the heavy loans, and on incomes through the heavy taxes—crippled Great Britain's financial vigor, is something which cannot be exactly measured. The cost of the war, it is estimated in London, has not fallen much short of $1,250,000,000. The strongest nation cannot divert such a sum from ordinary commercial purposes without feeling the strain severely. There is sometimes a partial compensation in the fact that the capital thus raised by a Government is paid out to home producers, for ships, ammunition, food supplies. But a very great part of England's war expenditure—perhaps the greater part—had to be made in other countries. The army was operated in a country which could not feed it; most of the supplies were bought in the United States. And what was spent for war material, at the British iron-mills, was placed at a time when orders for outside trade were at a maximum, and when, therefore, the manufacturer lost a chance in the field of international competition by the very fact of his Government contracts.

The reality of the financial strain has been shown plainly enough in other ways. England could undoubtedly have placed all its loans at home, as it did the $3,000,000,000 loans which were contracted during the Napoleonic wars. But the result, for the $730,000,000 bonds issued since 1899, as for those issued between 1793 and 1815, would probably have been so low a price as to make the cost to the Government exorbitant. This is why $103,000,000 of the consols and the war loan were allotted direct to American subscribers. The very unusual effort to shift the burden, however, shows how heavily it weighed; and, in fact, it has been frankly admitted by English financial critics that the London money market would have been seriously strained, even after the foreign allotments of consols, had not the Paris bankers taken the bulk of the temporary Treasury bills and thus helped to finance the Exchequer.

The embargo on Transvaal gold supplies necessarily added to England's difficulties. Most of the mines from which the $80,000,000 product had previously been taken annually, were owned in England. Barely $12,000,000 gold in all was produced between September, 1899, and the opening of 1902, and this was at least as heavy a loss in the productiveness of British capital as if harvests had failed or mill products become unsalable. It is quite true that English banks have kept good, and even increased, their gold reserves, and that Continental banks, except that of Russia, have simultaneously increased their own, despite the Transvaal blockade. But with England handicapped in foreign trade, even this process must have been costly as compared with the former imports direct from Johannesburg.

In short, it is plain that the war itself is responsible for a good part of England's recent seeming sluggishness in the race of international competition. The next question to find solution, therefore, is, What figure will England cut in the same race during the next few years? The strain on English capital is already relaxing. Probably there will be no more loans; the proceeds of the $160,000,000 April issue ought to cover not only the cost of bringing home the troops, but the $15,000,000 grant for rehabilitation of the farms. The output of Transvaal gold has already doubled since December. It is likely to double itself again in the next few months, and England's gold imports from South Africa, which have already risen from $629,000 in May, 1901, to $3,437,000 last month, may increase, later on, to the monthly $8,500,000 of a few years ago. It cannot, therefore, be very long before Great Britain enters the world's markets again without so serious a handicap. We shall then know exactly how much truth there has been in the lately familiar assertion that her methods are antiquated and no longer fitted to lead in the struggle for neutral trade. That Great Britain will regain her old position of unchallenged supremacy is not probable, with Germany and America in their present position. But neither of these two competitors is likely henceforward to enjoy immunity from British competition.

AMERICAN SCHOLARSHIPS AT OXFORD.

It has been advocated by some writers, *e. g.*, by Mr. F. C. S. Schiller, in the May *Fortnightly Review*, and by Mr. John Corbin in the preface to his 'An American at Oxford,' that the Rhodes scholars should be selected from men who have already graduated at American universities. If this course is followed, one thing is certain—they will become a separate colony. This will come to pass on account, not so much of their nationality as of their age. It is true that there have been cases in which, owing to exceptional personal qualities, a freshman of comparatively mature years has made himself quite at home with his juniors; but as a rule a discrepancy of this kind is a serious hindrance to complete freedom of social intercourse. Moreover, the actual terms of the bequest itself appear to make the election of graduate scholars quite inconsistent with the intention of the testator. The choice is to be determined, in part, by a report from "the headmaster of the candidate's school"; the successful candidate is "to commence residence as an undergraduate"—not as a research student—at some college; and special stress is laid upon the advantages of the residential system of Oxford, for the reason that, without it, students "are, at the most critical period of their lives, left without any supervision." The third consideration is regarded as of so great importance that the lack of such a system at Edinburgh is the sole reason which induced Mr. Rhodes to refrain, evidently with great reluctance, from establishing scholarships at that university. It is therefore likely that the trustees will find themselves compelled, both by the letter and by the spirit of the will, to impose a limitation of age, as is done by the Oxford Colleges themselves in the case of their own scholarships, which are usually open to the competition of candidates under nineteen years of age only. Prof. H. Morse Stephens has suggested, in the June *World's Work*, that to such a limitation should be added the condition of celibacy also, but one may reasonably hope that the social pace in this country has not yet become so rapid that the first requirement would not make the second unnecessary.

In order, therefore, to realize the situation that is about to be created, we must imagine a group of American youths who have just passed through the high school—the flower of the secondary education of Nevada and Arkansas as well as of Massachusetts and

New York—exploring the High Street and the Cornmarket, and "prospecting" for academic quarters. At this point some of them will encounter a difficulty which was hinted at by Prof. T. Case in the May *National Review*, but which our press, with its usual optimism on educational affairs, has either entirely ignored or mentioned only to dismiss it as unworthy of serious consideration. The difficulty in question is the fact that, no matter where he applies for admission, the Rhodes scholar will find himself confronted by a college entrance examination—an examination quite different from the university test known as "Responsions" or "Smalls."

In the June *Review of Reviews* Prof. F. H. Stoddard says that he "will no doubt be assigned to a college, rather than be allowed to choose one," as Mr. Rhodes's will expresses the desire that the American students shall be distributed among the various colleges. Professor Stoddard adds that all the colleges, "educationally considered, are equal." In each particular he is seriously mistaken. Each college retains absolutely in its own hands the right of deciding who shall be admitted to its membership. No university authority can overrule its decision in this respect, and it would be interesting to watch the face of a "head of a house" if it were suggested to him that the "society" of the college should delegate its power of the keys to some outsider, whether English or American. The Oxford colleges are very jealous of their privileges, and are quite unlikely to give way in the least degree on so important a question as the conditions of entrance. Then, it is not the case that all the colleges, "educationally considered, are equal," except in the sense that undergraduates of all the colleges are on the same footing as regards the degree examinations. Certain colleges—for instance, Balliol, New, and Corpus—admit no freshmen except those who intend to read for honors, and accordingly impose a much severer entrance test than those colleges which do not object to receive passmen also. That there is a real difference between the standards of various colleges is illustrated in the case of Mr. Rhodes himself, who was rejected by another college before he was admitted at Oriel.

Many of the Rhodes scholars will naturally wish to join one of the colleges which possess the greatest educational reputation. They will probably be surprised at the difficulty of the initial test in such cases. Even the colleges most hospitable to mediocrity require from freshmen a knowledge of Latin and Greek which, however elementary it may appear to boys coming from the higher forms of the English "public schools," will be regarded with greater respect by candidates fresh from the high-school curriculum of some sections of this country. It will not be surprising, then, if some of the Rhodes scholars knock at the doors of several colleges before they find an entrance at any, and if others are rejected wherever they apply. Such failures are the more likely to occur owing to the remarkable fancy qualifications prescribed for his scholarships by Mr. Rhodes.

It has been said that every Rhodes scholar will be at liberty to choose for himself whether he shall read for a pass or an honors degree. This is, no doubt, literally true, yet most American students, whatever their intention on entering, will soon find themselves strongly influenced in the direction of an honors course. They will discover that not only in Oxford but in England outside Oxford, great importance is attached to the class in which a man graduates. They will also find themselves regarded as picked representatives of the educational products of the United States, by whose success or failure in "the schools" the quality of American education will be popularly gauged. The desire to reflect credit upon one's own State will be another incentive. It is true that prowess on the river or in the football field also counts highly for personal distinction, but such success is not at all inconsistent with a good showing in examinations, and is therefore not regarded as absolving an able man from the obligation of gaining a first or second. The decision to read for honors means in every case a concentration of study. Each candidate is confined to one range of subjects: he makes his choice between classics, mathematics, modern history, etc., and by that choice he must abide. Even with such limitations, the curriculum makes severe demands upon the diligence of well-equipped undergraduates, in vacation as well as in term-time.

Considerable anxiety has been expressed, especially by writers somewhat tinged by Anglophobia, as to the possible corruption of the democratic simplicity of the Rhodes scholars by the "glamour of ancient traditions and monarchical institutions." As a matter of fact, there is less snobbery in the life of present-day undergraduate Oxford than in any section of American society. There is less "tuft-hunting" in Oxford than in New York. It is possible, however, that some of the Rhodes scholars may prefer to remain in England rather than to return to their own country. Those, for example, who intend to enter the teaching profession will in some cases find better opportunities open to them there than here. It has escaped general attention that several years ago one of the Australian colonies established a scholarship, tenable in England, open to the competition of graduates from the local university. After a fair trial the scholarship was discontinued, as it was found that in operation it was really a fund for preparing clever natives of the colony for a career in England. As an evidence of the denationalizing effect of an English university education upon youths of foreign birth and parentage, one might quote the conspicuous instance of Lord Milner, son of Dr. Karl Milner, professor at the University of Tübingen. On the other hand, there are the equally conspicuous instances of W. H. Waddington, who was a high classic at Cambridge and rowed in the inter-university boat race, but afterwards became Prime Minister of France, and of Mr. Smuts, also a Cambridge graduate in the highest honors and recently a leader of a Boer commando. Perhaps the degree to which life in his own State will appear attractive to the Rhodes scholar when he has taken his Oxford degree, will depend very largely on the tone of local public opinion as to whether he is to be praised or blamed for having gone abroad for his education.

THE PARIS SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1902.

You hear it said on all sides this year that the two Salons are deplorably dull. French critics, weary of their task, dealers in search of a novelty to draw custom, chance visitors looking less for art than for sensation, artists eager for new creeds and new pronouncements, all will tell you the same thing: there is nothing in the old Salon; in the new the level is lower than it has ever been. But then the old Salon always has been dull since the second Society came into existence, and this year I found it pleasanter in some respects, probably because less crowded. The new Salon, I admit, has been more stimulating and amusing and sensational, but the mistake is to expect its exhibitions always to equal the first when every effort had to be made to justify the secession from the Artistes Français, and exhibitors borrowed liberally from their work during many years past.

As you enter the new Salon through the little garden facing the Avenue d'Antin, your eyes fall at once upon three strange nude figures raised on a high wooden platform. These are the symbolic forms—"Les Ombres"—by M. Rodin that are to crown his Gate of Hell, and that the French, who have a genius for ordering these matters as they should be, have placed in their relative positions at the height at which they will eventually be seen. Fierce emotion, expressed and fixed for ever by the sculptor's art, is your first impression as you look at the bowed heads and almost distorted limbs; and it is not until afterwards that you begin to question their monumental, their sculpturesque value; that you feel, as in the "Bourgeois" of Calais, their want of harmonious balance, of noble outline, of just those qualities which distinguish the work of the Greek sculptors who are to M. Rodin, as he has just been assuring a reporter in London, the great masters of all time. This year, whatever M. Rodin might choose to exhibit would attract the attention even of a public hitherto indifferent, so extraordinary have been the demonstrations in his honor in London—the horses unharnessed,

and his carriage, with Mr. Sargent on the box, dragged triumphantly through the streets by the Slade students. But for those who care, the three "brooding giants," as they have been described, need no such sensational advertisement, and the exhibition that contains them cannot be wholly commonplace.

When you have entered the building and mounted the stairs, in the first gallery you find yourself standing before a huge decorative panel, where beautiful women and satyrs are at play in a fair garden with its presiding deity overlooking them from a tall white pedestal, while more Arcadians come to join in their revels, rowed across the blue lake from a town lying like a white dream at the foot of the far hills, under a cloudless summer sky. This is M. Besnard's "Île Heureuse"; and though I have seen many pictures by him that I thought more splendid in color, more daring in experiment, more stately in composition, still, as a work not without charm by a painter of deservedly great reputation, this cannot be passed over in silence, nor can the exhibition in which it is hung be called dull without reservation.

The truth is, in almost every gallery is something that gives one, if not pleasure, at least reason for thought. Take the big characteristic Salon machines. None may be very remarkable. M. Gervex has painted the "Banquet of the Mayors" in 1900, and has made what was wanted, a record, more accurate and interesting than any photograph could be, of the principal personages who assisted at the function. M. Rixens has given a similar version of the formal tribute paid to Pasteur, more than photographic in its accuracy, less than artistic in its accomplishment. M. Dubufe has produced an enormous symbolic group, with Gounod—an excellent portrait, I believe—surrounded by musical angels in the correct symbolic poses. Still better are M. Detaille's two huge decorations for the Hôtel de Ville, in the old Salon, with incidents of the Revolution and First Empire for subjects, astonishingly vigorous and vital in their straightforward statement of historical facts. And best of all, from a decorative standpoint, is M. Aman-Jean's panel—and for this you must retire to the new Salon—a prim, formal garden; in the foreground a few languid ladies, in languid-hued draperies, languidly posed, playing with a peacock, very charming in sentiment and very graceful in design, but I cannot help wondering how its languor and pale tones, the color already faded in its first freshness, will stand the practical test of decoration. Even M. Aman-Jean has often been seen to greater advantage. If, however, more powerful and more beautiful work of the kind has been shown in previous exhibitions, these ambitious exercises are the proof that every year brings with it, of the workmanlike training, the complete technical knowledge and ability demanded as a matter of course of the French artist. He knows his trade, and this alone is a virtue, after the parade of amateurishness and incompetence in the English Academy.

When it comes to the portraits, there is much not only vigorous but original. Mr. Whistler, who had nothing last year, sends a group of five pictures. An exquisite little nude, "Phryné la Superbe," I have already described, I think, at the time it was exhibited in London at the International, where the two other smaller paintings, a shop and a marine, were also hung. But the portrait of Mrs. Vanderbilt, "ivoire et or," has never been shown anywhere before, and very beautiful it is; the canvas is oval in shape, the figure is seen in less than half-length, and is painted with a restraint and dignity that would be its passport into the Louvre. Nothing could be simpler. Over the shoulders, a dark wrap is thrown, its soft white ruffles of lace opening at the neck and making a high collar from which the head rises with infinite grace and distinction. But how well the figure fills the space, what character there is in the face; and how beautiful the surface Mr. Whistler gives, how entirely he succeeds in following his own counsel and concealing the means by which he has made it the perfect work of art it is! Below is the picture of a child in a red cap, "grenat et or," "Le Petit Cardinal," a flower-like little face, as lovely as the scheme of color of which it is the motive. There is nothing by M. Boldini, unfortunately, and Mr. Alexander also is unrepresented. But Mr. Sargent has that amazing portrait of two sisters which was at the Academy last year, and which seems as brilliantly clever, as daring, in Paris as it did in London.

In the power of realizing character and fearlessness in expressing it, M. Lucien Simon is not to be outdone by Mr. Sargent. He has two large groups this year. One, of a family party lingering over their coffee after dinner, with, for background, a window opening on a tranquil twilight landscape, is not so interesting, probably because the people themselves did not give him the same chance. But the second is not a bit less striking than Mr. Sargent's. Two Little Sisters of the Poor and an old lady they are visiting on their daily rounds have been his sitters, and it is easy to see the pleasure he has found in portraying and insisting upon the contrast between the two faces of the nuns—between the shrewdness, the benevolence, the humorous self-confidence of the older sister, and the shyness, the painful self-consciousness, the shame almost of the younger; between the old shrivelled flesh, lined and wrinkled, and the fresh young flesh, smooth and blood-warmed, the rich red line of the mouth telling so well in its sombre setting of black and white. But M. Simon has little sense of style. His work is brutal in its realism. He presents the facts before him as he finds them, and there his responsibility in the matter ends. It is a pity, for if his pictorial feeling equalled his powers of observation and technical proficiency, he might do wonderful things.

In point of size and enterprise M. Carolus-Duran's big family group, "En Famille," is, without question, the most important of the portraits. On a colossal stretch of canvas he has painted himself, his wife, his children, his grandchildren, even the beribboned *bonne* of the youngest, and the dog of the household—seventeen figures in all. The picture has the meretricious air of elegance so unpleasant in most of M. Carolus-Duran's later portraits, and the composition is without unity or dignity; but, on coming from the Royal Academy to the Salon, the very ability of the work and the physical energy it implies seem astounding.

M. Dagnan-Bouveret's portraits of Gérôme, in his palm-leaf embroidered coat, and two ladies in costly gowns draw the crowd, but the determination with which the painter reduces everything—flesh, stuffs, ornaments, backgrounds—to one smooth ivory-like surface is, to me, intensely disagreeable: he appears to flaunt his ultra-refinement of technique in one's face. Better, because more honest and straightforward, is M. Kroyer's open-air study of Björnson, a vigorous piece of realism. M. Blanche, too, is unusually good in his portraits of M. Cottet, the painter, M. Paul Adam, and a youth, as if he found it a relief to be free from the silks and draperies of the ladies of fashion he has so often painted. But M. Gandara once more has two portraits of beautiful gowns, one a filmy black stuff over white, rendered with a marvellous skill that would be delightful did it not reduce the woman inside to a mere lay model. Miss Cecilia Beaux hardly seems to me at her best in her three portraits. And if I mention a pastel, a charming arrangement in white and red, by M. Aman-Jean, a masterly little portrait of the late Cosmo Monkhouse by Mr. McLure Hamilton, and the work of M. Picard, Mr. Lavery, and Mr. Austen Brown, I think I have completed the list. M. Zorn and M. Edelfelt are among the absent.

It is in landscape, however, that painters begin to display the most marked individuality. Sometimes, it must be admitted, the striving after this individuality leads to absurd affectation and mannerism. But it is a good sign that painters are no longer content to make an accurate inventory of nature with Bastien-Lepage, or to record an impression that is less theirs than Monet's. It is true, Monet still has his disciples; the strong work of M. Claus and M. Buysse, the Belgians, and the prismatic effects of M. Eliot, are tributes to his influence, just as the noble landscapes of M. Harpignies and M. Pointelin in the old Salon prove that the romantic tradition is not yet exhausted. But, as a rule, in the new Salon each man seems eager to use his eyes for himself and invent a new formula, though, it may be, in a few years' time when we look back, there will be found more of unity in their aims and accomplishments than we are now conscious of. M. Ménard sees a world all pale gold and green, with tender distances and silent waters, and great white clouds piling themselves up on a luminous sky. In such a landscape this year he has set the long, low walls and towers of Aigues-Mortes, and few things in the Salon have quite the same solemn sentiment and beauty, the same magic of light and atmosphere. M. Le Sidaner takes any commonplace subject which happens to present itself—for instance, the garden of a little suburban villa, where the table has been spread for dinner, and a lamp lit before all the afterglow has faded from the heavens—and, by sheer truth of tone and light, produces a harmony that has a very intimate, personal charm. M. Cottet paints the sad litle gray Breton village on the barren shore by the sea in the cold winter light, with a dignity and pathos that make me wish he had cut down his big canvas and left out the heavy black-robed figures of the peasant women on their way to mass in the village church. Mr. Morrice, whether in a Venetian café at evening with the Salute in

sight, or on the shores of the northern sea, always sees his subject in decorative lines and masses and delicate color arrangements. But it is impossible to name all the painters of good landscape. Lhermitte, Billotte, Lagarde, Lebourg, Thaulow, and as many more, all have pictures of more or less note. Then there are M. Raffaëlli's characteristic streets. And I was interested to see a series of five canvases by Mr. Childe Hassam—the Quai Voltaire in Paris, the Spanish Steps in Rome, flowers, fruit—though I do not think they have quite the personal quality of much of his work; it is almost as if he had felt the necessity of suggesting French masters out of deference to the Salon.

I should not give an adequate idea of the exhibition, perhaps, if I did not at least refer to some of the other paintings which I have not space to describe—the six studies of the same face, each differing in expression, but all alike mist-enveloped, by M. Carrière; the enigmatic figure in armor by Mr. Humphreys-Johnston; the Venetian impressions by Mr. Vail; the carefully studied little interiors by Mr. Walter Gay; the rather monotonous seas by Mr. Harrison; the peasant bride and groom by Mr. Melchers; the brilliant effects of light in a ball-room by Mr. La Touche; the still-life studies by M. Zakarian, who has had the temerity to borrow the exact subject and arrangement of one of the Chardins in the Louvre. Nor is the element of sensation altogether missing. M. Veber, with his dwarfs and grotesques and spirit of "La Machine," is beginning to take the place in public favor of M. Béraud, who stays away altogether. M. Louis Legrand, too accomplished an artist to need such aids, seeks to "épater le bourgeois" by his bold use of the palette knife and the way he appears to be trying to model in relief with his paint. M. Flandrin, M. Milcendeau, M. Charles Guérin, and two or three others do what they can to revive the old fashion of eccentricity. But, on the whole, sensation is but feeble and faint-hearted. I might also point out that the more distinguished German painters, like Von Uhde and Liebermann, do not contribute.

The prints do not fall away from their high level of excellence and originality, though there is not, as in some previous years, any very new departure or movement or experiment calling for special notice. In the old Salon there are lithographs by M. Dillon (but where is M. Willette?), etchings by Mr. Pennell, a wood-engraving by Mr. Wolf; in the new Salon the wood blocks and etchings of M. Lepère, M. Florian, M. Renouard, M. Legrand, among others; the lithographs of M. Lunois, M. Rivière, M. Veber, and a long series of the various kinds of engraving by men who are masters of these different arts. But it is curious how little attention is given to original drawings for illustration. With few exceptions, most of the black-and-white drawings are simply sketches and notes for the artist's own use.

As usual, the average is nowhere higher than in the sculpture courts. Again, as often before, one sees on every side work of the technical distinction that never fails the French, and that made the decoration of the Exhibition buildings of 1900 possible. And it is because of this average that it becomes so difficult to write of the sculpture in such limited space. All that can be done is to call attention to a few of the more important contributions. I have already spoken of the work of M. Rodin, who towers over everybody, and whose influence reveals itself everywhere in subjects chosen and methods of treatment. He has also a bust of Victor Hugo in the new Salon, where a fragment of a tomb by M. Bartholomé, and two busts of laborers by M. Meunier, whose influence is as marked as M. Rodin's, are among the most notable things. In the old Salon, M. Frémiet's "Dugueslin" is full of go and vigor, and the sculptor has not been afraid to give a certain homely character, curiously convincing, to his hero, though M. Frémiet never designs an equestrian statue that one does not at once compare it, to its disadvantage, with the Jeanne d'Arc in the Place des Pyramides. Mr. MacMonnies's "General Slocum" is a fine, spirited performance, but Mr. MacMonnies is so accomplished that the action of horse and officer becomes almost too spirited in its truth—will not both, you cannot help asking, at the next step plunge into space? M. Hamar is showing the base of the Rochambeau monument in Washington; seen without the figure on the top, it seems too restless, while spreadeagleism, in its most rampant mood, is expressed by the allegorical bird.

More and more space is being given to the decorative work included under the general classification of *objets d'art*. The furniture, as a rule, repeats the exaggerations to which the grandiloquent name of "L'Art Nouveau" has been given. But many of the smaller articles, especially among the goldsmiths' exhibits, are of genuine beauty, while the French craftsman has always the proper respect for his medium: he does not, like the English craftsman, take rough peasant's work as a model. It is interesting, too, to find many artists, already distinguished as painters, sculptors, and draughtsmen, appearing as decorators. A scheme for a billiard-room, in which M. Chéret, M. Charpentier, and M. Bracquemond have collaborated, is shown; and also a piano painted by M. Besnard and carved by M. Charpentier. N. N.

MEDIÆVAL ART AT THE DÜSSELDORF EXPOSITION.

DÜSSELDORF, May, 1902.

The success of the Rhenish-Westphalian Exposition at Düsseldorf, whose formal opening on the first of May was signalized by the first public speech of the German Crown Prince, is an event of more than local, nay, of more than merely national importance. Planned towards the end of the nineties, at the height of an era of industrial expansion and enterprise, carried through during the financial depression of the last year and a half, it is a striking evidence of the foresight, pluck, resourcefulness, and skill with which German business men and manufacturers have weathered the crisis that is just passing. Limited as it is to the Rhineland and Westphalia, it demonstrates all the more impressively what enormous strides Germany is making in every domain of industrial production. For it is no exaggeration to say that the exhibit made here by two provinces only may well challenge comparison with the total of the German exhibit at the World's Fair of 1893. And there can be no question that, to the industrial world of both Europe and America, this provincial Exposition will impart lessons in a way even more instructive than those taught by the monster exhibits of Chicago and Paris.

It was a happy thought—a thought conceived principally by the Rev. Schnütgen, canon of Cologne, and Prof. Clemen, curator of Rhenish antiquities at Düsseldorf—to connect with this display of modern German industry and art an exhibition of the artistic productions of Rhenish Germany in the Middle Ages, chiefly in the domain of ecclesiastical architecture and sculpture. To be sure, it is a great contrast to step from the enormous halls of the Krupp iron works or the Westphalian mining companies, with their gigantic machinery and their ceaseless hubbub, into the quiet rooms where statues of saints and the portals of cathedrals proclaim the ideals of the past. But who would deny that these ideals have lost vitality only with regard to their outward form, that their essence holds good for us as well as our forefathers, and that the restless activity of modern life is more and more tending toward a reshaping and a rehabilitation even of their outward forms? To the antiquarian, the most interesting part of this mediæval collection is likely to be a superb array of church utensils and ornaments, sent hither by the ecclesiastical authorities of both the provinces concerned. Since practically all the great cathedral seats of northwestern Germany—Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne, Münster, Paderborn, Hildesheim, Osnabrück among them—have showered their treasures upon this Exposition, there is here offered an unequalled opportunity for studying from the originals what mediæval handicraft produced in textile industry, in ivory, wood, intaglio, bronze, silver and gold work. Never before have altar shrines and other reliquaries been brought together in so impressive numbers or in so instructive a selection; never before has the development of their forms from the austere solemnity of the Byzantine manner to the wilfulness of Gothic naturalism been placed before us so systematically or with so much detail.

The most striking feature, however, of this mediæval museum—at least to the layman—is that here, for the first time, has been successfully tried in Germany what the Trocadéro and the South Kensington Museum have already accomplished for France and England: the reproduction, in plaster-casts, of large monumental works of native architecture and sculpture. It is really astonishing how little Germany, which has done so much for the study of the history of the plastic arts of other countries, has thus far done towards bringing the greatness of her own artistic past home to the popular mind. It is undoubtedly legitimate that, as a means of æsthetic culture, the history of Greek sculpture should occupy a place in the national education superior to that of any other similar study. But that the great mass of German students should be absolutely ignorant of the wonderful creations of German architectural sculpture in the Middle Ages; that the German section of the great collection of plaster-casts in the Royal Museum at Berlin should embrace two small rooms on a floor the main body of which is given over to the rich Egyptian collections; that even

in the Germanic Museum at Nürnberg the plaster-casts of mediæval monuments should be crowded together in dark passages and cloister-like halls, where a proper inspection and careful study are entirely out of the question—these are facts which prove once more how recent a thing the growth of a strong national consciousness has been in Germany.

In Düsseldorf, for the first time, a mediæval exposition has been attempted that has a truly mediæval setting. There is no place in its halls where the visitor would not feel something of the quiet grandeur of a mediæval church, whether entering through the graceful portal of Our Lady's at Trèves (the same which the Emperor is going to give to the Germanic Museum at Cambridge), or standing under the massive arches of the "Paradise" of Münster cathedral, with its solemnly archaic statues of the apostles, or passing by the splendid choir screen of All Souls' Chapel in the cathedral of Aix-la-Chapelle. That there may be dangers in this architectural framework of a museum of national civilization cannot be denied; the temptation involved in it to sacrifice scientific correctness to picturesque arrangement is obvious, and several even of the best-known museums in Europe have fallen victims to this temptation. On the other hand, the connection between architecture and sculpture is so close that a statue deprived of its architectural background in most cases becomes an isolated, lifeless number; and mediæval sculpture in particular is absolutely unintelligible if it is not studied "on the spot," *i. e.*, in its organic relation to its sister-art.

It is to be hoped, therefore, that the Düsseldorf example will be followed in the two great museums of mediæval art which are now being planned in Berlin and in Munich. As for America, we may congratulate ourselves that the most conspicuous feature of the Emperor's noble gift to the projected Germanic Museum of Harvard University consists in this very combination of monumental sculpture and architecture. It would be a consummation of which America might justly be proud, if the whole of this museum were to be carried out in conformity with this magnificent beginning.

KUNO FRANCKE.

Correspondence.

RABELAIS ON WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In 'Gargantua' (chap. xlvi.), Grandgousier, in reply to Touquedillon, who reveals Picrochole's plans of conquest, says:

"C'est trop entrepris: qui trop embrasse peu estrainct. Le temps n'est plus d'ainsi conquester les royaumes, avec dommages de son prochain frere christian: ceste imitation des anciens Hercules, Alexandres, Hannibals, Scipions, Cesars et autres telz, est contraire à la profession de l'Evangile, par lequel nous est commandé garder, sauver, regir, et administrer chascun ses pays et terres, non hostilement envahir les autres. Et ce que les Sarrasins et barbares jadis appelloient prouesses, maintenant nous appelons briganderies et meschancetés. Mieulx eust il fait soy contenir en sa maison, loyallement la gouvernant, que insulter en la mienne, hostilement la pillant; car par bien la gouverner l'eust augmentée, par me piller sera destruict" (édition Burgaud des Marets et Rathery).

These words of the great French writer of the first half of the sixteenth century are full of interest. If we lay aside all moral considerations, and suppose that a part of the millions sunk in Cuba and the Philippines were spent in making roads, in irrigating the arid lands of the West, in promoting education, in helping the small college, etc., the benefit to our country would be incalculable.

TIMOTHY CLORAN.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY, NASHVILLE, TENN., June 5, 1902.

EARLY PUPPET-SHOW PICTURES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One of the most attractive of the papers presented to Dr. F. J. Furnivall in honor of his seventy-fifth birtnday, is M. Jusserand's "Note on Pageants and 'Scaffolds Hye'" ('An English Miscellany,' pp. 185-196). The text, to be sure, contains little that has not long been well known, but it is accompanied by two pictures, reproduced from an early manuscript, representing, in M. Jusserand's opinion, "scaffolds" or "pageants" such as were used in the great cycles of York, Wakefield, Newcastle, Preston, Kendal, Louth, Chester, Coventry, Norwich, and other towns. These at once arrest the attention, not only on account of the notable skill of the artist, but because, as M. Jusserand truly says, no contemporary picture of an English Corpus Christi pageant has yet been discovered. Pictures and plans of similar pageants or stages in France and Germany exist, and are now easily accessible; for the pageants of England we have been obliged to content ourselves with imaginative reconstructions, based upon the detailed account given by Archdeacon Rogers, towards the end of the sixteenth century, and the scattered details found in the expense books of the "companies" or "gilds" concerned in the plays, as printed by Sharp, Fitch, Furnivall Morris, Miss Toulmin-Smith, and others. Most of these accounts date from the sixteenth century; the earliest go back to the beginning of the fifteenth. Pictures of such pageants from a fourteenth-century manuscript would therefore have a double claim upon the attention of all students of the early drama.

Unfortunately, the pictures reproduced by M. Jusserand are not pictures of pageants in a Corpus Christi play. They are, as any one may discover by careful examination, pictures of puppet-booths. In the first one, especially, the traditional figures of Punch and Judy are clearly recognizable. What names they bore then, what acts they performed, or what dialogue delighted the children before the booth, may, to borrow one of Sir Thomas Browne's phrases, "admit of a wide solution." The attitude of Punch and the presence of his club suggest that action and dialogue did not depart essentially from the delightful brutality of present-day performances.

These pictures are, moreover, not so entirely unknown as M. Jusserand supposes. In 1848 Mr. J. O. Westwood published the first picture in the *Archæological Journal*, and accompanied it with a brief discussion in which the true character of the performance is definitely stated and duly commented upon (v., 198 ff.).

In spite of these facts, our indebtedness to M. Jusserand is undiminished. Few, even among scholars, now read the early volumes of *Archæologia* or the *Archæological Journal*, and the history of puppet-shows in the Middle Ages is one of the most interesting and perplexing chapters of an interesting and perplexing subject. Notwithstanding the minor contributions that have been made and the books that have professed to contain an adequate treatment, almost everything remains to be done.

Yours very truly, JOHN M. MANLY.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 5, 1902.

WORDSWORTH'S "ODE TO DUTY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, in the *Nation* of June 5, who inquires about an expunged stanza of Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty," will find it in the 'Poems' of 1807, where it appears as the sixth stanza. I myself reprinted it, accidentally, in a collection of verse, 'Through Love to Light,' which I published in 1896. It brought me a number of inquiries, some of them from devout and critical Wordsworthians, to whom I should have thought the 'Poems' of 1807 would have been known. The poem was, I believe, written in 1805, presumably with this stanza as a part of it; and, inferior as it is to the other stanzas, we are undoubtedly indebted to Wordsworth's wiser second thought for its exclusion from editions subsequent to that of 1807.

Yours very truly,

JOHN WHITE CHADWICK.

BROOKLYN, N. Y., June 5, 1902.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Professor Knight, in his latest edition of Wordsworth (the Eversley edition of 1896), in volume ii., page 71, refers to a "proof copy of the sheets of the edition of 1807, which was cancelled by Wordsworth," in which the entire poem is unlike its later form, particularly in the first four stanzas; and in this proof copy is your correspondent's sixth stanza, which was printed in 1807 only. Fortunately, Wordsworth's "discretion" led him to change this first copy, with the exception of the stanza referred to. Two stanzas only stand as originally written, though the change in the seventh is very slight. Professor Knight does not use this cancelled stanza in his text. He gives the entire proof-copy version in a note.

Professor Dowden was not unaware of this stanza, which surely is unworthy of being recalled, for he wrote me about this earlier draft in 1890, soon after it was discovered by Mr. J. R. Tutin of Hull. The printed sheet which gives this earlier version of the entire poem was found in a copy of the poems of 1807. Mr. Tutin had the sheet printed with the following heading, "Cancelled Version of Wordsworth's Ode to Duty." Both Mr. Tutin and Professor Dowden sent me a copy, and I shall be glad to send one to any interested person who may not have access to the Eversley edition of 1896.

I find after writing the above that Mr. Hutchinson, in his edition (Oxford) of Wordsworth's Poems, has given this same sixth stanza in brackets *in the text* of the poem; which undoubtedly accounts for A. T. Quiller-Couch's using the stanza in his 'Oxford Book of English Verse.' This use of the stanza by Mr. Hutchinson is question-

able, as it certainly mars the poem. Finally, I discover a note without a reference, and therefore easily overlooked, on the "Ode to Duty" at the end of volume iv. of the Dowden edition of the Poems. The cancelled sixth stanza is quoted in it.

Sincerely yours,

CYNTHIA MORGAN ST. JOHN.

ITHACA, N. Y., June 8, 1902.

Notes.

Among the fall announcements of Little, Brown & Co., Boston, are a three-volume edition of hitherto uncollected speeches and writings of Daniel Webster, and Helen Hunt Jackson's 'Glimpses of California and the Missions,' for the first time by itself, and with numerous illustrations by Henry Sandham.

The publication of Mr. W. A. Linn's 'Story of the Mormons' is closely followed by the announcement of 'The Founder of Mormonism,' by I. Woodbridge Riley, for immediate issue by Dodd, Mead & Co.

E. P. Dutton & Co. have nearly ready a work on 'The English Lake District,' by Mr. Ruskin's biographer, Mr. W. G. Collingwood.

Among Macmillan's reprints which call for no more than passing mention, as having been already considered in these columns, are Walter Crane's 'Line and Form,' and Foster-Milliar's 'Book of the Rose,' in a second edition, thoroughly revised after seven years. Thackeray's 'Henry Esmond,' in two volumes, carries on the Dent edition of this author.

Messrs. Longman offer the eighth edition of Mr. Balfour's 'Foundations of Belief.' It has been somewhat enlarged with explanatory notes, and is provided with a new introduction and argumentative summary.

The Sonnets of Shakspere were, of course, bound to find a place in John Lane's dainty and companionable "Lovers' Library"—the text in green ink, the borders in violet; yet how much more ornamental would have been an index of first lines.

A real service to present-day readers alike and to the memory of a true man is the edition of 'The Serious Poems of Thomas Hood' (London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners), just added to the Caxton Series. Mr. H. Granville Fell's illustrations, or most of them, we could forego, for the thin -paper volume with blue limp covers is pretty enough without them, and the weakest are something of a disfigurement. Here are "One more unfortunate," "We watched her breathing through the night," "I remember, I remember," "Eugene Aram," "The Haunted House," "Hero and Leander," "The Midsummer Fairies," and many more products (not all wholly "serious") of the sad humorist. The punctuation needed more attention than it has received.

In reviewing, four years ago, Mr. W. A. Paton's 'Picturesque Sicily' (Harpers), we pointed out the free use he had made of Gaston Vuillier, and also his own struggles with the Italian language. It seems in keeping with this that his work has now been done into Italian, 'Sicilia Pittoresca,' and published, with 48 half-tones, in Milan (Remo Sandron). The compliment to the solider portion of this American work is not undeserved.

'The International Year Book' for 1901 (Dodd, Mead & Co.) maintains the standard of previous volumes. The United States has thirty-one pages, Great Britain fourteen, France, China, and Cuba each ten, Germany eight, the Transvaal seven, the Philippines six, with a cross-reference for military operations. There are twelve maps and some thirty-five illustrations. The sciences receive adequate attention, and the editor's care seems to have been bestowed on every topic that belongs to "the world's progress during the year." Obituary notices are full for Victoria and McKinley, less extensive in the cases of Crispi, Li Hung Chang, and others. Authors (as Mr. Kipling) who had put forth nothing of great importance during 1901 are relegated to the articles on Literature, which for America and England covers nine pages, for France four, for Germany less than two, for Russia one: Gorky, as a notable new arrival, gets an individual notice. Six pages are devoted to education in the United States, and Mr. Carnegie's gifts and Mr. J. P. Morgan's exploits are duly chronicled. The impossibility of being wholly up to date, or down to date, is shown in the case of the Panama Canal, here considered under that of Nicaragua; next year the positions may probably be reversed.

'The History of India for Boys and Girls,' by Sri Hemlota Devi, translated by M. S. Knight (Longmans), can safely be recommended as an elementary history of her country by a Hindu—especially valuable as treating of the native religions from a native standpoint. Two-thirds of this little book are devoted to the pre-European period of government. Maps, plans, and engravings illustrate the text, and the price brings the book within the reach of all. Allowed as a school-book in India, it is necessarily reserved upon many subjects concerning which most Indians feel deeply. In this its English form it will probably be appreciated more by elders desirous of having some elementary knowledge of Indian affairs than by "boys and girls."

J. Vendryes, a pupil of Henry, Havet, and Thurneysen, in a recent work, 'Recherches sur l'Histoire et les Effets de l'Intensité Initiale en Latin' (Paris: Klincksieck), seeks to overturn the now commonly accepted view that the Latin accent was an accent of stress, and to find in it, at least in the classical period, a tonic or melodic accent, a view to which C. W. L. Johnson inclines in an article included in the 'Studies in honor of Professor Gildersleeve.' M. Vendryes admits, however, for the prehistoric period an accent of intensity resting upon the initial syllable, and to the phonetic effects of this accent the main portion of his work is devoted. In some points he is in agreement with Sommer in his 'Handbuch der Lateinischen Laut- und Formenlehre' (1902); in others he differs. The effect of intensity upon quantity, and the subject of syncope and absorption, are treated at length, and with an abundance of illustration. In an appendix a new attempt is made to solve the vexed problem of the Saturnian, bringing in the theory of initial intensity. The work concludes with an "Index des principaux mots latins étudiés." The author challenges criticism at many points, but his exposition is always clear, interesting, and suggestive.

The History of Uganda, in the native language, which has just been printed in England, is a remarkable testimony to the progress made in that country in the past twenty-five years, as well as a noteworthy contribution to literature. The author is the Katikiro (Prime Minister) and the representative of his countrymen at the coronation, and his book, so far as our knowledge goes, is the first published history of an African people written by a native in his own tongue. In it he gives some account of their mythology before the teaching of Christianity, and it is curious to note that, as with the Dûsuns of Borneo, so this central African tribe attributes the origin of evil to a woman. When the Creator sent his grandson Kintu and his wife Nambi to the earth to people it, he strictly enjoined him to go early in the morning so that "your brother Death may not see where you go, for if he goes with you he will kill all your children." In obedience to this injunction, "before it was light, he packed up all his things, and set out, and came down to earth; but his wife suddenly remembered that she had left the corn behind which was to feed a fowl she had with her. She said to her husband, 'I have left the corn for the fowl in the porch of the house, I must go back and fetch it.' Her husband Kintu refused, and said, 'You must not go back, for if you do you will meet Death.' But his wife was obstinate," and went back and got the corn. As she was returning to the earth, "Death met her, and said to her, 'Why have you left me, my friends?' So he went with Nambi, the obstinate wife, . . . and when Kintu begat children Death killed them." Our extracts are taken from a translation printed in *Uganda Notes*.

The *Annales de Géographie* for May contains an interesting account, by M. Gaston Bonnier, of his experiments in what he terms a "new chapter of science," geographic botany. One series consisted in cultivating shoots of the same plant or tree near Paris and on the Mediterranean shore, and observing the manner in which each set adapted itself to the different conditions of soil and climate. Another was in taking plants growing in the neighborhood of Paris and subjecting them, through artificial cold and electric light, to Arctic conditions. The results of these experiments convinced him that they constituted a positive argument in favor of the hypothesis that the specific characteristics of the plants of any region have been gradually acquired through adaptation to the climate. An article on the rainfall of northern France, an orographic and geological description of Algeria, and a discussion of the products of Argentina also deserve mention. The extent of the undeveloped resources of this South American country may be gathered from the single fact that if all the land on which wheat could be grown were cultivated, the amount of the crop would be increased twenty-four times. An encouraging report is given of the progress of Madagascar in agriculture and the means of communication.

Mr. Edward Wilson James continues in the first part of volume iv. of his *Lower Norfolk Co. (Va.), Antiquary* his valuable lists of slave-owners—here for Princess Anne County, in 1778. In an interesting footnote it is told of Jacob Hunter, senior, who is

set down as the master of sixteen human chattels, that he lost twenty-eight negroes in the Revolutionary war—not by being carried off by the British, but by some distemper imported from them by a negro by the name of Frank. Frank was an habitual runaway, and his "treatment consisted in being stripped naked and hoisted to the top of a tall pole, where the wind could blow on him." "Many negroes ran away to the British," and such as were recaptured by the Continental frigates or privateers were sold at auction, subject to the equity of their owners.

In spite of its pronounced character, the face of the late Edwin L. Godkin offered some difficulties for portraiture by pencil or camera. Among the more successful attempts is the "imperial panel" photograph made by F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, some years before Mr. Godkin's bodily vigor had been impaired; and now reissued. For a later period there is nothing better than George C. Cox's photograph (South Orange, N. J.). In its own field, G. Kruell's wood-engraving, of masterful technique, has no rival (East Orange, N. J.).

—'The Ruin of Education in Ireland' (London: David Nutt) is a remarkably outspoken treatise by a sincere Catholic (proud of his religion, and respectful regarding its essentials) concerning what he believes to be the ecclesiasticism and undue influence of the Jesuits and the bishops, which are tending to impoverish and mar the intellectual progress of Ireland. It is unfortunate for the views put forward that the author, Frank Hugh O'Donnell, has been such a discontented element in Irish affairs through the last third of a century. Nevertheless, the book must be taken on its merits, and Mr. O'Donnell's exposition of educational tendencies in his native country cannot be lightly set aside and will have its influence. He is especially strong against the clerical monopoly of teaching, and the spending of vast sums by the heads of Irish Catholicism upon unnecessary buildings and gaudy ornamentation, to the neglect of education. He contrasts the comparative liberality of his church upon the Continent and elsewhere with its narrowness in Ireland, and emphasizes the belief of most thoughtful Irish Home Rulers that it is accorded more power over teaching and ordinary affairs of life by a Protestant Government, in its attempt to maintain its position, than it would be by a Home Rule Government.

—Scholarships which are of the nature of prizes given solely on the strength of an open competitive examination are the rule in England and the exception in America. So far as it leads to the absorption of valuable scholarships by those who have means of their own, the English system involves some waste of endowments; on the other hand, the standard of excellence maintained in scholarship examination undoubtedly is higher in proportion as the field is wider from which competitors are drawn. The standard required for English scholarship is high, and this makes every ambitious schoolboy aim at some scholarship, and also centres more attention and consideration upon serious work than athletics are commonly supposed to allow. In scholarships, then, we find a corrective for the too great interest in athletics. Holders of scholarships at English colleges and schools certainly take a position of distinction which, under favorable circumstances, easily amounts to a sort of acknowledged leadership. Nor do those of them enjoying a good income independently of their scholarships at all invariably accept its stipend. Some recent foundations, indeed, provide in set terms that the stipend shall revert to the foundation or go to a second scholar when the scholar-elect does not stand in need of it. Some such provision exists in the case of the recently founded musical scholarship which commemorates Lewis R. Nettleship at Balliol. Nettleship dreamt of music as a power which should unite the jarring sects and septs of mankind by promoting generous human intercourse unaccompanied by the danger of luxury. But these good offices could, he thought, be well performed only when musicans habitually learned things other than music, and this view the late Sir John Stainer also shared. Perhaps both of them were moved to dissent, and thus had their views clarified on this point, by the curious position still made at Oxford for degrees in music. Alone of all Oxford baccalaureates (there are six others), for the B.Mus. no residence at Oxford is required. At all events the most pointed dissent from the notions of musical education underlying these regulations is certainly embodied in the institution of the Nettleship scholarship.

—The Nettleship scholar is required to read for Honors; and varied as are the avenues to the B.A. degree afforded by the eight honor schools at Oxford, not one of them contains any music unless it be found in "Animal Morphology" under "Hearing and the Ear." Our scholar may take his honors in Animal Morphology if he so chooses, although his previous studies would hardly make the choice a prudent one; but otherwise his work for the degree has no direct bearing upon music whatever. Nevertheless, the standard rigidly enforced at Balliol in electing the Nettleship scholar insures his being so exceptionally gifted that he cannot possibly discontinue the serious pursuit of music, in prosecuting which he finds more than competent assistance in the college organist. Thus the college community secures an influence which plays no small part in undergraduate life, where, so far as music goes, the Nettleship scholar is always *primus inter pares*. Organized by the college organist, the concerts of the Balliol College Musical Society, one of the most successful of Jowett's innovations, had already taken a very firm hold before the Nettleship foundation. That these concerts now have so definitely their place in the front rank, and yet not only have retained the intimate character which makes all social doings in a college more like family gatherings than public assemblies, but also keep a more than undiminished hold upon the interest of the undergraduate world, has largely been made possible by the Nettleship foundation. Details from programmes might be quoted to show the important part played by its beneficiaries. Nor is this all. A vista of the further possibilities of usefulness from the Nettleship foundation has been opened up by the frequent participation in these concerts of Mr. Donald Tovey, now a rising pianist and composer, the elected Nettleship scholar when the scholarship was founded in 1894. From time to time Mr. Tovey has also lectured publicly in the College Hall. One of his lectures was on the Sonata Appassionata of Beethoven, viewed as of the nature of a tragedy; a second dealt with concision and diffuseness in musical style; and he has lately entered his caveat against the abuse in current musical criticism of the terms "intellectual" and "emotional."

—The Seventh Annual Report of the British School at Athens (Macmillan) is devoted chiefly to an account of the excavations in 1901 of Dr. Arthur J. Evans on the site of the ancient palace at Knossus in Crete, with a briefer report of the explorations of D. G. Hogarth at Zakro, on the eastern end of the same island. Never before have results of like extent and importance been so promptly and withal so satisfactorily published, with many plans and other illustrations. Mr. Louis Dyer's recent letter on the House of the Double Axe has anticipated any summary of our own of Dr. Evans's revelations. Other British excavations at Præsos have brought to light an inscription in an unknown tongue, but in Greek characters of the fifth century B. C., which may be helpful if the language is the same as that of Dr. Evans's clay tablets. Some seals, and far more impressions of seals, were discovered, of which several bear representations of a man with a bull's head, clearly the Minotaur. Among the finds at Zakro were nearly five hundred nodules of clay bearing impressions of intaglios, and two of these which are reproduced in this Report are of the Minotaur type. Boyd Dawkins discusses the skulls from cave-burials at Zakro, but comes to no final judgment on vexed questions. At the close of the volume is a reunion of two fragments of a Greek inscription, one part being in the British Museum and the other in the British School at Athens, due to the ingenuity of Dr. Wilhelm, who is perhaps the most brilliant of living Greek epigraphists.

—Dr. Evans reports that the Throne Room of the palace at Knossus has been enclosed and roofed-in—"a work rendered urgent by the effect which exposure to the weather was already beginning to produce, both on the throne itself and the seats and parapet." His successors will be grateful to him for this provision, but the question arises at once, What will become in a few years of the excavated ruins which are not quite valuable enough to receive this special care? Apparently they are to be left exposed to the elements, and the next twenty years are likely to damage them more than the last two thousand. Organic objects which have been excluded from the air for a long time are notably wont to crumble on being exposed, and even a casual examination of the Elgin marbles in the British Museum shows that, after the polished surface of the stone has worn away, great scale-like flakes are liable to break off. When the process of disintegration once begins, it goes on with increasing rapidity. Probably the surface of the Parthenon at Athens has suffered more obviously from the action of the elements during the last century than in the preceding thousand years. Many an ancient Greek inscription, too, is far less legible to-day than on its discovery half a century

ago. Thus the intense vigor of archæologists in excavating the remains of antiquity is in imminent danger of leaving to following generations an imperfect heritage. The importance of making the most accurate and complete publications of discoveries is emphasized when we remember that many of the objects found will not remain long unchanged. In this matter is to be seen a much-needed lesson for Americans. The tombstones of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries in New England graveyards are disintegrating now more rapidly than ever before, and many important family records are disappearing. When the reader thinks of the recognized necessity of covering the Egyptian granite of the obelisk in the Central Park with a slip of paraffine, in order to preserve it, he will need no long consideration to see that the marble, slate, and sandstone monuments of our graveyards need similar treatment if they are to be preserved. Many a town has old stones of which the citizens are proud now, but of which the inscriptions will become illegible if care is not soon taken. These stones are for the most part seldom seen, and so are out of mind, but some are near the crowded streets of our cities, and yet are neglected. This generation has obligations to its successors, and it will be blamed if it transmits to them only printed copies of the originals.

—Old Korea, like Britain with England, Wales, and Scotland, was a territory inside of which were three kingdoms. These had a long history of intestine struggle and border wars, with alternating invasions or succor from China or Japan. In the old books they are called Kaokuli, Sinlo (Silla), and Petsi (Pak-je), the first and most warlike being in the north, the second in the southeast, and the third in the west of the peninsula. Silla, cultivating commerce and the arts of civilization, carried on trade even with the Arabs, in whose books the kingdom and its products are described. China made Silla its ally, and in a great invasion, 660 A. D., Chinese armies overran the peninsula, overthrew a dynasty nearly 700 years old, and annexed Pak-je as a province of China. The victory was commemorated by uprearing a great stone ten feet high and seven feet wide, but the next year the son of the deposed Korean King raised the standard of revolt, and tumbled the big token of imperialism and conquest into the river which flowed past his father's capital. Four centuries later, during the great drought (1047-1084), the stone was exposed, and the people drew it to the bank, but did not set it up. Covered with the débris of eight centuries, it lay undisturbed until 1886, when Mr. Tong, then Secretary of the Chinese Legation in Seoul, and now Taotai of Tientsin, journeyed to Pu-yu and had excavations made at the spot indicated. After eighteen feet of earth had been removed, he struck and uncovered the prostrate stone. Clearing off the surface, he first took a careful rubbing, which is reproduced word for word in the *Korea Review* for May, 1902, and made preparations to remove the stone. Unfortunately, that night a terrible storm of wind and rain, which unroofed houses, swept away scores of dwellings, and caused loss of life by the river-flood, roused the superstitious fears of the people. Thinking the spirits were angry, they filled up the pit. In substance, the text, after the usual fulsome compliments to the Chinese Emperor and his Generals, praises the "benevolent assimilation," and declares that the King, Crown Prince, thirteen Ministers, and 700 courtiers were carried to China, while five Chinese Generals or Military Governors were left to administer the seven districts (250 prefectures), which, according to the text, had a population of 6,100,000.

THE SIEGE OF QUEBEC.

The Siege of Quebec and the Battle of the Plains of Abraham. By A. Doughty, in collaboration with G. W. Parmelee. With plans, portraits, and views. Six volumes. Quebec: Dussault & Proulx. 1901. [1902.]

The six volumes of this work constitute the most extensive and important monograph which has so far been written in Canada on any episode in the country's annals. But the interest of the subject outstrips all bounds that are merely local. Montcalm's defeat and the English occupation of Quebec were great events in the history of the whole continent. In the world struggle between England and France they rank even before the battle of Plassey, and they adorn the last days of a hero with sudden, brilliant, and decisive triumph.

The campaign of 1759 has frequently been described, for the theme is a spirited one and there is no dearth of information. Of recent narratives the most valuable and the most typical are Parkman's in 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' Casgrain's in 'Montcalm et Lévis,' and Kerallain's in 'La Jeunesse de Bougainville.' Parkman may be said to represent the English historian; Casgrain, the French Canadian; and Kerallain, the French. In comparing these three, it must be stated that the differences between the second and third are more pronounced than those between the first and second. Casgrain is a champion of Vaudreuil, Lévis, and the local militia. The strongest sympathies of Kerallain are with Montcalm, Bougainville, and the French of France.

Mr. Doughty, who is the chief author of the present work, has unquestionable advantages over all his predecessors in respect to his material. What others have collected, he can coördinate; but that is by no means all. His quest for new documents in foreign archives has been highly successful, and family papers, both French and English, have been put in his hands by descendants of the leading staff officers. It is obvious that such discoveries as can now be made must relate to details rather than to essentials, but the business of researchers consists in getting at the facts, even where critical issues are not concerned. We do not mean to imply that Mr. Doughty's investigations have led merely to the determination of minutiæ. For example, he shows that the attack which settled the fate of Canada was planned by Wolfe, and not by his brigadiers; but the aim of the study is to settle a number of vexed questions rather than to upset views of the campaign and the battle which are generally accepted. We have spoken of the fresh evidence. It fills three large octavo volumes, and other volumes will be published at a later date in separate instalments. Most of the new data come from England and France, but some striking illustrations of European interest in the war before Quebec have been drawn from the Private Archives of the Czar.

The main clue to the contents of this work has already been given in the statement that the documents, as opposed to the text, occupy three volumes. In other words, the first half of the space is devoted to narrative and the last half to *pièces justificatives*. Of the materials we shall not be able to speak at any length. Of the text, the first volume is devoted to biographies of Wolfe and Montcalm, the second to an account of the siege from its beginning until the first days of September, and the third to a careful and precise narrative of the battle, with its immediate consequences. Regarding the biographies we shall only say that they are genuine lives of the two generals, and not sketches of their time. The life of Montcalm, which has been furnished by the Hon. Thomas Chapais, is the most exhaustive biography of him that has yet been published in English, while Mr. Parmelee's life of Wolfe adds a good deal to the information supplied by Wright. The special value of the work, as an independent study of sources, arises from the quality of the second and third volumes. In commenting upon the text we shall therefore restrict our notice to them.

A number of moot points may be mentioned to show the range of the discussion. Some are antiquarian and some historical. As an instance of the first and least important class, we may recall a debate which has arisen over the exact scene of the battle. Two years ago hue and cry was raised in Canada (and in England, too) by a report that the Ursulines of Quebec were about to sell for building purposes the famous Plains of Abraham. Partly in consequence of the sentiment thus aroused, the Dominion Government bought the property in September, 1901, and made it over to the city of Quebec. Now the land represented by this purchase has nothing to do with the battle, and the Government knew it, though the public were under a wrong impression.

"The deeds of this transfer," says Mr. Doughty, "show that the purchase and preservation of this estate was not made upon the erroneous assumption that it formed part of the historic battlefield, though much of the indignation aroused, both at home and abroad, when it was learned that the land was to be divided up and sold for building lots, was due to the mistaken idea that it was the actual site of the conflict of September 13, 1789."

The originator of the popular mistake was Alfred Hawkins, whose 'Picture of Quebec with Historical Recollections' appeared in 1834. Mr. Doughty goes back to the unequivocal evidence of the early maps and descriptions, thereby correcting an error, equally complete and curious, which has for many years prevailed in Quebec itself.

The historical doubts involved are, however, considerably more important than those presented by topography. Several of them may be stated for illustration. Was the idea of scaling the heights conceived by Wolfe or by his brigadiers? In the disputes between Vaudreuil and Montcalm had the Governor or the General the juster cause? Was Bougainville guilty of heinous and fatal remissness on the night of September 12-13? Did Townshend seek unfairly to vilify Wolfe, and was he justified in signing the Act of Capitulation without first showing it to Monckton? Did Ramezay fall short

of his duty in surrendering Quebec? These are some of the questions which Mr. Doughty seeks to solve. His analysis of the operations about Beauport is also carefully studied; but the chief interest of his narrative centres around such disputed points as have just been indicated. Let us take up one or two of these, considering particularly Wolfe's relations with his brigadiers.

When Pitt was preparing for the campaign of 1759 in Canada, Wolfe desired a larger armament than could be given him, but as a concession he was allowed much latitude in the choice of his officers. Monckton and Murray, the first and the third of his brigadiers, enjoyed his confidence, and so did other leading officers, like Carleton and Barré. Townshend, on the contrary, was put forward by influence, and cannot be considered a general of Wolfe's own choice. From being second brigadier, he had great prominence in the campaign, and after the Battle of the Plains, where Wolfe was killed and Monckton wounded, he became the acting commander-in-chief. On the French side there was complicated discord. On the English side there was no discord which weakened the efficiency of the service; but a mutual dislike, perhaps distrust, destroyed real cordiality of intercourse between Wolfe and Townshend. As early as July, Wolfe snubbed Townshend sharply for inefficiency, and on September 6, a week before the battle, Townshend wrote to his wife: "Gen. Wolfe's health is but very bad. His generalship, in my poor opinion—is not a whit better; this only between us."

On the last day of July, Wolfe was repulsed with severe loss at Montmorency. On the 22d of August the physical frailty which he shared with Nelson, was increased by fever, and for a week he remained unable to take personal charge of the operations. It was then (August 29) that he asked the advice of his brigadiers regarding future movements. The attack below the city had failed, winter was coming on, and the General's illness rendered the situation critical. The brigadiers were not slow in expressing their opinion when it was thus asked. They advised against making any further attempts in the neighborhood of Beauport and Montmorency, and recommended an attack on the town from the northern side. The particular distance, however, is not named, and Parkman, with many other writers, has by this means been led into error. What the brigadiers had in mind was an attack to be delivered about twelve miles above the town, as may be gathered from their detailed plan of operations which seems to have been published for the first time in 1901 by Col. Townshend. Such a movement, it will be quickly seen, was something very different from the plan that was executed. Wolfe accepted this suggestion at first, and preparations were made accordingly. Then, after reconnoitring for himself, on September 10 he reached a totally different conclusion. Instead of going twelve miles above the town, where he would doubtless have been opposed by Bougainville, he decided upon trying a surprise and *coup de main*.

That Wolfe won his triumph by his own genius, aided by remarkable good fortune, is apparent in three ways—first, from a passage in the 'Journal of an Officer of Fraser's Regiment,' where it is stated that the General reconnoitred the north shore above the town on July 18, in search for landing-places. He then thought the scheme practicable, and Major Dalling found two or three places where troops could be put ashore. Secondly, the arrangements which had been made early in September for going up the river were suddenly changed. Thirdly, Mr. Doughty has procured from the British Museum copies of letters which put Wolfe's responsibility for the enterprise in the clearest light. On the eve of the battle the three brigadiers sent a letter to the General, wherein they stated that they were in need of further information. "As we do not think ourselves sufficiently informed of the several parts which may fall to our share in the execution of the Descent you intend to-morrow, we must beg leave to request from you, as distinct Orders as the nature of the thing will admit of, particularly as to the place or places we are to attack." Wolfe replied in the last letters he ever wrote, the one to Monckton and the other to Townshend. The former communication, which is considerably the longer, contains some specific information about the landing and the arrangements for the advance. It then concludes: "I had the Honor to inform you to-day that it is my duty to attack the French Army. To the best of my knowledge and abilities I have fixed upon that spot where we can act with the most force, and are most likely to succeed. If I am mistaken, I am sorry for it, and must be answerable to his Majesty and the public for the consequences."

Mr. Doughty has outlined impartially, and we should think finally, Wolfe's part in the whole campaign. He has also produced the evidence which settles the most interesting single point in the strategy of the operations before Quebec. For the rest, he defends Bougainville from the charge of negligence which Parkman, among others, brings against him. He is much more friendly towards Montcalm than Casgrain is, and less friendly towards Vaudreuil. He vindicates Townshend from having sought to vilify Wolfe or rob him of his laurels. In the matter of the capitulation he is favorable to the action both of Townshend and of Ramezay. In each case there is cogent documentation, and Mr. Doughty is careful not to outrun his sources. Bougainville's case is perhaps the most notable. Parkman says: "When Bougainville saw Holmes's vessels drift down the stream, he did not tax his weary troops to follow them, thinking that they would return as usual with the flood tide." As a matter of fact, Bougainville was following strict orders which he had received from Vaudreuil and from Montcalm. He had been told to keep touch with Holmes's vessels and prevent a landing at Cap Rouge or higher up. In compliance with instructions he followed Holmes as far up as Pointe-aux-Trembles. He and his superiors were outgeneralled, but he was not guilty of leaving anything to chance.

If there were space, much might be said about the materials which have been collected and employed. As it is, we can hardly do more than state that they will be indispensable to every future historian of the Seven Years' War in America. Through the aid of important personages in three countries, Mr. Doughty has been able to procure copies of papers which must have remained beyond the reach of the ordinary investigator. The effort and expense of bringing together all these documents would also in most cases have acted as a powerful deterrent. Besides additions made to the published correspondence of Wolfe, Townshend, and Bougainville, the cartography of the campaign has been largely supplemented by Mr. Doughty's discoveries. "Realizing the importance of studying every available account written by those who took part in the events narrated, the authors have obtained copies of twenty-three distinct relations of the siege, and seventeen plans of the battle of the Plains of Abraham, seven of which are in manuscript." Besides printing unknown and unpublished documents of great value, Mr. Doughty gives us an elaborate bibliography of the Siege of Quebec, divided into one section of books and pamphlets, and into another of manuscripts.

With the exception of careless proofreading, the mechanical features of these volumes deserve high praise. The first three volumes are profusely illustrated with photogravures by Goupil and Hyatt, and with collotypes of good quality. The printing is excellent—the best, we should think, that has been done in Canada since the celebrated edition of Champlain. Altogether, Mr. Doughty and Mr. Parmelee have good reason to be pleased with the outcome of their long labors.

NOVELS, MOSTLY OF AMERICAN LIFE.

The Lady Paramount. By Henry Harland. New York: John Lane.

The Kentons. By W. D. Howells. Harper & Brothers.

The 13th District. By Brand Whitlock. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.

Drewitt's Dream. By W. L. Alden. D. Appleton & Co.

The Making of a Statesman. By Joel Chandler Harris. McClure, Phillips & Co.

The beauty of Mr. Henry Harland's story, 'The Lady Paramount,' is at once obvious and subtle, altogether satisfying. Any one may enjoy it who has an openness to the happy exhilaration that comes with fine weather, gurgling brooks, singing birds, all the fresh loveliness that accompanies the miracle of spring. The simple love story of Susanna, Countess of Sampaolo, all exquisitely embroidered, charms the senses like music conceived in a spirit of joy, expressed in elaborate harmonies. This, for the average reader, indifferent to the means by which literary effects are wrought. To the informed and critical the book yields more. It is the work of an accomplished artist whose material is a cosmopolitan experience. It is a finished expression, not of the art of representing people and things as they are, but as they might be, might beautifully be. Novelists are not very often born in the ranks of a great aristocracy, nor does their breeding or experience often lead to a successful assumption of intimacy with the exalted. Of the vulgarities and absurdities into which such assumption may betray them, "Ouida" in her heyday was a dreadful example. On the face of things, Mr. Harland seems to inherit Ouida's adoration for an aristocracy *qua* aristocracy, to be under the spell of an Old World glory. His men and women (supremely women) exhale perfection, slow accumulation of centuries of privilege. The physical na-

ture he delights in is not fresh from the hand of God, but blooms in a loveliness that testifies to man's patience, taste, and skill. He is thrall to ancient faiths and policies, more Catholic than the Pope, more royalist than the King. He is reactionary, mystical, sensuous, and not ashamed or apologetic. Yet in all this he, we think, does but seem. His serious and sincere intention is artistic; therefore, he makes deliberate choice of conditions in which beauty, physical, mental, and moral, may most naturally either have been raised to perfection or degraded to corruption. Let it be said to his credit, both as man and artist, that in 'The Lady Paramount,' at all events, he ignores the possible corruption. Having chosen his characters and *milieu*, he moves under the guidance of the artistic feeling for truth to nature, the artistic sense of measure and proportion. In essentials he holds fast to what is simple, common, permanent in human nature; and for the probable influence of given conditions on the natural man his perception is very clear and sure. Thus we have Susanna, a gay, romantic, generous girl, yet decorous, imperious, and enchanting as good women of great race may well be; Antonio Craford, a common mortal in love, yet making love in a very superior manner, which, if not exactly English, is distinguished; Patapouff, at heart a common cat, with the external graces of a thoroughbred.

Mr. Harland's purely literary qualities reflect his cosmopolitan experience. His grace and vividness smack of France, his sensuousness of Italy, his ironical humor of America. The point of view in social relations and the frank carelessness of speech are English. There is no positive indication of the author's race or nationality. Nothing is certain except that he is an artist choosing to write in English, the free, light, slightly exotic English of Mr. Henry James. Against that are a serious artistic intention, a loving and patient cult of beauty, so absolutely, so hopelessly not English.

As Mr. Howells's well-known theory is that a novel should be a representation, as closely as possible a literal transcript, of pages of real life (for himself. characteristic American life), conformity between his theory and practice is taken as a matter of course. His new novel, 'The Kentons,' shows us a well-to-do family of Tuskingum, Ohio, suffering inconvenience and painful agitation because the eldest daughter, Ellen, has chosen to fall in love with an unmitigated detrimental. Ellen, though beautiful, is serious and cultured; therefore, the "most cultivated young men of Tuskingum" pass her by, preferring her sister Lottie, who boasts that she is not literary or cultured, and whose reported conversation proves that she does not defame herself. So poor Ellen takes up with a journalist named Bittridge, an impertinent young man, flippant and shallow, and, worse than all, not very keen about Ellen.

The deeply disapproving parents stand helpless before impending calamity. They have made a compact not to cross their children in love; thus, Mr. Howells intimates, maintaining an American tradition which forbids parents' trying to prevent a marriage that they know must be disastrous. Nothing that has ever been written about Americans can surprise other nations more than this. Fortune sometimes favors the pusillanimous. Bittridge gets himself talked about with a married woman (nothing scandalous, of course); Ellen realizes feebly the impropriety of a passion for such a bold buccaneer, and her parents, at last, take courage to carry her off from Tuskingum. When Bittridge, having pursued them to New York, commits the indiscretion of kissing Ellen, the Kentons feel fiercely outraged. The unhappy family sails for Europe, meeting upon the way a young man who, in his lighter moments, is fatally like Bittridge, but *au fond* serious and good. To him Ellen transfers her bleeding heart, thus permitting her distracted parents to return to their home and their evening game of checkers. At this game, Mrs. Kenton invariably cheats—a fault condoned by her husband, who presumably finds it humorous. There is an analogy between the Kentons' attitude towards their children and their pastime. They perceive no sanctity in a rule; they do not, so to speak, play the game.

The interesting points in the story are the failure of culture to improve character, and the failure of that American policy (if it is an American policy) which prevents a direct and serious exercise of parental authority. The cultured Ellen has neither self-control, nor taste, nor common sense. Has Mr. Howells been asking himself, Whereunto is culture good? And is this the dismal answer? The bold and hectoring Lottie has finer instinct and better judgment than Ellen, besides being really kinder to "poppa" and "momma." In drawing Lottie and the parents, Mr. Howells seems to us to have fallen back on observations made twenty years ago. We cannot but think that, in Ohio, parents have broken the American tradition of detachment from their children's interests. At all events, in the situation conceived, a modern Lottie would instruct them how to behave, firmly insisting that it is the custom of the "best people" to deal with infatuated Ellens in peremptory fashion. Boyne Kenton's passion for the young Queen of Holland is an imaginative excursion, suspiciously indicative of the author's desire to show the awful consequences to republican youth of a surfeit of romantic fiction.

The story of Jerome (familiarly Jerry) Garwood of Polk County, Congressional candidate for the Thirteenth District of Illinois, includes a particular description of the methods by which legislators are selected, nominated, and conducted to success or defeat at the polls, and a general criticism of the process and results. Bad as practical politics are supposed to be, no view is too gloomy to lack confirmation in Mr. Whitlock's narrative, or so bitter as to find reproof in his reflection. Current censure of the republic's government, uttered by ignorant and prejudiced foreigners, is mild as milk in comparison with this denunciation, spoken by one, presumably native-born, certainly possessed of all the secrets and mysteries of what he calls the "business of the people's government." This rather important business, Mr. Whitlock declares, is carried on in every State of the Union by a handful of men, all ignorant, dirty, dishonest, and profane, not in order to promote the people's happiness or comfort, but solely for what they, the managers, can get out of it in cash down or in promises to pay—that is, in offices (chiefly post-offices), and the salary and influence accruing. It may be argued that the Polk County gang was exceptionally wicked, that their candidate was unusually weak and unscrupulous, even that the author so intimately acquainted with party politics has himself been turned down by the bosses and is taking a shabby revenge. Such consolatory possibilities, if admitted, cannot banish the conviction that the record of Garwood's campaigns is a truthful presentation of almost all political campaigns in a country where the people are, by way of flattery, assured that they govern themselves and seldom resent such an insultingly untruthful statement.

Garwood is conducted through three campaigns—twice to an inglorious victory, and, at last, to ignominious defeat. His victories are won by his managers, and his defeat by himself, by his vanity, his selfishness, and his short-sighted treachery. The weakness of the book as criticism is in the failure to show any reason why the boss, Jim Rankine, should have implicitly trusted a man of only superficial attraction, one plainly without mental energy or shrewdness, or enough moral perception to yield to a demand for honor among thieves. In constructing his story the author has had no trouble. No artificial arrangement could produce such a good dramatic effect as the direct narration of actual events in their actual sequence, moving from local primaries through county conventions, stumping tours with accompanying brass bands, torchlight processions, and general pandemonium, to the fatal day when the whole nation is given over to what is grandiloquently described as a "quadrennial tragedy of personal ambition." Garwood's private history is naturally interwoven with his public one, and in his domestic relations he is saved from complete disaster only because disappointed wives are sometimes more forgiving than disappointed officeseekers and angry bosses, and because mothers can always ascribe the infamy of a son to the plots and villanies of envious enemies. The wife and mother, rigidly honest, unsophisticated, trustful, and loving, are very well drawn, without condescension or apology. The author knows and loves them as he knows and loves the prairies, to which he gives a few descriptive paragraphs so vivid that one longs for more, if only to relieve the impression that Polk County is thickly dotted with barrooms, filled with slovenly, sweating politicians plotting for power, playing poker, drinking, smoking, giving and taking gross personalities as harmless chaff. The corrupt speech of these people is enlivened by metaphors. Meaning to betray some one, they threaten to "camp on his trail," to "go out with their knives"; and no sooner have they elected a candidate than they caution him to "fix up his fences for a second term." The author, speaking in his own person, uses freely an American variant of the English language. His people "sense" and "voice" things; they "flex in every fibre"; and when he wishes to tell us that some delegates had been slow to identify themselves with the winners, he says: "The band wagon had taken them by surprise and rolled by too swiftly for them to climb in." This is reconditely American, and the author's apparently unconscious use of such metaphor gives a fine touch of gen-

uineness to a novel in every way significantly American.

'Drewitt's Dream,' by Mr. W. L. Alden, is a gay tale. Ostensibly one of adventure, quite recklessly improbable, its real motive is a discussion of American political methods, or, rather, an explanation and defence from the mouth of a successful boss. Drewitt, the dreamer, a young Englishman on his way home from India, stops over in Greece, on the chance of seeing a battle with the invading Turks. He reaches a town that momentarily expects an attack, and the very night of his arrival the crash of guns is heard, followed by clatter and rush of Greek soldiers, forsaking their posts. A general rout ensues, and Drewitt on horseback is swept along with the mob. He picks up an Englishwoman, whom he instantly loves, and is shot while trying to reach a deserted block-house. Waking in a hospital, he is persuaded that many of the circumstances he narrates are but the fancies of a disordered brain. He, however, reserves a belief in the rescued maiden and her unparalleled beauty. In the hospital he meets Mr. Gallegher of Sallust City, Iowa, whose talk about himself is both amazing to an Englishman and amusing. He pictures himself as a very honest and moral man, distinctly creditable to his country. Agreeing with the author of 'The 13th District,' he says politics is a business, but legitimate and honorable, and one in which advancement of private interest is involved with doing one's duty to the public. The author declares that Mr. Gallegher "did not possess a particle of the national humor," but there are many moments when he is infected by Mr. Alden's humor. "Nobody," he tells Drewitt, "ever offered me a bribe, and nobody ever caught me in a crooked transaction." Proceeding to narrate how, taking advantage of his position as boss, he had made several profitable deals, he winds up: "No man can find any fault with that; and the fact that I gave up politics just as soon as I had made a fortune, shows that I wasn't a politician for any ambitious or selfish purpose." Discoursing, further, on distinctions between bribery and corruption, on the uselessness of "reformers," on the duty of attracting to one's party a strong "religious element," also a strong "whiskey element," Mr. Gallegher triumphantly justifies the system whereby he has become a millionaire, and Sallust City a model of municipal perfection. In disquisition Mr. Gallegher is delightful and in action convincing. Sharing Drewitt's enthusiasm for the lost lady of his dream, he proposes that his yacht *Caucus* be used for a search expedition. Personally conducting the strange pursuit, he shows the courage, resource, and tact of a born ruler, who, whether we call him despot, or tyrant, or boss, is fit to control the mass of men and even to establish them in a higher condition of happiness. It is, however, difficult to believe that a free republic is his proper sphere. The company on board the *Caucus* includes persons amusing and remarkable; but, beside Mr. Gallegher, they fade into insignificance.

'The Making of a Statesman' tells of an era preceding that of definite recognition of politics as a business. It represents those presumably good old times when a political career, in the South especially, was the privilege of a gentleman, and intimately connected with oratory embellished by quotations from the classics. Yet Mr. Featherstone, who rose to be a leader in the State of Georgia, and whose public record was most honorable, was, from the beginning, tainted with dishonor. He was more culpable than Mr. Gallegher, because he rose to power by the theft of another man's brains. The voluntary self-sacrifice of Billy Spence is not probable, but, that being granted, all that follows is natural and pathetic. The remaining tales in the volume sustain Mr. Harris's reputation for revealing negro character in negro dialect. Aunt Minervy Ann, telling about Miss Puss's parasol, is a perfect specimen of the immortal "Mammy."

American Gardens. Edited by Guy Lowell. Boston: Bates & Guild Company. 1902. 112 plates.

If any evidence be needed that the formal garden has found a ready acceptance among us, it is amply furnished by the remarkable collection of photographs published under the above name, a collection representative of the best work of an earlier time as well as of the present day. Our ancestors were familiar with the formal manner, and, in a modest way, as befitted a by no means wealthy age, exemplified their skill in the surroundings of many a worthy mansion. Though in most cases sadly changed, quite a number of such old gardens have come down to us. Of several that have been preserved in their original condition, views are given in 'American Gardens.' Of all these, the one which seems closest to the state in which it was a century or more ago, is Washington's garden at Mt. Vernon, the trim box hedges of which, enclosed by the quiet buildings of the "quarters," give a sense of well-ordered neatness very soothing in these days of nervous hurry. But, for a higher quality than mere neatness, for peace and poetry, the old Carroll garden at Annapolis stands without an equal. Its serene white statues raised on lofty vine-clad pedestals and backed by dense masses of foliage cannot fail to bring to mind one of the finest portions of the Borghese gardens. Few other things within the book show so well as does the view of the Carroll garden the perfection to which nature will bring a simple formal arrangement, if this arrangement be wise in the beginning.

But it is not to eighteenth-century gardens that the book chiefly devotes itself. They make a small part of its contents. Since for nearly a century the formal manner has been out of fashion, we find that by far the larger part of the book represents the work of the last ten years. How great is the volume of this work and how high a level much of it has reached, few would suspect who had not closely followed the subject. So many and so excellent are the examples that it is difficult to single out any for special comment without doing injustice to a host of others perhaps equally excellent. To put them in categories, however: among the minor gardens few possess a charm equal to those designed by Mr. Wilson Eyre, while among the larger and more elaborate, those by Mr. Charles Platt and by Carrère & Hastings easily occupy the first rank. For the sake of this publication the country has been carefully searched for its finest gardens. Excellent photographs of these, well reproduced, give a most lucid idea of the present state of garden design among us. The index has the unusual merit of presenting many sketch-plans showing the points from which the views were taken, and thus enabling one the more clearly to understand the garden's design.

Mr. Guy Lowell's introduction to the book is an essay on the history of gardening, and a critical consideration of gardening as practised in America. He points out that, owing to the peculiarities of our climate and of our manners and customs, our gardens necessarily differ from those of other countries, and are adapted to our needs and surroundings. Nevertheless, the impression left by the book is, that although we have made very great advances in garden design, much that we have done smacks too strongly of its foreign source, and that we have by no means established a national type of formal garden. The field is a wide one and the workers in it are alert and intensely interested. Let us hope that before long they will develop a manner that will speak more clearly of our own time and people.

Uncle Sam, Trustee. By John Kendrick Bangs. New York: Riggs Publishing Co. 1902.

This book purports to give a history of Cuba down to the year 1898, and to record the achievements of the Government maintained there by this country since that date. The "history" consists of scraps from books of every description, and may be dismissed at once as a compilation devoid of merit. As to what has been accomplished in improving the conditions of life in Cuba during the last three years, it is impossible not to deplore that so interesting a theme should have fallen into such incompetent hands. The photographs with which the book is adorned show that material conditions have been much improved under American rule, but the author seems incapable of giving a really intelligent account of the system that has been followed. We know that some $40,000,000 has been collected from the taxation of imports, but we are left altogether in the dark as to the wisdom with which it has been expended. The debates in Congress indicate that the economic condition of Cuba is unsatisfactory, and it would be interesting to learn whether or not the revenues of the country have been wasted in extravagant improvements when they could have been applied to the relief of industry.

Instead of facts of this kind, the reader is treated to pages of indiscriminate adulation of those officers of our army who have been stationed in Cuba. These gentlemen may well beg to be delivered from such friends as Mr. Bangs. They may enjoy appreciation without relishing abject sycophancy, and might well prefer to have their deeds speak for themselves rather than to have them advertised by a too obsequious civilian. There is some attempt at fine writing in the book, but the style is rather slovenly. It is not clear what is meant by the assertion that "the betrayal of their trusts by the convicted men of the Cuban Postal Service is not an unmixed blessing." More intelligible is the statement that "within a period of eight months, the health of the city of Santiago became quite as salubrious," etc.

Finland: Its Public and Private Economy. By N. C. Frederiksen, formerly professor of Political Economy and Finance in the University of Copenhagen. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 300.

In view of the present widespread interest in Finland and the Finnish people, an accessible book, dealing with the subject in a serious and at the same time popular manner, is very welcome. Professor Frederiksen's eleven chapters are concerned with the civilization, agriculture, forestry, industries, commerce, navigation and fisheries, money and banking, means of communication, exchequer, and civic duties, and, finally, with the Government of Finland and its future. On these topics the author has succeeded—with limitations that will be noted further on—in gathering within a very narrow compass a great deal of information which, on the whole, is presented in a readable form.

Like the rest of the world, Finland has made rapid material progress during the last century, but it differs from many other countries with a more highly developed parliamentary government in having its finances in a very flourishing condition, the budget balancing with a good surplus, while the state owns valuable assets worth several times more than the inconsiderable public debt, which has, moreover, been wholly incurred for productive purposes. In the matter of private economy the resources and industries of the country show a marked development, the rapidity of which will be apparent from the statement that the value of the manufactured products, which in 1887 was estimated at 114 million marks ($22,800,000), in 1899 had risen to about 300,000,000 ($60,000,000). In 1887 each manufacturing plant had on an average eight workmen and an annual output valued at 20,000 marks, while in 1898 the same averages were twelve workmen and 36,000 marks. The wages received by the workmen vary for the different trades; they may be said to average about 800 marks a year, to which must be added, in some cases, free house rent and firewood. As several members of a family often are wage-earners, these incomes compare very favorably with those of the agricultural laborers, not excluding the peasant proprietors.

Finland, like the United States, has vast tracts of public lands, and the lengthy review of the land laws of Finland would, therefore, be of especial interest in this country if it were clearer than, unfortunately, is the case. The Government lands of Finland are, according to the author, opened up for settlers on very liberal terms, but what these terms are one may read through the entire chapter without being able to find out. The law

"is not unlike the American Homestead Law, which gives grants of land on the condition of cultivating a small part and paying an insignificant fee. It has been decided that these crown lands which are fit for cultivation shall be separated from the forest land, surveyed, mapped out, assessed for taxation, and offered to people who wish to settle. The settlers are to have an additional advantage [additional to what?], that for the first fifteen years they are entirely exempt from taxation, and have to pay only half-taxes for the next five, while they may, perhaps, get this exemption extended to forty years. The taxation is very moderate, being only from two to twelve Finnish *penni* (*i. e.*, from a farthing to a penny) per hectare."

On the whole, it may be said that the greatest fault of the book is a lack of concise statement and statistics. Statistical tables do not make a book readable, but they convey a deal of information to those who are in need of it. From the present book such tables are almost entirely absent.

The author, in a kind of prefatory note, thanks Mr. Edward H. Cooper of London for advice and careful coöperation in respect of his English text. Still greater care might, it seems, have been exercised. The book appears, simultaneously with the English, in a French and a Danish edition. The last was probably the original, and some of the English expressions seem to be due to faulty translation. Thus, on page 25, decisions, in the sentence, "There are *decisions* about enforcing this system in the Finnish laws as early as the fourteenth century," probably stands for "provisions," the Danish word "bestemmelser" meaning both. Whether the following passage is due to a slovenly translation or slovenly thinking, may be questioned:

"Rye, which was introduced by the Swedes in very early times, superseded barley to some extent in the *eighteenth century*, and still later it was largely replaced by oats. In the fourteenth century rye was cultivated only in parts of Southern Finland. In the eighteenth century it became, however, the most important material for bread, and is now cultivated as far as the 64th and 65th degrees of latitude. In the years subsequent to 1870 the cultivation of rye increased enormously, *but later still, after 1887, it gave place to oats.*"

"Finland contains about 1,100,000 sheep." "The number of sheep owned by the poorer class of peasant is, however, increasing as they grow more prosperous."

"The duty on maize in Finland, as in Sweden, is a great difficulty in the way of keeping and fattening pigs; it is 2 marks 25 *penni* (about 45 cents) per 100 kilos on all maize coming from other countries than Russia, *and to bring it from Russia does not pay so well.*"

It would, we think, have been more correct to translate the Swedish word *gran* (*Abies excelsa*, or rather *Picea excelsa*) by "spruce," which is its regular commercial name, than by "fir"; the more so as the Swedish word rendered "pine," *fura*, is the etymological counterpart of the word "fir," and also commercially goes by the name of "Scotch fir."

It will have been observed from these quotations that the author occasionally brings forward his own opinions about things. In fact, he greatly overdoes this, for his opinions embrace almost the whole field of human knowledge. Some of the opinions seem rather naïve:

"If we remember the good result of the last budget, as well as the by no means excessive duty now demanded on articles so well able to pay duty as alcoholic liquors and tobacco, we find that it would be quite possible to abolish entirely all the other duties. In fact, they are all detrimental to the economic life of the country, *and they are causing difficulties at the custom-house.*"

The author is a thorough admirer of the "Anglo-Saxon." On the very first page of the book we read: "At present the highest stage of all [civilization] has been reached in England and the United States." It would be interesting to see if the French edition contains the same statement.

Religion in Recent Art: Expository Lectures on Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Watts, Holman Hunt, and Wagner. By P. T. Forsyth. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Edwin S. Gorham. 1902.

It is a relief to the conscientious reviewer that Mr. Forsyth confesses in his preface that "he trusts much to the ability of the skilful reader to skip," for it is only by the liberal use of this ability that we have found it possible to read the book at all. To put it frankly, this is almost the most wordy and repetitious book that we have ever seen, and its author shows a truly remarkable ability to spread one small idea over many pages, turning and twisting the expression of it, exclaiming and orating, but adding nothing whatever thereto. The system is such that it hardly matters what you skip, for any one sentence on a page is as good as any other to indicate the general drift; you may choose one at hazard, with confidence that the others are only slight variations of it, and turn a page or two, lucky if you find anything different at the second dip.

Mr. Forsyth's "religion in art" has nothing to do with ecclesiastical decoration or Biblical illustration. His thesis is that great art has a spiritual content, regardless of its formal subject, and that what the artist, consciously or unconsciously, tells you of the soul is his religion. Thus we have Rossetti; or, The Religion of Natural Passion—Burne-Jones; or, The Religion of Præternatural Imagination—Watts; or, The Religion of Supernatural Hope—and Holman Hunt; or, The Religion of Spiritual Faith. In his search for meanings, Mr. Forsyth claims the right to find them whether or no they were intentionally put there by the artist, but he is, naturally, best pleased with the conscious allegorizing and didacticism of Watts and Hunt, and it hardly needs his assurance to convince us that the book would never have been written but for the opportunity of dealing with these two. The artistic value of Watts's work we take to be very great, that of Hunt's work to be relatively small, but each has chosen to confuse the art value of his work with its value as thought, and to rest his claim to serious consideration on what is really of least importance. The allegories of Watts do no harm—they "will not bite" more than those of Spenser; but the "thoughts," in so far as they are definite and translatable into words, might be conveyed in pictures not worth the canvas they were painted on. Mr. Watts chooses to think them all-important, and he is, therefore, the delight of preachers and expounders of meanings, such as Mr. Forsyth, for in this case there can be no doubt that the meanings really were put there with *malice prepense.*

It would, however, be a poor expounder who could not explain more than was ever said, and Mr. Forsyth manages to find things, even in the pictures of Watts, that can hardly have been intended. We all know the noble "Love and Death," and its allegory is obvious enough; but see Mr. Forsyth add to it:

"And, chief of all," he says, "a great light falls upon the figures' back, and we remember that we never see the dawn upon death till it has gone by; that we get to know our angels when they have left us, and that we mark the sunlight on the graves only when they have well grown green. The source of the light, you further mark, is not

in the picture; and so the hope in our latter end is no ray from within our visible frame of things, but from a life and a world beyond."

And so on. One can only feel helpless, and mildly inquire how else the picture could be lighted—how the shadow was to fall upon Love unless the light were outside the frame and at the back of the figure of Death, and if we are really to accept the physical necessities of the composition as a new allegory more important than the original one?

The book is handsomely printed, and light in the hand, and the eight reproductions are very well done.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, Mrs. G. R. Unto the End. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Allen, F. S. What's What? The Bradley-White Co.
Atkinson, A. A. Electrical and Magnetic Calculations. D Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Banks, Nancy H. Oldfield: A Kentucky Tale of the Last Century. Macmillan. $1.50.
Barr, Robert. A Prince of Good Fellows. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Bassett, Mary E. S. Judith's Garden. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Belloc, H. The Path to Rome. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Bevan, E. R. The Prometheus Bound of Aeschylus. London: David Nutt. 5s.
Blaisdell, A. F. Life and Health. Ginn & Co.
Bolot, Sous-Intendant. La Grande Muette. Paris: Ernest Flammarion. 3 fr. 50.
Bourne, H. E. The Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and the Secondary School. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Bowen, B. L. A First Scientific French Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Brooke-Hunt, Violet. The Story of Westminster Abbey. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Brooks, H. S. Progression to Immortality. A. Wessels Co. 50 cents.
Burt, Mary E., and Cable, Lucy L. Don Quixote de la Mancha. Scribners. 60 cents.
Cable, G. W. Bylow Hill. Scribners. $1.25.
Carlyle, Thomas. Past and Present. (Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Carmichael, Montgomery. The Life of Sir John William Walshe. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Chase, F. H. The Credibility of the Book of the Acts of the Apostles: Being the Hulsean Lectures for 1900-1901. Macmillan. $1.75.
"C. R. S." Eton Idylls. Oxford, Eng.: B. H. Blackwell. 1s.
Davitt, Michael. The Boer Fight for Freedom. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $2.
Dean, Howard. The Iron Hand. Abbey Press. $1.
"Delta." Charades. Cambridge (Mass.): Charles W. Sever & Co.
Dean, J. M. The Cross of Christ in Bolo-Land. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Douglass, F. A. Col. Harold de Lacey. F. Tennyson Neely Co.
Fenn, G. M. Old Gold; or, The Cruise of the "Jason" Brig. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Fick, August. Das alte Lied vom Zorne Achills. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Flint, C. R., Hill, J. J., Bridge, J. H., Dodd, S. C. T., and Thurber, F. B. The Trust: Its Book. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Fowke, Gerard. Archæological History of Ohio. Columbus, O.: Ohio State Archæological and Historical Society.
Francis, V. E. Advanced French Prose Composition. American Book Co. 80 cents.
Gibbons, W. F. Those Black Diamond Men. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Greenough, J. B., and Kittredge, G. L. Select Orations and Letters of Cicero. Ginn & Co.
Hancock, H. I. Life at West Point. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.40.
Headlam, Cecil. The Story of Chartres. (Mediæval Towns.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Hill, Grace L. An Unwilling Guest. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1.
Hodgson, F. C. The Early History of Venice. London: George Allen; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Holland, Clive. My Japanese Wife. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Huntington, A. M. Poem of the Cid: Translation. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $25.
Ilchester, The Countess of, and Stavordale, Lord. The Life and Letters of Lady Sarah Lennox, 1745-1826. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $4.
Job, H. K. Among the Waterfowl. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.35.
Jordan, D. S., and Heath, Harold. Animal Forms: A Second Book of Zoölogy. D. Appleton & Co. $1.10.
Keese, W. L. The Siamese Twins, and Other Poems. Edwin W. Dayton.
Kenyon, Orr. Amor Victor: A Novel of Ephesus and Rome. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Kruger, Gustav, and Smith, C. A. An English-German Conversation Book. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Lane-Poole, Stanley. The Story of Cairo. (Mediæval Towns.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Laurie, Henry. Scottish Philosophy in its National Development. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons: New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Lawrence, W. H. Principles of Architectural Perspective. New ed. Boston: Published by the Author.
Linn, W. A. The Story of the Mormons. Macmillan. $4.
Marsh, C. L. Not on the Chart. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Meade, L. T. The Time of Roses. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Merriman, R. B. Life and Letters of Thomas Cromwell. 2 vols. Henry Frowde. $6.
Mets, J. A. Naval Heroes of Holland. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Montmorency, J. E. G. de. State Intervention in English Education. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Morris, Clara. A Pasteboard Crown. Scribners. $1.50.
Muirhead, J. H. Philosophy and Life, and Other Essays. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Nature Portraits. Text by the Editor of "Country Life in America." Doubleday, Page & Co.
Neumann, Ludwig. Der Schwarzwald. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Oman, Charles. A History of the Peninsular War, Vol. I. Henry Frowde. $4.75.
O'Rell, Max. 'Tween you an' I: Some Little Problems of Life. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.35.
Ostwald, Wilhelm. The Principles of Inorganic Chemistry. Macmillan. $6.
Page, W. H. The Rebuilding of Old Commonwealths. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Pyle, Howard. Some Merry Adventures of Robin Hood. Scribners. 60 cents.
Remains Historical and Literary Connected with the Palatine Counties of Lancaster and Chester, vol. 46, New Series. Manchester, Eng.: Printed for the Chetham Society.
Ripley, N. B. Cordelia, and Other Poems. Abbey Press.
Roberts, C. G. D. Poems. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Kindred of the Wild: A Book of Animal Life. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $2.
Rousiers, Paul de. Hambourg et l'Allemagne contemporaine. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Sabatini, Rafael. The Suitors of Yvonne. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
Sandys, Edwyn, and Van Dyke, T. S. Upland Game Birds. (American Sportsmen's Library.) Macmillan. $2.
Serious Poems of Thomas Hood. (Caxton Reprints.) London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Sherlock, C. R. The Red Anvil. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Sidgwick, Henry. Philosophy, Its Scope and Relations. Macmillan. $2.25.
Sullivan, T. R. The Courage of Conviction. Scribners. $1.50.
Sykes, P. M. Ten Thousand Miles in Persia; or, Eight Years in Iran. Scribners. $6.
Tarr, R. S. The Physical Geography of New York State. Macmillan. $3.50.
Thackeray, W. M. The Memoirs of Barry Lyndon, Esq., and Catherine: A Story. Macmillan. $1.
Trechmann, E. J. Molière: Les Fâcheux. Henry Frowde. 50 cents.
Van Muyden, Madame. A Foreign View of England in the Reigns of George I. and George II.: The Letters of Monsieur César de Saussure to his Family. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Velázquez de la Cadena, Mariano. Nuevo Diccionario de Pronunciación de las Lenguas Inglesa y Española, Segunda Parte. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. $3.50.
Vendryes, J. Recherches sur l'Histoire et les Effets de l'Intensité Initiale en Latin. Paris: C. Klincksieck. 8 fr.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 19, 1902.

The Week.

General Wood was, of course, bound to stand by his action in taking thousands of dollars from the Cuban treasury and giving the money to an American advocate of reciprocity legislation, but he does not mend matters by his explanation. It was his duty, as Military Governor, he says, "to counteract the influence of the powerful Oxnard lobby." What General Wood apparently does not see is, that there was a proper and an improper way of "presenting the case of Cuba and her economic needs to the American people," and that he had no right to use both. He should have told Congress and the country officially, as he did, that the prosperity of Cuba depended upon reciprocity with the United States, but he had no business to go a step further and try "fighting fire with fire." The best proof that it was wrong to use Cuban funds for this purpose is the fact that the matter was kept secret because it was felt that it would hurt the cause of reciprocity—as it plainly has done—if the truth should become known. A fight for a principle is not to be won by opposing a lobby with the weapons of the lobbyist. Congress ought still to pass some measure granting reciprocity, because this is our plain duty, and because our Government is virtually pledged to it. The plea for reciprocity is addressed to the moral sense of the nation, and it is in no wise affected by any wrong which may have been committed in advocating it. The Cubans are not to blame for the poor judgment of their Military Governor, and their interests should not be prejudiced by his mistakes in trying to help them. The incident throws a flood of light on the conditions of military administration of dependencies.

There is no precedent, so far as we can recall, for the endorsement of a President for a second term by conventions of his party meeting more than two years before the next election of the Federal Executive is to be held. Nor was there ever before a case where a man who had been chosen Vice-President and had succeeded to the higher office through the death of his chief, was pledged such support by his party in more than one State before he had been a year in the White House. This is what has happened to Mr. Roosevelt, the Republican State conventions in both Kansas and Pennsylvania having within a fortnight declared for him as their candidate in 1904. "We pledge ourselves," so runs the explicit language of the plank adopted at Harrisburg on June 11, "to his renomination to the great office which he has filled with such ability and patriotism." The Topeka convention declared that "Kansas looks forward with joy to the coming time, but two years distant, when again her delegation, representing a united Republican party, will march under the banners bearing the inscription, 'For President, Theodore Roosevelt.'" It is a noteworthy fact that the Harrisburg pledge comes from a convention controlled by a disreputable boss who seems to get along well with the President; whereas the Republican Senator from Kansas had tried unsuccessfully to boss the party in his State, had opposed Mr. Roosevelt, and had been "turned down" by him more than once, notably in the matter of the Pension Commissionership.

Quay's shrewdness was never so strikingly demonstrated as in his selection of Judge Pennypacker of Philadelphia for nomination as Governor by the Pennsylvania Republican State Convention. "The old man" has learned wisdom during the past dozen years. In 1890 he forced upon an unwilling party the candidacy of that discredited machine politician Delamater, and thereby turned over the Governorship for four years to Pattison, who beat the Republican candidate by 16,554 votes. Eight years earlier, Pattison had also been elected through the folly of the Republican machine, which then insisted upon the nomination of Beaver, and thus provoked a revolt which resulted in the polling of nearly 44,000 votes for an independent Republican, and allowed the Democratic candidate to win by a plurality of about 40,000. This year a man quite as offensive to decent Republicans as was either Beaver in 1882 or Delamater in 1890, Attorney-General Elkin, sought the nomination, but the Senatorial boss refused his consent, and offered instead a judge of ability, high character and corresponding reputation; an historian who lately compared Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, to the disadvantage of the latter (with a bold placing of Quay to Pennsylvania's credit side). Elkin would not submit without a fight, but he could not beat his old master at the trick of packing delegations.

A platform of much better quality than usual is also provided by the Pennsylvania boss this year. The most important planks in any such deliverance are those which relate to Cuba and the Philippines. There is much less "hifalutin" in the resolutions on these questions than could have been expected. Not a word is said about "the flag staying put" in the Philippines. On the contrary, stress is laid upon the progress which has been made in developing native rule, satisfaction is expressed over the fact that "the Filipino people have been started upon the road of self-government," and the way is left open for the acceptance by the party, later on, of the policy of giving the natives independence. The plank regarding Cuba ends with this clear and explicit demand for action by a hesitating Congress:

> "We endorse the recommendation of President Roosevelt, that the United States should enter into reciprocal trade relations with the Republic of Cuba that shall be mutually advantageous to it and to the United States; and all efforts to that end of our representatives in both houses of Congress we cordially endorse."

President Roosevelt writes to the Secretary of the American Unitarian Association—which had protested against a "policy of coercion" in the Philippines, and asked the substitution of a "policy of conciliation and good will"—that there is now almost none of the coercion policy left, "because the insurrection has been so entirely overcome that, save in a very few places, peace—and with peace the 'policy of conciliation and good will'—obtains throughout the Philippines." Mr. Roosevelt says also that the bill regarding the islands which has just passed the Senate, if enacted into law, "will enable us to proceed even more rapidly and efficiently than hitherto along the lines of securing peace, prosperity, and personal liberty to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands." Proceeding more rapidly and efficiently than hitherto signifies nothing except doing what we have done heretofore—that is, killing everything over ten, making a solitude and calling it peace; but if any bill pending in Congress looks towards personal liberty to the inhabitants of the Philippines, it is the House bill, and not the Senate measure. The latter provides only that the President shall order the taking of a census, and that thereafter the Philippine Commission shall report whether they think all or any of the islands are ready for popular representative government. The House bill provides for the election of a legislative body, fixing the time for its meeting, as well as for the choice of two delegates to our Congress. President Taft of the Philippine Commission earnestly favors these fundamental features of the House bill, and it is to be regretted that President Roosevelt in this letter did not endorse the better measure.

The cable reports great activity at the Vatican, and almost as much visiting and card-exchanging between Gov. Taft and the recognized envoys in that quarter as

is now taking place at London in connection with another event. And yet we are solemnly told that Gov. Taft's mission is not diplomacy but business. This might lead to the inquiry, What is diplomacy if it is not business? What is diplomacy for, if not for the transaction of some kind of business? It is not merely for bowing and scraping and exchanging calls. If that had been the object of Mr. Taft's visit, he would not have presented any letter outlining the business which took him to Rome. To ward off the imputation of holding diplomatic relations with the Vatican—which the American people certainly would not approve of—the point has been made that Mr. Taft's letter to the Vatican was from the Secretary of War, not from the Secretary of State. That is of no importance, however. Both Secretaries act under the orders of the President. President Grant negotiated the purchase of the island of San Domingo through an aide-de-camp, and he had a clear Constitutional right to do so. The fact is that we have entered into diplomatic relations with the Vatican. The letter of Secretary Root makes that fact perfectly clear, for if we intend to go on and expropriate the friars in the Philippines, whether the Pope agrees to it or not, then there is no reason why Gov. Taft should consult him at all. If the object of the consultation is to agree upon methods the most satisfactory, or the least distasteful, to the Pope, a consultation to that end is diplomacy.

Announcement was made last week of a combination of ship-yards embracing five on the Atlantic and one on the Pacific Coast. A statement of the plans in contemplation by the members was made by Mr. Lewis Nixon of the Elizabethport yards, and we are pleased to note that the intention is to enter into active competition with English and German builders in supplying ships for all nations. At the present time, Mr. Nixon says, "the yards of this combination have contracts for three years ahead." "Some of us," he adds, "are not content to see Asia and Latin-America going to England and Germany for their vessels, and we propose to put ourselves into shape to secure this work." There it is again. We have often said that Americans could build ships just as cheaply as foreigners, in opposition to the contention of the Commissioner of Navigation at Washington that the cost in this country was $160 per gross ton for steel ships, as against $140 per ton on the other side. We pointed out at the time that the difference cited by the Commissioner was a difference in the charge made by the shipbuilders respectively, but was not necessarily a difference in cost. It might be merely a difference in profit. Mr. Cramp's statement, made in a magazine article some years ago, pointed to that conclusion, as Mr. Nixon's statement does now. Mr. Nixon enlarges upon this theme in a truly patriotic way, and we are moved to congratulate him on his enterprise and foresight. He perhaps overestimates the needs of the United States for war-ships and big guns, but he cannot overestimate the needs of the world's commerce, and he can hardly put too high a value on the skill and resources of American designers, builders, and artisans.

In the *Nineteenth Century* for June, Mr. Edmund Robertson, Q.C., M.P., has an article on the Shipping Combine that introduces a new element into the dispute on his side of the water. The plan of the Morgan syndicate as announced was to organize a company under a charter from some American State, which company should acquire the shares of certain British and American steamship companies. The plan provided, for example, that the seven hundred and fifty shares of the Oceanic Steam Navigation Company (White Star Line) should be so acquired. These are all the shares of that company. The shares of various other British companies were to be similarly acquired, but the ships were to remain under the British flag. Now Mr. Robertson points out that, according to British law, they cannot remain under the British flag. The right of a British owner to sell his ship or his shares to a foreigner is not disputed, but the British law says that no ship shall be deemed British unless wholly owned by British subjects. It is immaterial where the ship is built or what is the nationality of her crew, but the ownership of a British vessel must be British. "If an unqualified person," says the Merchant Shipping Act, "acquires as owner, otherwise than by such transmission as hereinbefore provided for, an interest either legal or beneficial in a ship using a British flag and assuming the British character, that interest shall be subject to forfeiture under this act." Transfers to foreigners without the intention to retain the British character are legal, but other transfers simply forfeit the registry. If Mr. Robertson is right in his contention, the question becomes important, what flag the British-built ships of the Morgan combine will carry. They cannot remain under the British flag, because they are not owned by Britons. They cannot come under the American flag, because they were not built in the United States.

Vice-Chancellor Emery's decision against the Steel Corporation, in the New Jersey suit to prevent the company from converting $200,000,000 preferred stock into bonds, perhaps caused the more surprise because of Judge Lacombe's contrary decision, exactly a week before, in New York city. But the New York suit was brought in a Federal court, and the question on which Judge Lacombe had to rule was the argument that such conversion was unconstitutional. Issue and sale of the preferred stock, the applicants contended, established a contract in perpetuity for the maintenance of existing relations between corporation and shareholder. To alter such relations, in the face of protest by any shareholder, violated such a contract; therefore, it was alleged, both the conversion plan and the law which authorized it must be repugnant to the Federal Constitution. Judge Lacombe thought otherwise, ruling distinctly that "permanency in the relative proportions of the different securities was no part of the contract." The ground of the New Jersey suit is different, and the Vice-Chancellor's decision does not, therefore, contravene Judge Lacombe. It follows very broad lines of equity. It sweeps aside all question of a contract, goes behind the outward form of exchange of bonds for shares, and defines the proposed operation as a distribution of assets to shareholders. Such distribution, if permissible under the present circumstances—and the court does not say it is—must be absolutely made *pro rata*. If the company chooses to stipulate such conditions as surrender of shares in exchange for the credit assets distributed, it must see to it that all shareholders assent to the condition. If any shareholder refuses such assent, the company nevertheless must hold itself ready to provide him his due proportion. It cannot transfer to any other person the proportional right in question. But the Steel Trust's conversion plan explicitly provides that in case the offer "shall not be accepted by holders of preferred stock to the full extent of $250,000,000 bonds," the company shall then issue to the banking syndicate, in exchange for preferred stock and cash, upon the same terms, the bonds not accepted by any shareholder.

As a landmark in American public finance, the fact is interesting that outstanding gold certificates have, for the first time in our history, reached a total equal to outstanding United States notes. Since the Act of May 31, 1878, stopping the cancellation of legal tenders, the amount outstanding has remained fixed at $346,861,016. On June 10, Treasury certificates issued against the deposit of gold with the Government, and circulating as money, showed an aggregate of $347,021,089. Comparisons have been made at Washington with the opening months of 1895, when the country's gold fund reached low level. Not the least curious among these comparisons is that as to outstanding gold certificates. As against the very large total just referred to, there were afloat on February 1, 1895, only $52,985,000. The immense increase since that time, however, is perfectly comprehensible. Within the seven subsequent years, the esti-

mated increase in this country's total money circulation has been $640,000,000, which has hardly been in excess of the normal demands of expanding trade. Such an increase could not have come from the legal-tender notes. The old greenbacks were limited in amount, and the Treasury notes of 1890 have actually been reduced, since 1900, though with an equivalent issue in silver dollars or certificates. National banknotes are, it is true, some $150,000,000 larger in amount than when 1895 began; but these are now decreasing. Therefore the needs for increased currency supplies have been filled from the gold markets of the world, and the gold has passed into circulation in the form of certificates. At the present date, 41 per cent. of the country's estimated circulation is in the form of gold.

Although there has been little in Connecticut politics for months other than the question of reform in legislative representation, when the subject was submitted concretely to the electors on Monday, in the adoption or rejection of the new Constitution, much apathy was shown. This may have been due, in part, to the fact that there was little in the document to invite support. But, on the other hand, its adoption would have continued indefinitely the present inequitable system of representation, and would have placed serious obstacles in the path of Constitutional reform. It is surprising, therefore, that the cities did not cast a larger vote in opposition. For the opportunity of reform yet afforded them by the rejection of the Constitution they are largely indebted to the selfish voters in the little towns, who were influenced either by their resentment over the larger representation grudgingly granted to the cities by the Constitutional Convention, or by the fact that under the plan proposed they would lose one of their two Representatives.

When Mr. Chamberlain seems to be blinding all eyes with his schemes for Imperial Federation—incidentally evading the criticism of sundry dubious past deeds—it is gratifying to find in an influential Canadian journal a disposition to examine the whole matter coldly, in the light of reason. The Toronto *Globe*, the chief organ of Liberal opinion, while not unfriendly to the idea of an Imperial Zollverein, still sees the great difficulties in the way, and suggests caution in counsel. Politically, it remarks, a tariff union must offend all English free-traders and many colonial protectionists. Mr. Borden, the Canadian Minister of War, who is now in London, appears to be of the same mind, as he virtually rebuked an over-zealous fellow-countryman last week for his tariff-union activities. The more far-sighted of the Canadian Liberals see clearly that this proposed tariff union must preclude reciprocal arrangements with other countries. In a period of prosperity, Canada may not feel the pressure of the present disadvantageous tariff relations with the United States and Germany, but prosperity cannot last for ever, and a year of crop failures would show Canada the folly of limiting her markets. Sir Wilfrid Laurier undoubtedly is a convinced Imperialist, but he will hardly put the commercial policy of the Dominion in the hands of a brilliant Colonial Secretary with a past to retrieve.

The seriousness of the situation is not fully grasped, even in London, and Washington is completely indifferent to a matter of the highest concern. Mr. Chamberlain has so often played Imperial Federation as a matter of temporary expediency that it is hard to realize not only that he is committed at last to his own doctrine, but that he has brought over an unwilling Ministry to his project. On no other ground can we account for the failure to strike the corn tax from the war schedule. There is undoubtedly danger that Great Britain may be dragged out of her position of light and leading into the confusion of tariff warfare. We need hardly say that our farmers would feel very quickly the effect of a preferential on colonial wheat, and it is strange that even the protectionists do not take every step to avert such a discrimination. If it should be asked how Congress at Washington can influence Mr. Chamberlain and the colonial premiers in conference, the answer flies to meet the question: Negotiate promptly a reasonable reciprocity treaty with Canada. The Canadians desire it, for their possible English market is small compared with what their American market might be. And certainly our grain-growers will see that no importation of Canadian grain can hit them so hard as the restriction of the British market would. Mr. Chamberlain's scheme may, of course, break of its own unwieldiness—we trust it will; but Congress could at any moment put a spoke in the Zollverein wheel, to the great advantage of both Canada and the United States. Here is an opportunity for the Democrats and for the enlightened Republicans who follow Congressman Babcock.

If the Irish Nationalists are never so happy as when they are unhappy, they must be in a quite ecstatic mood just now, with troubles thickening upon them as they are. In addition to "proclaiming" the United Irish League, the Government has set on foot a legal process to restrain the agitation for compulsory expropriation of Irish landlords. The weapon selected is a writ of injunction against the Nationalist leaders. By means of it the hope is that every orator and agitator may be held in contempt of court, with imprisonment and ruinous fines and the liability to have all his papers attached staring him in the face. This would be "government by injunction" with a vengeance. It may succeed, though, if it does, it will be the first time that a policy of repression and coercion in Ireland has accomplished anything but the firmer union of the people in a more passionate hatred of English rule. Already the Nationalists are accepting the challenge and flaming against the Government. "We shall have stirring times at the coronation," says Mr. John Redmond exultantly. It certainly seems a pity that the pacification of the Boers should have come in time for the ceremony, but only to emphasize the inextinguishable bitterness of a nation at England's door. The revival of Irish clamor and of Irish hate at this time is only one melancholy illustration more of the failure of that English policy in Ireland which even so stout a Tory as Coleridge called one long record of imbecility and weakness.

The impressive majority by which the French Chamber of Deputies sustained the new Premier on Thursday—the vote was 329 to 124—is no sign that his programme of tax reform will have effectual support. Naturally the groups which have agreed upon the selection of a Prime Minister may be counted upon to give him at least one formal vote; no one but the Duc de Broglie, we believe, has been so unlucky as to be voted down at the first session of a new Parliament. It was the oratory of M. Jaurès which gave distinction to the otherwise conventional debate of Thursday. His declaration that *revanche* for Alsace-Lorraine is now a counsel of folly expressed what the more thoughtful in France feel, but dare not say. His demonstration that the Franco-Russian alliance promises not the restoration of lost territory, but the maintenance of the *status quo*, was illuminating. Many who by no means follow Jaurès in his theory of disarmament, will begin to question the value of a formidable alliance that only guarantees a *status quo* which is nowhere threatened. It was his speech which gave significance to a session otherwise devoted to safe Ministerial promises of economy and tax reform. His obvious friendliness to the new Radical Ministry may be taken as a sign that Premier Combes may, for the present at least, reckon upon the support of the Parliamentary Socialists, M. Waldeck-Rousseau's faithful allies. But of course the test of the new Government, which starts out auspiciously, will come when it presents, or fails to present, its promised progressive income tax. Majorities as large as M. Combes's first have melted away with amazing rapidity.

"TEACHING THE PRESIDENT A LESSON."

All the Washington dispatches agree that the President has addressed himself to Congress in vain, and that Cuban reciprocity is beaten. His special message has only intensified existing antagonisms, and widened instead of closing the breach in his own party. His outspoken enemies within the Republican ranks had already burned their bridges behind them, and continue defiant; his half-hearted supporters are more than ever reeds shaken in the wind. Thus, in spite of Republican pledge and boast, and notwithstanding the President's bold summons, there is every indication, as we go to press, that Congress will adjourn without lifting a finger in aid of Cuba.

This effect defective comes by cause, and what that cause is, the Washington politicians take no pains to conceal. They have used the Cuban business simply as a convenient club with which to punish the President. As a leading Republican of the House explains the case, "We have had to teach Mr. Roosevelt a lesson." That is to say, they did not love Cuba less, but disliked the President more. In his Cuban policy he could be easiest thwarted and humiliated, and their accumulated rancor and resentment they decided to glut in defeating him on that battle-field. That, we firmly believe, is the true explanation of his failure. He had affronted the most powerful managers of his party. They have not liked his ways, they have determined to blight his political prospects, and so, by means of the Cuban question, have undertaken to set him the "lesson" that no President who ventures to assert his independence of the politicians can get any favors from Congress, or hope for a renomination. That is the real political significance of the Cuban fiasco.

Few people not in close touch with affairs at Washington have known how large is the number of Congressmen hugging secret grievances against President Roosevelt. In public, of course, they have spoken as his supporters; but those behind the scenes have understood that it was but another case of Pitt and the great nobles. "They supported him," writes Lord Rosebery, "on their necks, for his foot was there." Mr. Roosevelt has heaped up slights to members of Congress—or what they consider slights. They have long regarded themselves as a privileged guild. Theirs it was to name public officers, to determine party policy, to make patronage wash legislation as one hand washes another; and there were certain rules of the political game, as it was played between the Capitol and the White House, which they had come to think of as possessing the force of imprescriptible law. But President Roosevelt has not observed those rules. He has been horribly irregular. He has appointed men to office without first consulting Representatives and Senators. In endless instances he has rejected their recommendations. Their sensibilities he has ruffled, their arrogance he has given cold douches. He has done it smilingly, even hilariously, as if he thought that was just the sort of thing they would like. But they have not liked it, and they have silently bided their time. In the Cuban imbroglio they saw their great opportunity, and are now chuckling with delight to think how they have utilized it to make him know his place. They have, they say, sent the young man to school.

To be entirely frank, we think that there were certain "lessons" which the President needed to be taught in this Cuban affair. One of them was that he had entirely underestimated the cohesive power of the protectionist system of public plunder. He asserted in his off-hand way that a reduction in the duties on Cuban products had nothing to do with tariff revision. He thought he could throw cold water on all other reciprocity treaties, and still obtain Cuban reciprocity. That was the great mistake of his annual message to Congress. It was but a jaunty view of the situation which he then took. He should be wiser now. He has been taught that a protective tariff is only a system of balancing one selfish interest against another; that each one thinks it has a vested right to its own share of the spoils; and that it will rage like a bear robbed of its whelps against all the others if they dare to touch the part of the law written for its benefit. To talk of "honor" to men with such an idea of their protectionist booty well in hand, was to use to them an unknown language. This is a truth which, we may presume, the President has now learned in the dear school of experience.

The other lesson which the events of the past six months should have enabled him to master is, the true secret of his political power. Whenever he has tried to be "practical," he has failed. Roosevelt as a practical man always reminds us of Disraeli's definition of the practical man—the one who practises the errors of his predecessors. In that way he does not get on a step. When he diplomatically puts himself into the hands of the politicians, the invariable result is their triumph and his own undoing. This fact glares at one from his Cuban experience. For six months he has been dealt with insincerely by his Congressional advisers. They have cheated him throughout with false promises. They tricked him into believing that his wisest course was to trust to them, and not appeal over their heads to the people. When it was too late, when the psychological moment for a Cuban message was long past, he did, indeed, come out in an appeal to the country. But, alas, he found it jaded with the long discussions and delays, the summer break-up already upon it, and the adjournment of Congress obviously near, and he got but a feeble response compared with that which would have echoed through the land had he spoken out three months ago. Not in such secret negotiations, in such bartering, and bargaining, and being "diplomatic," lies the hiding of Roosevelt's power, but in clear honesty, in dauntless courage, and in flouting of the boss while going direct to the people.

Every one can see that the present crisis is big with the political fate of President Roosevelt. His defeat in the Cuban matter has been brought about by political managers who are hostile to him in their hearts, and who are determined to prevent his renomination. If he falters, or compromises with them, he is lost. But he can beat them all if he remains "unshaken, unseduced, unterrified," another Abdiel. The politicians are teaching the country a lesson, as well as the President. People see how the bosses are quietly endeavoring to monopolize all forms of the political activity of the nation. From primary to Cabinet their ambition runs, as they would have their power extend. This conditions of things the majority of Americans look upon with loathing. The system is fairly forcing the people out of doors to become statesmen, as was said of the English Conservatives. But a leader is necessary in the revolt against the tyranny of the machine, and if President Roosevelt chose to fling himself upon the popular sympathies and support, and assert the right of the people to govern themselves without consulting the bosses, he could make himself strong enough to defy the confederated politicians.

THE STRIKE UNVEILED.

Sooner than could have been expected, the President's inquiry, through Labor Commissioner Wright, into the causes of the coal strike, has borne fruit. It has given us the correspondence between the operators and the miners, previous to the strike. This yields more light on the controversy than the public has before had. It makes clear the attitude of both employers and men. What the latter demanded, and the reasons the former gave for refusing to grant it, we now know for the first time. All doubt as to the merits of the dispute, or as to the one way in which it can be settled, is removed by the letters made public on June 11. We have at last a breath of wholesome publicity, and its value is instantly apparent.

Why the correspondence had been kept back so long, we can only guess. President Mitchell expresses his surprise, if not pain, at the action of the operators in publishing it, and almost intimates a breach of good faith. But if it all was certain to reach the pub-

lic, in the end, by means of a report to President Roosevelt, it is just as well to cut short the process and let us have the documents at once. In them any one can see reasons why both sides should have felt a little reluctance to make the facts public. We see the operators admitting a past blunder, and determined now to retrieve it, if possible —at any rate, not to repeat it. We discover the miners taking a most unreasonable position, and coolly proposing in private to mulct the dear public to which they were only appealing for sympathy. There was this awkwardness for either party in publicity; and that fact, together with a secret hope of a secret settlement, may have led to the steady befogging of the public in the whole affair. But a west wind has now blown away the fog, and the actual situation lies plain to every eye.

First, we note the tacit confession of the operators. It lies implicitly in their argument against doing now what they practically did in 1900. They point out the absurdity of trying to assimilate conditions in anthracite mines to those in the bituminous field; they show how the different mines in the hard-coal region present such differing problems that a uniform rate of wages among them all is impossible; they assert that an agreement on a wage scale for a year is unbusinesslike; they resent union dictation, and say they must be allowed to manage their own affairs. Very good; but in 1900, under political pressure in a Presidential campaign, they assented to every one of these particulars. In other words, they then allowed the camel's head to be inserted, and they now have to fight desperately to prevent the animal from occupying the whole tent, or else knocking it flat over their heads.

The arguments which the operators give for retracing their steps are certainly conclusive. In 1900 they increased wages 10 per cent., but their books show that the result was a diminished efficiency on the part of the miners of 12 per cent., on the average. This year the demand was for a further increase of 20 per cent. in wages. The owners might well be staggered if this portended a further decrease in efficiency of 24 per cent., reckoning the amount of coal mined per man. Saying nothing about this, they offered President Mitchell, as they offer Commissioner Wright, free access to their books to prove that they could not advance wages with coal at its present selling price.

What was the secret answer of the labor leader to this? Why, a cool urging of the operators to raise the price of coal to a figure which would make up the difference! He was told, in other words, that the owners found the union miners very idle and arrogant and wasteful and unproductive; they did not keep to their contracts, they did not obey the law of Pennsylvania, they did not mine coal as they should. Very well, was President Mitchell's calm reply, raise the price of coal to the public, and then you can afford to pay the increased wages we demand. The best comment on this is a story told the other day by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, recounting the advice given by an Englishman, a Scotchman, and an Irishman respectively to a gentleman whose servant was constantly breaking articles in the household. The Englishman, in his blunt, honest way, said to the employer, "Oh, get rid of him—dismiss him." The Scotchman's advice was, "Stop the money out of his wages." "But," said the master, "he breaks more than his wages amount to." "Then," said the Irishman, "raise his wages."

The operators do not fail to point out another reason why wages cannot be raised, with the effect of increasing the price of anthracite. The coal has to be sold in competition with bituminous. The latter, is, in fact, encroaching all the time upon the market for hard coal, and would instantly profit by any further advantage in comparative price. It should not have been necessary to tell this to President Mitchell, as he is a bituminous miner, and represents a union primarily of workers in the soft-coal fields. This is one absurdity of his union—it attempts to combine miners of different products in severe competition. But it is pretty evident that he cared for none of these things. His strike was not an economic movement, but one half-political, half-sentimental. He evidently thought to repeat his success of 1900, when Senator Hanna came to his rescue. But the Chairman of the Republican National Committee in a Presidential year, and the leading spirit of the Civic Federation now, are two very different men. Political pressure could not be applied in 1902 as it was two years ago. President Mitchell's reckoning upon that influence went wrong.

Nor does it seem that his offer of arbitration was much better conceived. It has, indeed, an air of shrewdness to propose to leave all questions to Archbishop Ireland and Bishop Potter, with a third man to be named by them, but it can scarcely impose upon practical people. Arbitrators must know something about the thing to be arbitrated. We have always wished that the operators could have seen their way to refer the controversy to a competent and impartial arbitration; but if none such was suggested, and if, as would appear to be the case, the chief thing in dispute was the demand of a heterogeneous labor union, not able to control its own men and confessedly wasteful and inefficient, to be allowed further to take the management of the coal business out of the hands of the operators, and make the consuming public foot the bill—we do not see how arbitration could well apply. A foolish strike can be settled only by the foolish strikers going back to work. We look to see that result greatly hastened by the revelation to the public of the indefensible nature of the position taken by the miners.

AN INVESTIGATION ON THE SPOT.

A petition was presented in the House on Thursday by Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, asking that Congress send a committee of its own members to the Philippine Islands, to make an investigation on the spot of the needs of the islands and of the duties of the United States in reference to them. The petition was signed by Charles Francis Adams, Andrew Carnegie, Carl Schurz, Edwin Burritt Smith, and Herbert Welsh as a committee of the Anti-Imperialist Leagues of the United States.

The reasons assigned for such an investigation are overwhelmingly strong. The strongest of all is the fact that there are fundamental differences between the civil and the military authorities as to what ought to be done or permitted in the way of self-government in the islands, and these differences have found expression in the opposing bills now pending in Congress. Gov. Taft and Acting Governor Wright desire to have a legislative assembly elected by the people without delay, and vested with certain powers of self-government, including the sending of commissioners to the United States. Their views have been embodied in a bill reported to the House by the Committee on Insular Affairs. The Lodge bill, which has passed the Senate, is based upon different ideas. It proposes to continue the present régime indefinitely. Probably the House will maintain its own bill against that of the Senate, and then there will be conference committees, of which some compromise measure will be the issue. The fact that such grave differences exist among the authorities of the islands, and in Congress itself, is a sufficient reason, if there were no other, for an investigation on the spot.

There are other reasons, however, for such an investigation. We have never had a coroner's inquest on any of the victims of torture and assassination in the islands. We have had courts-martial, but never a trial by jury of the vicinage. The facts which have reached us from time to time, and which are still coming, have been distorted by distance and by attempted concealment. The Filipinos have had no representation. The testimony of Sixto Lopez was refused by the Senate Investigating Committee, although he was here in person. Is it not time to give a hearing to the people who are most interested in the government of the Philippines? Have not the American people also an interest in learning the truth? And how can the truth be learned except by hearing both sides?

When the first reports of torture and murder leaked out at Washington, they evoked a cry of horror from all parts of the country, and President Roosevelt echoed the common feeling when he sent his dispatch to Gen. Chaffee, in which he declared that nothing would be held to excuse the infliction of torture by American soldiers. It really looked as though something would be done in the way of punishing the guilty, of preventing outrages, and especially of stopping the suppression of the facts. But the reformation was short-lived. A counter-cry was started, that those who accused Waller and Smith of barbarity were "attacking the army." They were starting "a fire in the rear" of our boys in blue. According to this theory, anybody who wore the blue could do anything he liked *except* complain against another boy in blue.

If Waller gave an order to massacre his baggage-carriers, he was the army; but the subordinate officer who protested against the order—what or who was he? Was he attacking the army when he said that it would be an act of wanton cruelty to shoot these men? When the court-martial found Lieut. Preston Brown guilty of shooting an unarmed prisoner in his custody, and sentenced him to five years at hard labor in the penitentiary, were the officers of this court attacking the army? If they were not, how could it be said that anybody else who disapproved of the acts of Lieut. Brown and his kind was attacking the army? Yet this counter-cry had a considerable effect on the minds of Republicans, who feared that their party would lose ground by reason of the barbarities practised upon a distant people who were struggling for liberty, and who had never harmed or offended us.

That there is a chapter of horrors in those islands yet uncovered there is too much reason to believe, since new cases are coming to light almost daily. A few days ago the report of Capt. West (hitherto suppressed) on charges of cruelty preferred against Lieut. Arnold of Iowa came out accidentally. On Tuesday week came a report from Manila, where another court-martial was "attacking the army" by accusing Major Glenn and Lieut. Gaujot of cruelty in administering the water cure to Filipinos. It is another step in our Rake's Progress that Major Glenn treated the affair jauntily, and contended that the water cure was not painful. Why he should take the trouble to administer it if it were not painful he did not explain, but his counsel offered to prove that the water cure was a common practice in New York when Theodore Roosevelt was a Police Commissioner. This lie was properly excluded. Lieut. Gaujot, the dispatch says, "offered no defence; he admitted that he had administered the water cure to three priests." On Thursday the testimony of Mark H. Evans, formerly of the Thirty-second Volunteer Infantry, was taken by the Senate Committee. He "attacked the army" by testifying to seeing the water cure administered in the Province of Batan; also to the burning of villages where insurgents were located. He also related incidents where natives were ducked under water for half a minute at a time, to compel them to tell where arms were concealed.

If there were no other reason for an investigation on the spot, the fact that all the testimony obtainable from the War Department on this subject leaks out by chance, or has to be dragged out by main strength, would itself be ample.

A CURB FOR "PETTY BOSSES."

The threatened withdrawal of Congressman Burton of Cleveland, in resentment at the interference with his campaign by some of Hanna's office-holders, appears to have been averted. It is said that the trouble has been compromised. But before it is forgotten, the occasion should be seized to point out the fact that the meddling of Federal officials in party politics has again become a vice in our public service, requiring the attention of the President. Mr. Burton's case shows the lengths which the evil has run. His disgust was so great at the arrogance of what he calls the "petty bosses" who hold the Federal offices in Cleveland, that he proposed not to stand for Congress again. This would have meant the loss to his party not only of a valuable Representative, but very likely of a seat in the House. The difficulty has been patched up, the dispatches say, but the time is evidently coming when President Roosevelt will have to issue an order defining and curbing the partisan activities of Federal office-holders.

Few realize how insidiously this mischief reared its head anew during President McKinley's term of office. Under the shadow of his benevolent indifference, postmasters and collectors resumed their old habits of running conventions and managing campaigns. Van Cott and Bidwell in this city, for example, figured as district leaders and county committeemen, just as if we were still in the mire of the spoils system. The old Executive prohibitions were allowed to lapse; and how naturally the office-holders took up again the notion that their first duty was to the party machine, we see by the Cleveland episode. Congressman Burton's protest ought to bring it smartly home to the President that the hour for rebuking and suppressing this pernicious practice has arrived.

We are the more emboldened to hope that he will take prompt and effective action when we remember how properly and resolutely he has exerted his authority in the case of other Federal employees. There was Funston. He came home with voluble and indecent out cries against public men and newspapers in this country that dared to "talk" about the Philippines. There was far too much talking, he vociferated. "Right you are," said the President swiftly, "as far as army officers are concerned; so you will kindly hold your peace from this time forth." Then we have the more recent case of the clerk in the War Department who was dismissed for writing letters to the press over her own name, reflecting upon the President. That could not be tolerated. It was insubordination. But what we maintain is that the impropriety was no greater, the injury to the public service no more evident, the demand for Executive intervention no more imperative, than in the case of Federal office-holders who undertake to run errands and do dirty work for party bosses.

One glance backward will show from what moorings the Federal service has been allowed slowly to drift. President Hayes issued a civil-service order in 1877 in which he said: "No officer [of the general Government] should be required or permitted to take part in the management of political organizations, caucuses, conventions, or political campaigns." That was definite, and laid down the correct principle. It had, too, an immediate effect, though later on the order was not rigidly enforced. President Cleveland's order of July 19, 1886, was more vague, unfortunately, using the elastic term "pernicious activity." But the end he aimed at was explicitly stated by him in the cases of the removed District Attorneys, in November of that year: it was the suppression of "the use of official influence in political campaigns," together with the "avoiding any pretence of control over the political action of others by reason of official place." In general, Mr. Cleveland held that "active partisan service" was improper in a Federal office-holder. Certainly the practical effect of his attitude and his orders was to free us from such scandals as we have seen under the present régime in Manhattan and in Brooklyn, and as have come to the surface so sensationally in Cleveland. Mr. Roosevelt should not let the opportunity slip to strike a good blow for reform, and to check a swelling evil, by letting it be known what the standard is which he believes in and up to which he will compel his subordinates to live. He cannot do better than to reaffirm the order of President Hayes. That was precise as well as comprehensive, and, by making the test the definite one of having any share in party management, puts it in the power of both office-holder and public to know exactly what is forbidden.

Of course, there will be grieved protests from the "petty bosses," and from the bigger animals on whose backs they

ride, that this would be to interfere with the "political rights" of American citizens. But the office-holder is under bonds which do not fetter the average citizen. He must, as we have seen in the War Department instance, refrain from public criticism of his superiors. If that is insubordination, properly to be punished, if the Funston gag was warranted, then it is no hardship on the general run of Federal office-holders to compel them to stick to their official duties and let politics alone. Their alleged right to pack a caucus and dictate a nomination they surrendered when they took office; just as truly as a clergyman surrenders his right to teach in opposition to the views of the church to whose creed he subscribes, or a professor to work against the peace of a college in which he holds a chair. The answer in all cases is the same—if you want unlimited rights, resign your office, your pulpit, your professorship. In office, it is service of the public, not of party, that is required. These would-be bosses, these political busybodies and intriguers and stirrers up of strife, take far too high a view of themselves. Their true category is simply that where Canning placed the tide-waiters of his day,

> "Each a gentleman at large,
> Fed and lodged at public charge."

As such, their pretence of a right to sway party counsels and dictate party action is preposterous. They need to be bitted and bridled, and President Roosevelt is just the horseman, we think, to do the job.

STATE BANKS AND BANKING LAWS

According to the last report of the Comptroller of the Currency, there were 5,204 banks in the United States organized under State authority, exclusive of loan and trust companies, savings banks, and private banks. The number of national banks at the same time was 4,279. The reports of the condition of State banks, available at the Comptroller's office, were not complete. The aggregate capital of the 4,983 banks reporting was $255,000,000. That of the national banks was $663,000,000, or nearly three times as much.

Why should there be any State banks at all when the national system is so easy of access and affords to its members such advantages in the way of prestige and public confidence? Chiefly because the smallest capital permitted to a national bank is $25,000. The requirements of State laws as to capital are various. Ten States leave the amount of capital wholly to the discretion of the bankers. Virginia requires a capital of at least $500 for any incorporated company, and does not make a distinction between banking and other companies. Generally, the capital requirements of the States are less than those of the national law, and this fact chiefly accounts for the existence of State banks. For the most part, they are the banks of the small towns, in the Middle, Southern, Western, and Pacific States—generally towns where the capital employed is less than $25,000 to each bank. Another reason for the existence of State banks is that in most States they are allowed to lend money on landed security, whereas national banks cannot. In California more than one-third of the loans of banks incorporated under the State law are secured by real estate.

As there are forty-eight Legislatures, including those of the Territories, a great variety of bank legislation is possible, but its extent and scope could hardly be imagined without such a guide as has been supplied to us in a recent monograph of 117 pages by Mr. George E. Barnett of the Johns Hopkins University, published by the press of that institution. Mr. Barnett has here found a neglected field. It was well worth study, in both its legal and its economical aspects, and the author has shown himself well qualified for his task. The diversities of legislation respecting incorporation, capital, real-estate loans, stockholders' liability, and public supervision are carefully traced, and the judicial decisions based upon them pointed out.

It is curious to note that both North Dakota and South Dakota have laws requiring all persons doing a banking business to become incorporated, and that the highest court of the former State held the law to be a proper exercise of the police power, while the corresponding tribunal of the latter declared it to be an infringement of the common rights of the citizen, and hence as unconstitutional as it would be to prohibit men from being carpenters or gardeners unless they were incorporated. The South Dakota court held that banking without the note-issuing function is not a franchise, but a right at common law. This is a sound judgment, but if one goes back far enough in past history, he will find that it was originally a common-law right even when accompanied with the function of note issue. The Bank of New York existed and did a regular banking business, including the issue of circulating notes, for eight years before it was incorporated, and its right to do so was not questioned. Going still further back, it was held by the Privy Council that private individuals in the American colonies had the right to issue notes to circulate as money, if people were willing to take them. In fact, many such notes did so circulate in the eighteenth century in the province of Massachusetts Bay.

Side by side with the 5,204 State banks there are (or were in 1899) 4,168 private banks. Private banks are of two kinds: (1) as an adjunct to brokerage, or dealing in foreign exchange, in the large cities; (2) as a means of furnishing credit in communities smaller than those which support either national or State banks. Of the former kind the houses of J. P. Morgan & Co. and Brown Brothers are familiar types. In the large cities these are as important as any class of banks. They make loans, and they receive deposits, and sometimes they pay interest on deposits, but their business is mainly conducted on lines different from that of the ordinary commercial bank. The second kind of private banks are identical in character with the State banks. The only difference is in the fact that the latter are incorporated, and thus subjected to whatever laws exist in their respective States providing for examination and publication of reports. In order to extend and enforce such supervision, there has been a tendency in State legislation during recent years to require private banks to become incorporated, and to reduce the limit of capitalization for this purpose. Thus, if a State fixes the limit of $15,000 as the smallest amount of capital for an incorporated bank, and if the Legislature wishes to compel all banks to be incorporated, it commonly lowers the limit to the capital of the smallest existing private bank. Three States, however (North Carolina, New Jersey, and Wisconsin) accomplish the same end in a direct manner. They require all private banks to be examined and to make reports in the same way as incorporated banks.

Mr. Barnett finds that the right of note issue has had little influence in bringing State banks into the national system. When the National Bank Act was amended in 1900 by lowering the capital limit to $25,000, allowing the issue of notes to the par value of the bonds, reducing the tax on circulation one-half, and supplying a 2 per cent. bond upon which the premium was relatively small, it was supposed that most, if not all, of the State banks of $25,000 capital would come into the national system. The result did not correspond to this expectation. In States like the Dakotas, where the national banking system was the prevailing and popular one, the opportunity was generally availed of, not for the purpose of issuing circulating notes, but in order to be in the fashion. In other States, like Michigan, Missouri, and California, where more than 500 State banks existed, and where that system was the predominating one, only twenty-seven new national banks have been formed. The State system prevailed in the South, also, except in Texas, whose Constitution prohibits the granting of bank charters altogether. The same result followed in the South; hardly any addition to the national system came from the change in the national law. Mr. Barnett thinks that the advantages, if any, offered by

note-issuing under the national system are offset by the prohibition of loans on real estate under the national law. He thinks, also, that the permission to lend on real estate will give an increasing advantage to State banks in the trans-Missouri States, as well as in the South, as these States become less dependent on long-mortgage loans from the East. The growth of State banking will then be shown in the enlarged capital of existing banks there rather than in the multiplication of new ones.

THE CONCIERGERIE.

PARIS, June 4, 1902.

The French capital bears on its arms a ship with the motto, "Fluctuat nec mergitur." The city was built at first on an island which separates two arms of the Seine. It is extending every year, every day, in all directions; its progress will sooner or later break the line of fortifications built against invasion in the days of Louis Philippe; and it has recently been decided that that part of the fortifications which separates western Paris from the Bois de Boulogne shall be demolished, as the protection of Mont Valérien is deemed sufficient in that direction. The island of Lutetia, however, still remains the centre and heart of Paris; and nothing can vie, in our admiration, with the congeries of monuments to be seen from the bridges of the Seine, from Notre Dame to the Louvre, the Sainte-Chapelle, the Palais, the Conciergerie, the Châtelet.

There is a whole literature of this ancient Paris; there is also a valuable collection of all its aspects. Some collectors devote themselves entirely to Paris, and are the devotees of the capital. I have just noticed an interesting volume on the 'Conciergerie du Palais de Paris,' which traces the history of this striking monument from the year 1031 to the year 1901. The author of the volume, M. Eugène Pottet, writes:

"For twenty years, and several times a day, we have passed this old monument, with its pointed and black towers, which forms a part of the Palais de Justice, and is still commonly called the Conciergerie. All Paris knows at least the outside of this antique prison, whose gloomy appearance strikes the passer-by who goes along the Pont-Neuf, the Pont au Change, or who follows the quays opposite the Châtelet. It is chiefly thus, on a clear night and from the Quay de la Mégisserie, that the old edifice shows its majestic outline and its terrible beauty."

The Conciergerie is the oldest prison in Paris, and is an annex of the Palais de Justice, which shows in its irregular buildings every order of architecture. What is still called the Palace began to be occupied by the Capetian Kings. It was rebuilt by King Robert II., and enlarged by Saint Louis, to whom are attributed the vaulted rooms under the large hall of the Palace, called *Salle des pas perdus*, where you may every day see lawyers and judges in their gowns walking with their clients. One of these rooms is still called Salle Saint-Louis; another goes under the name of the Kitchen of Saint Louis. The Sainte-Chapelle was constructed by Louis IX.; it is a jewel of Gothic art, and has been compared to a reliquary. All visitors to Paris admire it. The Square Tower which makes the corner of the Quay de l'Horloge, bears on one of its walls a very remarkable immense clock, which has been often repaired. Its latest decoration is very rich, and one can see in it the initials of Henri II., of Diane de Poitiers, and of Henri III. It was in allusion to Henri III. that the poet Passerat wrote this inscription:

"Qui dedit ante duas, triplicem dabit ille coronam."

The two statues on each side of the clock are by the celebrated Germain Pilon, and represent Force and Justice.

The Palais, constructed and rebuilt at various periods, is wanting in harmony, but its complexity is easily explained by the numerous objects for which it was destined. Justice was administered in some parts; in others there were places of recreation for the people, theatres in which the Mysteries of the Middle Ages were played. The Fronde made it the centre of its agitations. The Parlements met in it, and afterwards the Revolutionary Tribunal sat in it. The solemn opening of the Parlement took place, after a two months' vacation, on the day following St. Martin's Day. At an altar, which was placed in the Grande Salle, was celebrated a mass which was called the Mass of the Holy Spirit—or the Red Mass, because the President and the counsellors wore red gowns. To this day the Red Mass is celebrated at the opening of the courts, but in the Sainte-Chapelle.

What is most striking in the general aspect of the Conciergerie on the quay is its towers. One, called Cæsar's, is where Ravaillac and Lacenaire were shut up. Queen Blanche is said to have inhabited another, called the Silver Tower, inasmuch as it once contained the King's treasury. A third, heavier than the others, has been called the Tower of Bon-Bec and also the Bavarde. It was used for torture, as Ravaillac and Damiens experienced. Some other towers were demolished; one of them disappeared, in 1871, in the fires lighted by the Commune.

We cannot go, as M. Pottet does, into an elaborate description of the endless passages, the prisons, the cabinets of the inner Conciergerie. Visitors are sometimes allowed, by special permission, to view a part of them; others are the exclusive domain of the judicial world. M. Pottet gives us the names of all the prisoners of importance who have entered the Conciergerie, many of them now completely unknown. We will mention only, in old times, the celebrated historian, Philippe de Comines, who was first in the service of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, and who then attached himself to Louis XI., Charles's enemy. Comines, whose memoirs are still read, did not, however, die in prison. Victor Hugo introduces in the "Roi s'amuse" Saint-Vallier, who left the Conciergerie for the scaffold, and received his pardon on the road; his daughter Diane, of remarkable beauty, having obtained it from François I. The poets sang the courage of Samblancay, Superintendent of Finances, who left the Conciergerie for Montfaucon, where he was hanged. M. Pottet gives us the text of Ravaillac's "ordre d'écrou," still preserved in the archives of the Prefecture of Police.

The history of the Conciergerie during the French Revolution forms a dramatic chapter in M. Pottet's volume. During the famous September massacre, nearly a hundred prisoners were killed, in the most atrocious manner, by men who made themselves the executors of what they considered the justice of the people. Among the victims was the ex-Minister Montmorin. These massacres, which took place on the 2d of September, 1792, were organized in the prisons of Paris by the Commune. When the Committee of Public Safety was organized on the 6th of April, 1793 (it disappeared only in 1795), it chose the Conciergerie as a sort of antechamber of the Revolutionary Tribunal, and the doors of the Conciergerie were almost always opened only to conduct the men and women condemned by the Tribunal, after a mock-trial, to the guillotine. About 3,000 suspects filled not only the Conciergerie, but the Force, the Abbaye, Sainte-Pélagie, the Madelonnettes. There were always at the Conciergerie several hundred people who knew that they had only four or five days longer to live. The Conciergerie saw Madame Roland; the Mayor of Paris at the beginning of the Revolution, Bailly; the ex-Minister of Finance, Clavières; the Duke d'Orléans; several generals. It became the prison of Marie Antoinette during her last days. M. Pottet gives very curious details concerning the life led in those times at the Conciergerie. "It was less horrible than would be supposed. Death was the order of the day, and people were resigned; the guillotine, being everybody's lot, did not inspire the natural fear which it ought to have inspired. . . . The prisoners flirted, read books, sang songs, chatted, smoked, played at cards, at dominoes, at trictrac." He gives us a number of minor poems composed in the prison, which prove that French courage and gayety never lost their rights.

We find in his book the list of the members of the Revolutionary Tribunal at the time of the Queen's condemnation. All these names are lost in oblivion; Fouquier de Tinville, the public prosecutor, is the only one who acquired an infamous celebrity. M. Pottet's notices of the principal men and women who appeared before the Revolutionary Tribunal are very interesting, as they are accompanied by the reproduction of many documents discoverable only after long research in many places. The list comprises the odious Marat, who was only for a moment at the Conciergerie, and was acquitted and carried away in triumph by the people; Custine, Madame Roland, Madame Elisabeth, Hébert, Danton, Camille Desmoulins, Charlotte Corday, the Girondins Brissot, Vergniaud, Valazé, Gensonné, etc. The Girondins were transferred to the Conciergerie at a time when, by a terrible coincidence, Queen Marie Antoinette was still detained there. Lamartine has given with many details the story of their last days. Their trial is a chapter of French history. There were twenty-two Deputies of the Gironde on the benches of the accused, among them some of the greatest orators of the time. They were all condemned to capital punishment for conspiracy against "the unity and indivisibility of the Republic." They left the court proudly, singing the Marseillaise:

"Allons, enfans de la patrie,
Le jour de gloire est arrivé."

A special chapter will be found in M.

Pottet's book on Marie Antoinette. It is so painful that it is impossible to read it without emotion. The young and beautiful Archduchess who came to France to marry the Dauphin, may have been censurable for her levity, for her disdain of the rigid laws of etiquette, for her partiality for some favorites; but in the trial hour, when she became a sufferer and a martyr, she was, so to speak, transformed. It is impossible to find anything more pathetic than her attitude; she never had a moment of weakness; her defence was proud, as becomes a Queen, and her death was the death of a heroine.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of June 5, in referring to the recent Ontario elections, you seem to indicate that French and English interests there need "balancing." According to the last census, the entire French population of Ontario is 158,698, out of a total of 2,182,947. There is no comparison of the interests there.—Yours, etc., A. M.

DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, June 11, 1902.

[The slip to which our correspondent calls attention—a "balancing of Conservative and Liberal interests" should have been written—is the more venial in that the "race issue" occupies an absurd prominence in many of the Ontario Conservative journals.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

The Burrows Bros. Co., Cleveland, will reprint immediately in a limited edition, with an historical and bibliographical introduction by Felix Neumann, Denton's 'Brief Description of New York, formerly called New Netherlands.'

John Lane has just ready 'Reliques of Stratford-on-Avon: A Souvenir of Shakspere's Home,' compiled by A. E. Way, with eight lithographs by T. R. Way.

'Herbert Spencer, the Man, the Scientist and the Philosopher,' by Dr. Charles H. Rieber of Stanford University, with an introduction by President Jordan, is in the press of A. C. McClurg & Co.

'The Church and its Social Missions,' being the Baird Lectures for 1901, by John Marshall Lang, D.D., Principal of the University of Aberdeen, will be published directly by Thomas Whittaker.

The second volume of four in the handsome reprint of Sir Arthur Helps's 'Spanish Conquest in America,' edited by M. Oppenheim, comes to us somewhat deliberately from John Lane, as the first was issued in 1900. The editor is very modest in his emendations, expanding rather than having to correct the footnotes, and translating in these the passages from foreign authorities which Helps quoted textually.

At length we have an Anglo-American edition of the 'Book of the Dead,' put forth by an American house and at a reasonable price. It is a revision of the translation by E. A. Wallis Budge, keeper of the Egyptian and Assyrian antiquities in the British Museum. The English edition of 1898 consisted of three volumes, two of which were occupied by the hieroglyphic text. The present edition is in three volumes, and contains not only the complete text of the version, but also all the important vignettes which serve to explain the various chapters and sections. The translation is made from several papyri which combine to present the Theban recension with no less than 190 chapters, some of them in more than one form. Appended are translations of three other recensions—one dating from about 1000 B. C., one from the Græco-Roman period, called the 'Book of Breathings,' and the third, consisting of only two pages, from the Roman period. Appended to the whole is a useful index of thirty-six pages, double columns. The American edition lacks some facsimiles of papyri which are interesting, but not essential to the completeness of the book (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.).

'A Concise Dictionary of Egyptian Archæology,' intended as a handbook for students and travellers, has been prepared by Mary Brodrick and Anna A. Morton (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The former is known through her condensation of Brugsch's 'History,' which appeared about eleven years ago, and other minor performances, principally in connection with the Egypt Exploration Fund. A work like the present, which depends for its value so largely upon the soundness of judgment possessed by the editors and upon the trustworthiness of the specific sources of details of information, ought not to have been put forth without a bibliography and without references to recognized authorities. Neither of the editors can lay claim to independent authority, though either is, apparently, a competent compiler. The articles are all brief—scarcely a dozen exceed one page. Such condensation is admirable, but it has been carried rather too far. Some topics have been omitted to the detriment of the book, and some included without corresponding profit. The illustrations, almost without exception, are representations of Egyptian deities. Cartouches of some of the principal kings are given. The book is trustworthy in general, its defects being rather those of omission than of commission. The use of a smaller type would have been better, and would have made it possible to give more material within the same limits.

Mr. James K. Hosmer's 'History of the Louisiana Purchase' (Appleton) is a timely book in popular vein, and will doubtless have a temporary vogue now that short and readable books about the West are in demand. The author traces rapidly the early history of Louisiana; the subsequent steps in the negotiations between France and the United States being followed in more detail. In Mr. Hosmer's opinion, the acquisition of Louisiana, though doubtless the best-remembered achievement in Jefferson's Presidential career, was in reality "a piece of Napoleonic statesmanship—Jefferson and his negotiators playing only a secondary part"; and it is this aspect of the case, with its picturesque and even dramatic details, that he emphasizes. The novelty of the work is the fuller account than other English writers have given of the negotiations as narrated in the 'Mémoires' of Lucien Bonaparte. The larger illustrations, particularly the reproduction of David's Napoleon in the Public Library of Minneapolis, are to be commended.

A monarch who is compelled by law to hold close relations to a particular church has scarcely the freedom of religious expression that is allowed to a private individual. It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. Walter Walsh, in 'The Religious Life and Influence of Queen Victoria' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), has been hampered by lack of material. He has brought together, however, several interesting incidents from her late Majesty's own journals, together with extracts from other diaries confirming the evidence given by these of the simplicity and earnestness of her faith. The value of the book from an historical standpoint is marred by its obviously polemical purpose. Its author is especially concerned to show that the Queen was a strong Protestant, and loses no opportunity of emphasizing every indication of her objection to Roman Catholicism and especially to Ritualism. He is evidently disturbed by several instances, especially in her later life, of conspicuous favor shown by her to Roman Catholic dignitaries and institutions, but he disposes of these by the convenient theory that in these cases she was acting on "the mistaken advice of her ministers of state, as a matter of state policy."

Miss Higgin's little illustrated book does not go far towards portraying 'Spanish Life in Town and Country' (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), but does give a series of light, if rather disconnected, essays on the conditions of modern Spain. As the daughter of an English resident in Spain of long standing and wide industrial interests, she has had many-sided opportunities, which, without any special literary gifts, she has used very fairly. The total impression is of a country which is awake and in earnest, and which is working out its own salvation in its own way. In spite of Jesuits, Carlists, and Anarchists, there is hopefulness in the air. Noteworthy is the certainty with which, both from a Spanish and from an English point of view, Cuba is regarded now as a part of this country. Our purpose—constant since Jefferson, they think—has been at last accomplished. So, too, thinks continental Europe generally, to judge from the new "Stieler." In it the Gotha geographers have colored Cuba like Porto Rico, and add only the explanation, "Cuba hat selbständige Verwaltung." That is how independence looks from across the Atlantic.

Lovers of our native flora can have absolutely no excuse for not familiarizing themselves with our more interesting plants. The excellent manuals by Gray and the illustrated work by Britton and Brown give the widest desirable range for the student who wishes to take a general survey. Besides these handbooks of wide range, we have a goodly number of more popular treatises which, by means of clear outlines or by colored plates, put the amateur face to face with the plant and its name. The increasing demand for books of this class shows that we are likely to be well supplied with trustworthy guides to our native plants, and that, in the near future, the tourist returning from his botanizing in the nearer or the farther alps and fields of the Old World, will find that his European handbooks, with their attractive plates, are no better than those prepared here. The latest

claimant to popular favor, 'Field-Book of American Wild-Flowers' (Putnams), comes to us from the pencil and pen of Mr. F. Schuyler Mathews, who has already done much towards making the people of the Eastern United States acquainted with the plants of the garden and the roadside, and with many of our plants of the field. The present treatise, of more than 500 pages, and containing very numerous plates and figures, will be found convenient, on account not only of its small size, but also of its arrangement. Mr. Mathews has a fund of interesting information in these crowded pages in regard to the more intimate relations of flowers to insects.

The veteran trade-union leader, Mr. George Howell, tells the story of the agitation to which he has devoted his life, in a bulky volume entitled 'Labor Legislation, Labor Movements, and Labor Leaders' (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The matter of the book is more of the nature of annals than history, and annals that are to a great extent unreadable. This was perhaps not to be avoided, as the author intended his chronicle to be complete and final. There are occasional episodes of interest, and the more recent controversies are described with spirit. The enlightened views of Mr. Howell attract our sympathy. He speaks generously of those who withstood him, as becomes one who has conquered, and he frankly confesses that he and his supporters were often in the wrong. Were the trade-union leaders always animated by his spirit, the industrial world would be more peaceful than it is.

As having essentially the same subject, we may mention a book more pretentious than that of Mr. Howell, although of less permanent value. It is entitled 'Labor and Capital' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), and is made up of the contributions of nearly fifty more or less eminent persons to the newspapers published by that eminent philanthropist, Mr. W. R. Hearst. As some of these newspapers have been excluded from clubs and libraries, contributions of this kind may very properly be reprinted in a form available to readers who would otherwise not see them. We cannot say that such readers will find anything new in the remedies and palliatives for industrial disputes here offered; but the theories of so great a body of cooks should have some noticeable effect upon the composition of the broth.

In the 'Terrors of the Law' (John Lane), Mr. Francis Watt follows a vein which he has already worked with some success in 'The Law's Lumber-Room.' The subjects here are Lord Jeffreys, Sir George Mackenzie, and Lord Justice Braxfield. All won the epithet "bloody" from their contemporaries, and we observe no reason in what Mr. Watt advances why posterity should modify the verdict. The effect of Mr. Watt's pleading in behalf of Jeffreys is rather to create an unfavorable impression as to his own standards of morality than a favorable one concerning those of his hero. The infamy of the other judges is narrower in extent, being confined to Scotland; but in that land it is enduring. Mr. Watt writes cleverly; his anecdotes are well told, and he shows that odium was in some cases undeserved. But he is more enjoyable if we do not take him seriously, and regard his book as meant simply to occupy a leisure moment.

The complexity of modern civilization is nowhere more strikingly illustrated than in the development of insurance. One may now secure himself against almost all conceivable forms of loss; and the insurance companies are making steady progress in lessening the causes of damage. One of the recent branches is that called guaranty insurance, which provides indemnity for losses occasioned by fraud, dishonesty, and breach of contract. 'The Law of Guaranty Insurance' is the title of a treatise on this subject, by Mr. Thomas Gold Frost, published by Little, Brown & Co. The author has endeavored to resist the temptation to dogmatize, and confines himself generally to stating principles actually settled by judicial decision; the language of the reports being freely quoted. His work appears to be carefully and systematically done, and it will be appreciated by the profession. We can, of course, not attempt to criticise it in detail, but we may commend the historical introduction as lucid and interesting.

Of the amount of labor involved in Dr. William Grant's 'Christendom Anno Domini 1901' (Chauncey Holt), there can be no question. Even with his team of more than sixty contributors, many of them of high standing and some taking their tasks seriously and broadly, his attempt to give a presentation of Christian conditions and activities throughout the world generally is hopelessly gigantic. But the task has been greatly reduced by a certain narrowness in many of these contributors, who have been inclined to interpret Christendom as Protestantism, and Protestantism as American missions. Dr. Grant laments this discreetly, and has done his editorial best to balance it with introductory notes. The first volume is geographical and runs from "Africa" to "United States"; the second is institutional, and describes the religious movements of the century. The last is singularly complete. Even a Paulist Father finds a ridiculously inadequate twenty-three pages to sketch the Church of Rome and Roman Catholic Missions. As a whole, the book is disappointing. The sketches are very uneven. Some are well done; others are provincial in tone and ineffective in execution. Yet, within its possibilities, the book accomplishes much, and may be read with advantage by those who regard Christianity as already moribund. The illustrations would be better away.

In the volume just issued of Dr. Rodkinson's translation of the Babylonian Talmud, the section "Baba Bathra" is completed. It considers various problems of the law of sale, the measuring of things sold, the division of inheritances, and the drawing up of binding deeds. Over it all the track of the Roman law is broad; but there are relieving points of humor, intended or not, as where Jacob, in defence of his conduct towards Laban, quotes to Rachel II. Samuel, xxii., 27. Even Oriental anachronistics could not well go further.

The great literary undertaking of the house of W. Sijthoff, in Leyden, consisting in the facsimile reproduction of the most important manuscripts of Greek and Latin literature, has now reached the seventh volume. This includes in its two parts a faithful reproduction of the two Codices Laurentiani Mediceï 68 I. and II., which constitute the basis of the text of the two most important works of Tacitus, the Annals and the Histories, and are of prime importance for textual and palæographical studies. For both parts, the Conservator of the Manuscripts in the Bibliotheca Laurenziana, Henry Rostagno, has furnished extensive introductions. The two parts together make 482 folio pages, and cost $75.

The first part of a 'Realistische Chrestomathie aus der Litteratur des klassischen Altertums,' by M. C. P. Schmidt, now completed in three volumes (Leipzig: Dürr), is worthy of the attention of all classical scholars. Professor Schmidt has been led to make this collection from a belief, which he has set forth in various brochures during the past three years, that those parts of ancient literature which deal with the sciences are worthy of a place in the school curriculum. To the three books which he has so far compiled he has given the names "Buch der Grössen," "Buch von Himmel und Erde," and "Buch der Erfindungen." The extracts included in the first two books, almost exclusively Greek, deal with mathematics, astronomy, and geography; while the third book contains descriptions of such things as ships, weapons, and clocks, together with other instruments and apparatus known to the Greeks. The volumes are well furnished with notes, and excellent introductions cover a field of Greek Literature seldom investigated by the classical teacher. Another interesting feature of the work is a series of eighty-seven illustrative diagrams and figures. However much one may question the advisability of introducing such matter into schools, it cannot be denied that the editor deserves thanks for having collected and edited in a masterly way such a mass of curious material from works not generally found in the teacher's library. The volumes will be of especial interest to the student who is interested in the technical side of antiquity.

We have received from the art-publishing house of Georg D. W. Callwey in Munich sheets numbered 31-36 in continuation of the meritorious series of "Meisterbilder fürs Deutsche Haus," excellent reproductions on cardboard suitable for framing, or for passing from hand to hand, of masterpieces here ranging from Ruysdael ("The Swamp"), Rembrandt ("The Scholar"), Hans Holbein ("Sir Bryan Tuke"), Dirk Bouts ("St. Christopher"), to the modern Alfred Rethel (1816-1859). The wrapper of each of these designs is utilized for a sketch of the life of the artist.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June completes its tenth volume handsomely, having for illustrations a capital portrait of the late Prof. James B. Thayer to accompany a sketch of his life by Edward H. Hall; another, of the strong face of Mr. Moody, the present Secretary of the Navy; and finally, of Prince Henry of Prussia, which mates with President Eliot's gem of a speech at the Prince's Boston banquet on March 6. "The democracy," he said, with examples, "preserves and uses sound old families; it also utilizes strong blood from foreign sources." An example not down in his bill is supplied under the news from the class of 1853, with its fresh account of the extraordinary career of the late George Smith of St. Louis (born Connelly, son of an Irish porter), one of the

most recent munificent benefactors of Harvard. And, speaking of necrology, it is remarkable that in this number is chronicled the death of the second only of the alumnæ of Radcliffe. Prof. A. B. Hart, we observe with regret, must hand over to another his survey of "The University," which he has conducted with singular ability and vivacity. He has a chapter here on the retirement of the clergy from the head of our colleges which was prophetic of the recent succession at Princeton.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for June is a brief preliminary account of some of the observations made by the expedition sent out by the society of which it is the organ to Martinique, to study actual volcanic action. Prof. Robert T. Hill, after describing some of the eruptions of Mont Pelée which he witnessed, says that "nearly all the phenomena of these volcanic outbreaks are new to science, and many of them have not yet been explained." Another member, Prof. A. Heilprin, who succeeded in reaching the top of the crater on May 31, reports that he "saw a huge cinder cone in the centre of the crater. The opening of the crater itself is a vast crevice, 500 feet long and 150 feet wide." Ashes fell about him in such quantities as to completely obscure his vision, and one particularly violent explosion covered him from head to foot with mud. A unique phenomenon recorded at the Coast Survey magnetic observatories in Maryland, Kansas, and the Hawaiian Islands was an electro-magnetic wave, which, on "the morning of May 8, pulled the magnetic needles aside from their usual direction for many hours." This is the first observation of the kind which has been made, and seems to demonstrate, not mechanical vibrations which have been previously noted during earthquakes, but a distinct magnetic disturbance resulting from volcanic eruptions and felt 5,500 miles distant.

At last the system of revised German orthography is becoming a reality. According to the joint agreement of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, a new and uniform system is to be officially introduced in all these lands on the 1st of April, 1903. This is the outcome of an agitation that began nearly half a century ago. The first move in this direction was taken by the educational authorities of Hanover in 1856, followed by those in Leipzig in 1857. The first steps on a greater scale were taken by Prussia in 1876, the other States of the confederacy participating later. Now, as the result of many conventions and deliberations, a simplified system has been adopted, the changes being chiefly along three lines, namely, (1) the omission of superfluous letters, but only where these are really not needed; (2) the spelling and writing of words in accordance with real grammatical significance, as in the capitalizing of true nouns; (3) the spelling of purely foreign words as in their native tongue. The new system is to be introduced in all the German schools of the three countries, and is the only one to be officially recognized. A considerable number of publishers, newspapers, and periodicals have already begun to employ the innovation, the general introduction of which will seemingly be easily effected.

—The President of the American Museum of Natural History, in his latest annual report, gives a summary of the work accomplished during the year by the different departments of that institution and by the various exploring expeditions under its control. The organization of a department of mineralogy was made necessary by Mr. Pierpont Morgan's gift of the famous Bement collection of minerals. Some twelve thousand specimens, representing most of the known established species, have been installed in the central hall on the fourth floor of the Museum building and placed in the charge of Louis P. Gratacap. A department of invertebrate zoölogy has also been established, with Hermon C. Bumpus as curator. The publication of the catalogue of types and figured specimens in the palæontological collection, which has been in progress for several years, has been completed. In it are described 8,345 specimens, representing 2,721 species and 190 varieties. The department of anthropology has maintained expeditions in several parts of the United States, and in British Columbia, Mexico, Central America, Bolivia, Peru, Greenland, Siberia, Japan, Corea, and China, resulting in large additions to the collections and furnishing much material for description. W. Jochelson and W. Bogoras have entered upon a new field of research on behalf of the Jesup North Pacific Expedition in the extreme northeastern part of Siberia. Their investigations among the Chukchee, Koryak, and Yukagheer tribes on the coast of the Sea of Okhotsk have been completed, and the material collected by them has been forwarded to the museum. The collection of models of totem-poles made by John R. Swanton of the same expedition is noteworthy, and serves to illustrate the significance of these peculiar emblems. A well-preserved totem-pole, fifty feet in height, has been received from the Queen Charlotte Islands and placed in the open space of the stairway in the west corridor hall. A. L. Kroeber has finished his field work in connection with the Mrs. Morris K. Jesup expedition to the Arapaho Indians, and the illustrated manuscript setting forth the results of these important investigations is ready for publication. The field work of the Huntington California expedition, in charge of Roland B. Dixon, has also been completed, and the collections are all on exhibition. The explorations of M. H. Saville of the Mexican expedition have resulted in the solution of several problems concerning the architecture of the celebrated ruins in the vicinity of Mitla. A pre-Columbian map or "lienzo" on native cloth (a unique example of this class of American codices) and a map of Teotihuacan painted on maguey paper have been obtained. The exploration of the Delaware Valley has been continued by Ernest Volk, who has gathered important information relating to the occupation of the region about Trenton and bearing upon the evidence of preglacial man in America. Local archæological explorations have been carried on among the rock-shelters near Westchester and in village sites and shell heaps on Long Island, especially those near Oyster Bay and Glen Cove, and much of importance relating to early Indian life has been learned.

—Among the ruined Central American cities of ancient culture, Palenque, Quirigua, the Usumatsintla towns, Tikal and Copan, the last-named attracts the greatest interest at present on account of the resumption of archæological explorations there. Its ruins are situated on the banks of Copan River, Southern Honduras. The site where the main temple stood is now a square platform with steep declivities on all sides. The temple is gone, leaving no trace behind except the western approach. When the Peabody Museum of Archæology, at Cambridge, sent its first expedition to the spot in 1891, the whole structure was overgrown with heavy timber. The elevation where the temple was is now known as Mound 26; at present it looks like a high-pointed pyramid, the apex and sides of which have been considerably reduced by the disintegration constantly going on. The western side of this pyramid presents the greatest architectural feature that has yet come to light in Copan, namely, the "Hieroglyphic Stairway." The steps of this stairway were formed by large stone blocks carved on the front side with the well-known calculiform figures, some of which are intended for numerals, and others for names, generic terms, and the like. The first who directed attention to the stairway and the excellent design and workmanship of its component parts, was Maudsley, and his genius also pointed out the former importance of the spot, of whose earlier shape heavy landslides had made recognition well-nigh impossible. From the latest measurements it appears that the whole width of the stairway, including the balustrades of 3½ feet, was twenty-six feet; that of the altar at the bottom, twelve feet. As regards height of slope, the portions of the stairway still *in situ* measure twenty-five feet, which is just one-fifth of the whole slope once covered by the stairway. The probability is that there were eighty carved steps from the base to the top of the stairway, where the temple stood. The several human figures which decorated the centre of the stairway show the sculptural art to have been crude, though full of promise, and the whole structure must once have left on the spectator a weird and awful impression. Of the inscription which formerly decorated the stairway, but a few broken fragments remain. The story is told by George Byron Gordon, with admirable photographic illustrations, in No. 6 of volume i. of the "Memoirs of the Peabody Museum."

—Lovers of Edmondo de Amicis will find pleasant reading in his latest little book, 'Un Salotto Fiorentino del Secolo Scorso' (Florence: Barbèra). The salon described is that of Ubaldino Peruzzi and his wife Emilia, who, from the late fifties onward for a generation, attracted to their hospitable parlors not only the best minds in Florence, but whatever strangers of note visited the magic city. De Amicis draws vivid portraits of the most interesting of the group, and he reports a few anecdotes; but it is surprising how little written record remains of the wit, enthusiasm, and learning poured out there for so many years. Peruzzi was one of the chief Tuscan Liberals, and a Cabinet Minister; but, while the talk naturally centred in politics, it was not limited to them. We are left with a particularly sympathetic impression of Donna Emilia, who, like her Parisian sisters, had the art of getting the best out of each guest, and of preventing the clash of opinions from leading to personal quarrels. Her perfect frankness was charming, and was not abashed even by the im-

perious Ruggiero Bonghi, who, for all his Platonism, seems to have had not a little of Swift's sardonic nature. Thus, when Signora Emilia, after reading news of a great calamity, exclaimed, "How can God possibly permit these things!" Bonghi placidly answered, "If God does not exist, there is no use to discuss further; if he exists, believe me, Signora Emilia, he does not bother himself with these matters." Scattered through the book are small half-tone portraits of most of the persons whom De Amicis writes about with unfailing kindliness.

—Threescore years and ten is no longer looked on as the normal limit of human life, yet the custom prevalent in Germany of printing in the newspapers biographic sketches and "appreciations" of eminent men on the occasion of their seventieth birthday is probably a reminder of the time when the Biblical view was prevalent. This custom calls attention to the apparently increasing longevity of brain-workers, and is probably not disagreeable to those whom it chiefly concerns, because at their age the maxim *Nil nisi bonum* is usually applied in advance. One of the latest septuagenarians thus celebrated is Wilhelm Busch, who, although he has declared that the bubble fame no longer interests him, must have been gratified by the unanimity with which the journals agreed in pronouncing him the greatest German humorist of the nineteenth century. His name is inseparably associated with the rise and growth in popularity of Germany's chief comic paper, the *Fliegende Blätter*, to which he began to contribute in 1859, both as a writer of jokes and an illustrator of them. He soon got into the habit of creating connected groups of jokes, and these were issued separately as the 'Münchener Bilderbogen.' Of such as were issued in book form, the story of the two bad boys "Max and Moritz" became the most famous, both at home and abroad; and Busch soon found himself the "populärster Bilderhumorist Deutschlands." In 1872 he became an ardent admirer of Schopenhauer, and some of his critics claim that his jokes grew more cynical and pessimistic; but there was always a serious undercurrent to his laughter, wherein it resembles that of our leading humorist, and illustrates Schopenhauer's definition of humor as "hinter dem Scherz versteckter Ernst." In an autobiographic sketch he compared his jokes to naughty boys who have little regard for other people's corns, and, in turn, do not mind being scolded occasionally. In his letter of thanks to those who celebrated his seventieth birthday he referred to his pictorial jokes as his method of "triumphing a little over the annoyances of the world." These annoyances, despite his success and popularity, induced him, some years ago, to hide himself in a village named Mechtshausen, near Hildesheim, where, like Maeterlinck, he devotes much of his time to studying the habits of bees. He no longer writes for the comic papers. A Munich journalist surmises that this is owing to the fact that the public paid no attention to his serious books—'Kritik des Herzens,' 'Eduard's Traum,' and 'Der Schmetterling'—and that he said to himself in consequence: "Very well, if you refuse to read those books, neither shall you have any more jokes."

—'Zehn Jahre mit Böcklin' is the title of a collection of aphorisms and diary notes in which the late Prof. Gustav Floerke jotted down the impressions of his intercourse with the great painter, and which now have been published by his son (Munich: Bruckmann). These notes are all the more important for a just estimate of Böcklin's character because the master himself, confiding in the primitive power of his work, on principle avoided public utterance about his aims and ideals. Here for the first time (for the book by Schick had exclusively technical interest) both the painter and the man Böcklin are revealed fully and to the life. We are introduced to his æsthetic doctrines, his views about predecessors and contemporaries, his attitude toward nature and life, toward classic antiquity and modern culture, mostly in his own utterances; and through it all we come to know a personality of truly heroic power, joyousness, originality, and self-possession. Of the anecdotes in which the book abounds, we quote one: "Professor Horner of Zurich, at that time probably our foremost ophthalmologist, once told our Böcklin that he had never seen such perfect eyes as his. 'You probably can look into very strong light, can you not?' 'I like to look straight into the sun.' "

ENGLISH WORDS AND THEIR WAYS.

Words and their Ways in English Speech. By James Bradstreet Greenough and George Lyman Kittredge. The Macmillan Company. 1901.

This handsome volume of over four hundred pages is the joint work of two American scholars whom all will recognize as peculiarly well fitted to perform such a task. For many years Professor Greenough had not only his head but also his heart full of the subject, especially that part of it which deals with the Latin in English; and he was fortunate in having as collaborator a colleague thoroughly familiar with the present state of Germanic scholarship. The publication of the volume was almost simultaneous with the announcement of the death of Professor Greenough.

The book deals with a subject of universal interest. This interest has stimulated the publication of numerous books treating of words and their use. Some of them, notably Trench's, were very acceptable when published, but are now out of date, and most that have appeared in the last twenty-five years represented a scholarship already antiquated when they were issued. 'Words and their Ways,' on the contrary, is so far in advance of similar books that it is destined to displace them all, and demands of the reviewer more than the usual modicum of consideration. In a sense, the book is misleadingly named, for it deals not only with words, but, in one way or another, with most of the important phenomena of language. Thus, the origin of Indo-European speech receives consideration under "Cognates and Borrowed Words"; various syntactical constructions are smuggled into a chapter entitled "Fossils" (p. 205); and chapter seven confessedly deals with the rise and fall of the different literary dialects. Chapter eight is called "The Latin in English," but it really treats of the various foreign influences that English has been subject to.

On nearly every page is sounded the keynote of language-life—*change*. We find it in the treatment of the forms of words, the meanings of words, and the uses of words. But there is no regretting and whining, no loud protestations, no call to all lovers of English to rise up and save it from ruin. Full recognition is given to Jespersen's doctrine that the loss of inflection is progress, not decay (pp. 184, 280). He who still looks upon the Norman Conquest as the cause of the changes from Old English to Middle English, will find in this book little to strengthen his faith. The double phrases of the Book of Common Prayer—*assemble and meet together, bless and sanctify, food and sustenance*, etc.—which were formerly supposed to be based on the coördinate use of French and English words for the same idea, are simply dealt with as a stylistic feature of the language, which Professor Hart has traced back to early West Saxon. And yet it was but a few years ago that the scholarship of the past, in the person of Professor Earle, was fighting hard for this old dogma against the knowledge of to-day as represented by Professor Emerson.

The difference between the past and the present could not be better illustrated than by the statement: "Language develops by the felicitous misapplication of words" (pp. 217, 283). Simple ignorance is a positive force in language, and cannot be ignored or escaped. The present use of *restive* is undoubtedly due to confusion with *restless* (p. 194), but that present use is a fact, and those who soberly urge us to employ the word in a sense that would be misunderstood by practically all who might hear us, betray lack of humor as well as ignorance of linguistic forces. There is a gallant spirit, as well as good philological sense, in the attitude assumed by our authors not only toward changes due to ignorance, but also toward those due to other human weaknesses. Witness what is said of hyperbole and magniloquent speech (pp. 328-329). Again, on page 322: "It is the courtesy of democracy, not its assertiveness, that brings about the results which amuse us in *saleslady*, or *washerlady*, or the *gentleman* who sweeps the crossings." To this same courtesy is to be ascribed much that takes the form of euphemism, which our authors too exclusively ascribe to the superstition that it is unlucky to speak of certain things by their right names (p. 301).

The development of words is given in two chapters, one on roots, stems, and inflections, and one on derivation and composition. These chapters are perhaps the least fortunate in the book. That this appeared to be so to one of the authors, at least, is betrayed by the long apologetic footnote on pages 168-169. The aim to be clear, even at the expense of accuracy in details, is not to be quarrelled with. But the presentation of the subject of roots, stems, and inflections is here unwarrantably mechanical, and must give the learner a totally false conception of the nature of word development. He is told of a root-period and a stem-period, that antedate the period of "real words as we know them." It is admitted that roots once existed independently in actual speech, but it is repeatedly insisted upon that stems are not words. The learner is told that, "since stems are not words, and no such thing as syntax existed in the stem-period, we cannot designate stems as parts of speech—nouns, verbs, and so on" (pp. 172, 177, 178).

Of course, there is a certain relative truth in this. But it is much more important that the learner should realize that what we call roots were words; and that when they got the determinates that we call stem-endings, they were still words; and that when further endings were added designating case, person, etc., they were words no more and no less than they were before. Nor is a language devoid of syntax until inflexional endings arise to express it; as truly as it does not lose its syntax when its endings wear away. It is obvious that the authors (or author?) intentionally liken these phases of language life to the processes of manufacture. "These words are built up by the mechanical means of word-formation" (p. 13). "*-like* has become a universal termination for the manufacture of adverbs from adjectives" (pp. 186, 187, 177). "We have examined the machinery which makes new terms by derivation and composition" (pp. 219, 281). In contrast with the regular factory product, *electrocute* is spoken of as "cobbled together." This mechanical notion of speech-development is still all too common, and it is to be regretted that we should find it fostered by so good a book as this. The truth is that there are as many languages as there are speakers, and that the great majority of "changes" consist simply in the imperfections of the copy that one generation makes of the speech of the older generation. The consideration of this simple fact at once makes clear the cause and process of numerous changes that remain vague and hazy as presented in the book before us. Surely, the true nature of language-development is caricatured when we speak of "the unconscious *habit* of the Spanish provincials to change Latin *f* to *h*" (p. 164).

One of the most pleasing features of the book is the wealth of illustration. Most of this is fresh and evidently obtained at first hand. And here we have one of the fruits of that long and minute study of Shakspere and Chaucer which has been carried on at Harvard under Professor Kittredge and his predecessor, Professor Child, to whose memory this volume is fittingly dedicated. It would seem as though no matter of verbal usage could be touched upon without suggesting pat illustrations from one or both of these masters of English. Many common misunderstandings of familiar quotations are explained, as Chaucer's *countenance* ('bearing'), Othello's *Upon this hint* ('occasion,' 'opportunity') *I spake, a forlorn hope* (Dutch *hoop* 'band,' 'troop'), *an exploded* ('clapped or hissed off the stage') *fallacy*, and Tennyson's misunderstanding of *courtesy* (p. 284). But we must not fall into the error of supposing that expressions like Chaucer's *not worth an oyster* (p. 311) are anything more than inventions necessitated by the rime.

When dealing with the histories of words, one is often tempted to lend a willing ear to an etymology that brings up a pretty picture of life or manners. The sober judgment of our authors, however, generally saves them from such temptations, and leads them to add the warning words: "This explanation is attractive, but not quite easy," or "This suggestion is not free from difficulties." But no one can avoid all errors. The verb *to chaff* has nothing to do with the chaff that fails to catch the old bird (p. 71); it is only a variant of *chafe*. *Wheedle*, whatever its origin, cannot be from German *wedeln* (p. 67). *Bamboozle* (pp. 63, 65) is a metathesized form of the North-Country *bombazle*, the frequentative of *bumbaze*, 'confound,' 'bamboozle,' which is a compound of *bum* 'strike' and *baze* 'confound,' 'frighten.' *Spill* did not leap from 'destroy' to 'spill,' but passed through 'scatter.' *The sun sets* is not to be confounded (p. 281) with the modern vulgar confusion of *sit* and *set*. It is ME. *setten* 'set (of the sun)', OE. *settan* 'subside,' 'go down,' and so is ultimately the same word as *set* 'make sit'; for the Germanic *-jan* verbs were not restricted to the causative sense. Our *gore*, 'a triangular piece,' is not from Old-English *gār* (p. 210), but from the weak derivative *gāra*. The Germanic word seen in English *under* stands for both Latin *infra* and Latin *inter;* hence there is nothing at all inconsistent (p. 236) in *under these circumstances*, or in German *unter diesen Umständen*. The word *near* (p. 200) has no mutation, and that of *next* is not *i*-mutation. Such forms as *varsity, varsal, tarnal*, as well as *possum, coon, cute, squire*, and *Miss*, are perfectly normal phonetic developments, and must not be identified with the slangy clipped forms *aft* or *after* for *afternoon, exam, prof, cab, bus, phone, photo*, etc. (pp. 61, 62).

The chapters on slang and on fashion in language are particularly good. Not only, however, does slang at times become good English (p. 74); perfectly good English may, by persistent repetition, become slang —for example, "Not much," "And don't you forget it." The use of *his* with names of authors, for example, "He knew his Homer from beginning to end," cannot be designated as purified slang (p. 61). It is simply an analogical use of the possessive that arose in speaking of the getting of lessons, thus, "He decided to postpone studying his algebra and to learn his Homer first."

We may congratulate ourselves that the English language is here found sufficient for the discussion of English speech. Only one or two German words still spot the page: *Umlaut* (for *mutation*), and *Sprachgefühl*. The latter term is used by the Germans for one's intuitive feeling for what accords with the spirit of the language. For this, English-speaking people used *feeling* (compare *usage* where the Germans say *Sprachgebrauch*) until they began to go to school to the Germans and learned the German word. Our authors employ *Sprachgefühl* (pp. 126, 147, 181) mostly in the sense of 'spirit of the language' or 'genius of the language,' for which the English terms are all-sufficient. One Germanism that has of late crept into the philological talk of English-speaking people appears on page 209—*fall together* (*zusammenfallen*) for *coincide*. Slips are extremely rare: "Journal of German[ic] Philology" (p. 118). *W. Ger.* (p. 143) needs explanation more than several of the abbreviations that are explained.

The work is equipped with a table of contents, an excellent index of matters, a nearly complete index of words, and a helpful bibliographical appendix. These features render it easy to get at any one of the thousands of items which make this rather a book of reference than a manual for the average student of English, for whom it is really too full. An abridged edition, prepared for use in schools and colleges, would meet with a warm reception.

FIVE BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

English Music in the Nineteenth Century. By J. A. Fuller Maitland. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mastersingers. By Filson Young. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Music and its Masters. By O. B. Boise. J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Philosophy of Voice. By Charles Lunn. G. Schirmer.

La Musique à Paris, 1898-1900. Par Gustave Robert. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.

In the opinion of Mr. Maitland, "music in England is the only one of the arts that has a vivid life at the present moment." Mr. Maitland succeeded Dr. Hueffer as musical critic of the London *Times*, and his books and other writings have given him a place among the few whose opinion is authoritative. Champions of contemporary poetry or painting might dispute his assertion, so far as those arts are concerned; but the thesis that music enjoys a healthy, vigorous life in Great Britain at present he has maintained ably in his new volume, which not only is by far the best book ever written on music in England, but brings the subject up to date from every point of view.

Before the nineteenth century there were periods when England had a spontaneous, indigenous musical life. Then, for a long time, it became merely receptive. Among European nations the English was for a long time far more ready than any other to welcome musicians from abroad. Not only English composers, but English performers, were underpaid; but, on the other hand, the constant importation of famous artists from the Continent gave English audiences the advantage of hearing everything that was best in the musical world. Attention is also called to the fact, to be pondered by chauvinists, that it may be doubted, supposing that the custom of this English hospitality to foreign artists had not existed, whether the money paid by the public to hear them would have gone into the pockets of English musicians instead. It was in the department of opera, naturally, that the foreign invasion was most conspicuous. The author has an interesting chapter on "The Palmy Days of the Opera," in which he shows, among other things, how Augustus Harris saved and revived grand opera by breaking down the stupid tradition of Italian being the only language for opera. By following the policy of singing each opera in the language it was written in, and by adepts in its style, grand opera has actually been made profitable in London as in New York; whereas during the long period when Italian opera alone ruled, "manager after manager was ruined by it, and the only marvel is that any one should have been found willing to undertake the business."

Mr. Maitland does not overrate Handel, whose oratorios were so nicely calculated to please British taste. He frankly discusses the British public's "ill-regulated enthusiasms," which, first in the case of Handel and then of Mendelssohn, made it impossible for any one but their imitators to win approval. He also dwells on the temporary craze for the oratorios of Gounod, of which he speaks in a tone of contempt strangely at variance with the enthusiastic attitude of

Saint-Saëns; and on the behavior of the public in regard to the music of Brahms, Tchaikovsky, and Wagner. After discussing these "Foreign Dominations," the author treats of "The Church Composers," "Before the Renaissance," "The Transition," "The Institutions," "Sullivan and Light Music," "The Leaders of the Renaissance," "Opera in the Renaissance," "Followers of the Renaissance," "Drawbacks and Prospects." He is convinced that, in a thousand ways, the musical atmosphere to-day is more favorable to native talent than it was at the beginning of the last century; and that during the last quarter of a century England has regained a position she has not held for at least two hundred years. Even if one cannot agree with Mr. Maitland in the high estimate he places on some of the "leaders of the Renaissance," it is pleasant to come upon his optimism in a place where pessimism and talk of decadence usually prevail.

A more despondent view of music in England is taken by the author of 'Mastersingers.' "We seem," he writes, "to have the same machinery in London for producing composers as they have in Vienna and Leipzig, but still the composers do not come." Mr. Young deplores the absence of a musical "atmosphere" in England, and the public's addiction to buying reams of stuff that is artistically worthless:

> "The taste of a people in art is shown not so much in the concert-hall as in the drawing-room, less in the picture gallery than on the dining-room walls; and in music the English drawing-room taste is for these travesties of art: all that is commonplace, characterless, maudlin, and invertebrate finds favor there. A mean prettiness is the most that is asked for."

The chief fault of Mr. Young's book is a tendency to verbose preludizing. But he has many interesting things to say, particularly about Charles Hallé, Bach, Tchaikovsky, Wagner, Mozart, Saint-Saëns, and others. A more able criticism than his of Berlioz has never been written, and the chapter on "An Irish Musician" is a just tribute to Dr. Stanford. "It is because Stanford's music has the power to grip men's hearts in a far greater degree than the music of his contemporaries has it," that, our author thinks, "his name and fame will be left standing among the ruins of much that now seems likely to endure."

'Music and its Masters' is a somewhat misleading title for a book treating of the art in such chapters as "The Nature and Origin of Music," "Music's First Era," "Biblical Mention of Music," "Music from the Invention of Notation to Date," and so on. The author is at fault in some places, as when he repeats the old legend (which used greatly to annoy the great song composer) that Robert Franz formed his name by combining the first names of his idols, Robert Schumann and Franz Schubert; or when he asserts that "Wagner left little or nothing to the conductor's discretion." He talks sense when he declares that "some of Johann Strauss's waltzes are quite as genuine music as are Beethoven's symphonies," and adds that he thinks it "pure affectation for musical persons to express a lack of respect for a good piece of dance music." He talks nonsense when he says that Chopin is not entitled to a place among the musical giants; but one may forgive him because he understands that "nature made Schubert the greatest musical genius the world has seen."

The author of 'The Philosophy of the Voice' says justly that "in voice-production the reign of anarchy has been reached—*Quot homines, tot sententiæ.*" His object is to induce in human beings a mode of voice-production similar to the spontaneous effusion of song-birds. This is a noble ambition, and Mr. Lunn's volume undoubtedly contains some useful hints and suggestions for singers. It is to be regretted that he deemed it necessary to obscure his practical details with mathematics and metaphysics. It does not help a singer to give him such peculiar information as that "mind is made up of three powers: the memory, the understanding, and the will," or to assert that "oneness of being" is "the necessary condition of life." The last chapters are on Stammering and Stuttering and Ventriloquism.

A new volume of M. Gustave Robert's 'La Musique à Paris' is always welcome. The latest volume covers the period 1898-1900, and gives, as usual, a detailed account of all the important musical events in the French capital. For reference, M. Robert's volumes are invaluable, but they also make good reading. Among the notable things in the new issues are studies of Rameau, of "Tristan," of Lamoureux, and several German conductors; of Gluck, Bach, and other composers. There is an elaborate parallel between Massenet and Paul Bourget, with an inquiry into the causes of their popularity. The Grieg-Dreyfus incident is discussed at length, and there are chapters on Richard Strauss and Siegfried Wagner. The last fifty pages are devoted to reviews of recent works on musical topics.

ROBERT'S ILIAD AND ODYSSEY.

Studien zur Ilias. Von Carl Robert. Mit Beiträgen von Friedrich Bechtel. Berlin. 1901. Pp. 591.

The Homeric Question, as to the composition of the Iliad and the Odyssey—whether these had one author or many, and how they came into being and received the unity which they unquestionably possess, whether by a combination of separate lays, or by organic development according to definite plans as true works of art—has known three clearly marked stages. In 1795, Friedrich August Wolf, in his 'Prolegomena ad Homerum,' which has had more influence on so-called higher criticism than any other book ever published, urged that poems of this length could not have been composed or transmitted from generation to generation without the aid of writing, and that this art was unknown in the Homeric age. Therefore, the poems must have been composed as brief lays, and were first united to form the Iliad and Odyssey as we know them by an Athenian commission of the sixth century B. C. At present, scholars do not doubt either that poems can be transmitted by oral tradition for centuries, or that an art of writing was known in Greece a thousand years before our era; but whether this art was used for literary purposes at so early an age is uncertain.

Wolf's arguments against the original unity of the Homeric poems were exclusively external. In 1837, however, Lachmann presented to the Berlin Academy of Sciences "Considerations on Homer's Iliad" which were designed to show from internal evidence that this poem was made up of eighteen independent lays, determined by various inconsistencies; for example, at the close of the first book of the Iliad, Zeus goes to his couch and to sleep, while the second book begins, "All the rest slept, both gods and men, but Zeus did not sleep." Although not all of his followers agreed with him in the details of his divisions, during the next forty years the Homeric Question was discussed chiefly on Lachmann's principles, but scholars came gradually to see that his theory did not explain the unity of the poems. In spite of all inconsistencies of detail in the story and differences in style and language, the careful, unprejudiced reader of Homer is more impressed by the indications of a great, masterful poetic mind and soul than by those of separate composition; while, on the other hand, all scholars now recognize that a certain independence was given to the parts of the poems, since only a few hundred verses were likely to be recited without interruption at one sitting.

The third stage of the Homeric question was reached in 1859, when Kirchhoff of Berlin applied to the Odyssey, which had been let alone by Lachmann's followers since it could not be divided into brief lays of any independence or even possible existence, the theory of an organic development from an original *Nostos*, or "Return of Odysseus," of 1,200 verses. Few scholars now doubt that we should seek not the complete, independent borrowed lay, but the source from which the poet drew. The free use of old material by the Homeric poet is quite certain, but can the older material be separated from the later elements? Fick of Göttingen, in 1883, under the influence of the theory now generally accepted that the earliest Greek epic poetry was in the Aeolic, not in the Ionic dialect, tried the experiment of reverting the Odyssey into Aeolic, and claimed to find that the portions which Kirchhoff had declared older submitted to the change without much difficulty, while the more recent portions were recalcitrant—thus proving, as he believed, both theories, that of Kirchhoff with regard to the composition of the poem, as well as that with regard to the dialect of the early Greek epic. The experiment was interesting, but the time had hardly come for a scientific translation into the Aeolic dialect, and the proof was not convincing. Other attempts to divide the poems into earlier and later elements on linguistic and metrical evidence have not proved satisfactory to scholars in general—partly, perhaps, because they were made too much under the influence of Lachmann's independent lays. Thus, Christ of Munich, in 1884, divided the Iliad into an original Iliad of about 4,500 verses and three layers of additions—many of these additions being by the author of the original Iliad.

Until last year no systematic attempt had been made in a large and thorough way to apply archæological tests for the determination of the relative age of different parts of the Homeric poems. The author of the Studies on the Iliad before us begins with a study of Homeric arms and armor, suggested by Reichel's 'Homerische Waffen' (1894, with a posthumous second edition in 1901). Reichel had shown

that the best illustration of the large Homeric shield, borne by a broad strap over the left shoulder, is to be found in Mycenæan works of art; that this shield was so heavy as to render the chariot almost a necessity for quick and convenient transportation of the chieftain and his shield from the camp to the field of battle, and from one part of the field to another; that the chariot in general was not used as a standing-place for the combatant; that the wearer of the heavy shield had no cuirass, and that his greaves were rather for the protection of his shins from the bruises of his shield than against weapons or missiles of the enemy; and that the helmet was a strong cap rather than a complete covering for the face and head. In the first edition of his book, filled with the joy of his discovery, Reichel was rather dogmatic and impatient in his treatment of what seemed to oppose his view, and would allow no use in Homer of the later bronze armor—cuirass, round shield carried on the left arm, and greaves. In his later edition, he was ready to accept a Mycenæan cuirass or tunic of cloth or leather, strengthened with small plates of metal; but death overtook him before he completed this section of his book.

Professor Robert accepts Reichel's proof that in certain parts of the Iliad the Mycenæan armor prevails, but believes that, in still larger portions, the later Ionian arms have been introduced. The earliest Homeric poet, in his view, was familiar with the Mycenæan armor and composed his poem (the "Urilias") in the Aeolic dialect. To our Iliad, then, a two-fold test is applied: The passages which have no Ionic peculiarities held firm by the metre, and in which the Mycenæan arms are used—these Robert presumes to have been part of the original poem; while those which abound in Ionic peculiarities, and in which bronze cuirass, round shield, and metal greaves are used, are indicated as of later composition. No single one of Lachmann's or of Von Christ's lays can be selected as a whole to belong to either class. The analysis must be more minute, and is intricate and difficult. Not infrequently a verse-tag or an ornamental epithet which belongs strictly to the later armor, seems to have taken the place of its metrical equivalent which was appropriate to the earlier armor, while, on the other hand, a later poet, in his free use of earlier epic material, may have introduced into his description of war as he knew it, with cuirass and round shield, a clause, or verse or verses, which assume the earlier arms. So, also, in the language—a clause or verse containing Ionic peculiarities may have found its place in a narrative which was originally composed in Aeolic, the story being modernized, as it were, by the introduction of epithets referring to later usage, while an Ionic archaistic poet may consciously have introduced into his story old formulæ or Aeolic forms, endeavoring to represent older fashions, well aware that the Aeolic was the old Epic dialect. So the test of our author is not so final and precise as could be desired, but it leads to some interesting results. Robert recognizes 2,146 verses as parts of the original Iliad, which he supposes to have comprised about 3,000 verses; the remainder having been crowded out at different times to admit the narrative of later recensions. The "Urilias," according to him, was revised and extended by three later poets.

In the original form of the poem, we are told, some nine or ten Achæan clans or tribes are represented. Only half a dozen Achæan chieftains have chariots. Fair Helen is barely mentioned. Achilles is the centre of the action. The gods do not appear in human form, and Troy has no temple. The most obvious criticisms on the poem thus secured are that it gives too little information as to the cause of the war and the persons of the chieftains, and that if the verses have been so much disturbed and rearranged as our author supposes, no one but the original poet could with certainty assign to them their several original places. The first reviser is thought to have been from Miletus, the second a Samian, and the third a Eubœan. The author not merely allows an historical basis for the Trojan story, but even supposes that certain Trojan families are exalted in the Iliad, since their descendants in Asia Minor were patrons of the poet. Some narratives of conflicts are supposed to have been transferred to the plain of Troy and the Iliad from earlier epics of Greece, so that some of the Homeric heroes are represented as falling before Troy when they originally fought against Seven-Gated Thebes or in the Calydonian boar-hunt.

The Homeric Question contains too many unknown or uncertain elements to admit of a final solution by such a work as that before us, but this scholarly attempt to secure a solution is not only interesting but stimulating, and is likely to advance the study of the original plan and early growth of the Homeric poems as no other has done for thirty years. The author is one of the most learned and judicious of classical archæologists, and has rendered many services to philology by casting light from archæology on the history of Greek literature. For the rendering of the "Urilias" into the Aeolic dialect, Bechtel accepts the responsibility.

A History and Description of Chinese Porcelain. By Cosmo Monkhouse. With Notes by S. W. Bushell, C.M.G., containing twenty-four plates in colors and numerous illustrations. New York: A. Wessels Co. Pp. xii, 176.

This book contains a serious attempt to give to the student what he most needs, whether he study Chinese porcelain in great collections to which he may have access, or begin the gathering of such treasures for himself. The requisite limitation of the book to one octavo volume, with illustrations that should not put it entirely out of the reach of book-buyers in general, is a restriction that must be clearly understood. It was at a price of five hundred dollars that the great book on Oriental porcelain, prepared expressly for the sake of the Walters collection in Baltimore, was issued. Mr. Monkhouse's endeavor was to give the history of Chinese porcelain in forty pages, and a descriptive account of its different varieties in a hundred and forty pages more, and he had prepared before his death the text (which was found complete) and the twenty-four colored plates. Dr. Bushell, then released from his duties at Peking, seems to have taken the book in hand, to have made a few notes which are initialled, and to have prepared the black-and-white illustrations, which are fairly good half-tones, fifty-four in number.

It is, perhaps, right to say that Mr. Monkhouse has been well known as a writer on fine-art subjects; and although his work was rather that of a literary man who is drawn toward art, his books, so far as our observation has gone, are good of their kind—of a kind from which strictly critical treatment of any subject is almost of necessity debarred, but in which trustworthy historical record is mingled with such general appreciation of artistic work as befits the contribution to a monthly magazine or a book for exclusively popular circulation. Dr. Bushell, on the other hand, is one who is in a sense technically well informed on the difficult subject before us—that is to say, he has made a study in China itself of the porcelains which came within his observation; as also (and it is thought profoundly) of the documentary history existing in the Chinese language. The history of the subject is extremely baffling, and has been the source of endless absurd assumptions made by the enthusiastic collectors of the past forty years. No one who has mingled with the dealers and their customers but is familiar with the bold assertions: "There, sir, that color has not been made in China since the twelfth century," and the like—assertions capable of giving great comfort to the speaker, who is generally the owner of the piece in question, and which certainly cannot be disproved. Loose and vague as is our knowledge on the subject, there is still a slowly increasing body of historical data which can be trusted; and if in the record here given, pages 13 to 48, there is little to justify the running title "Historical," and much, very much, which should rather be in the "Descriptive" part, as consisting of minute accounts, "by a Chinese connoisseur of the sixteenth century," of separate pieces known to him, yet a beginning is made of a really historical narrative.

It is to be said, moreover, that the text of this book is very readable indeed. The history is intelligible, and the constant reference to other authors shows plainly enough upon what foundations it has been built up. The descriptive part is necessarily of the nature of a catalogue, but this is interspersed with frequent critical and descriptive passages sometimes more than a page long, and all very interesting. We are brought, however, to the less admirable parts of the book when we seek to use it in a practical way, as, for instance, in trying to gain some information about a given vase or bowl. There is no index whatever; and if one thinks for a moment of the immense number of technical terms scattered through the "Descriptive" pages, and notes the intelligent explanations of those terms, the need of an index becomes very evident. The "Glossary" is only two pages long. Then, the illustrations have no immediate connection with the text. This seems a great fault, or at least a great deficiency. To be offered several hundred descriptions of pieces in an exhibition of the Burlington Fine Arts Club, in 1895, good and intelligible descriptions, too; to have added to this twenty-four colored plates with excellent descriptions in the way of legend, and, finally, a lot of photographs as above described, but to have these three forms of information wholly independent each of the other, without any system of cross-references, is a

shortcoming as great as that of the absence of an index. Perhaps but for the death of Mr. Monkhouse these inconveniences would have been removed. The best advice that the reviewer can give to him who would study this book is, to read it through carefully, and to cover the fly-leaves with pencilled notes of the passages which he wants to find again. Such private indexing may be carried even beyond the limits of the fly-leaves and cover linings. Even if you do for yourself the work which certainly author and editor should have done for you, you have the consolation that it will be not less but much more useful to you in that it has been work of your own. There is no "artificial memory" like that!

To have done with the shortcomings of the book, let it be noted that most undue praise is given in Dr. Bushell's preface to the colored plates. They are "three-color" prints, and as yet this process gives a not wholly satisfactory result—flat and thin, imperfectly defined, feeble in color. They are not bad as explaining the look of the piece, and the very fact that they are wholly photographic goes far to convince the student of their authenticity; but for beauty they can no more be compared with the splendid colored prints in the Walters book, to which, however, they *are* compared in the preface, than can the cheap colored work in our Sunday newspapers with the chromolithographs of Kellerhoven.

We have to say, finally, that nothing can be better than the critical tone of the book. It is insisted on throughout how completely the value of the ancient pieces is to be determined by their beauty—by their merit as pieces of "potting" and by the significance and value of their decoration—rather than by marks or supposed authentic dates, or by evidences of what is thought to be extreme rarity. The distinction between the finer ware with finer painting and the cheaper porcelains of which great quantities were and are made and exported to Europe, is well established and insisted on, as on pages 85, 86; and in connection with this there is the distinction, well made out, between that of the more dainty and decorative ware which is evidently intended for exportation to Europe, and that which the Chinese themselves care for. As we are continually brought up by the difficulty that the illustrations do not come where they are wanted, while yet so freely allotted to the book in general, so it is to be said here again that three or four pictures given on, or in face of, the pages named in the last sentence, or referred to from those pages, would make them useful indeed. Some of us know what is meant when there is mention of the pieces painted with European flower sprigs and known by the name of Lowestoft china; more numerous are they who can make out the veiled reference to what is called in our shops "Canton" and "Nankin" wares; but how good it would be to have this matter stated clearly and illustrated by well-chosen and plainly described pictures.

Napoleon: A Sketch of his Life, Character, Struggles and Achievements. By Thomas E. Watson. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The quality of Mr. Watson's book on Napoleon will be most quickly apprehended by those who have read his 'Story of France.' Both works are written in the same style, are instinct with the same sentiments, and are based upon the same treatment of historical material. The style is dithyrambic, the sentiment is populistic, and the treatment of materials is eclectic. Napoleon, in Mr. Watson's eyes, was a man of the people, who rose high, and was not ashamed of his origin.

"When he, the Emperor, chosen by the people, stood up in his carriage on the streets of Paris, and pointed out to his Austrian bride the window of the room in which he had lodged when he came up from Brienne—a poor boy with his career to make—his pride in pointing to that milepost on the toilsome route of his promotion was that of all self-made men, was that of the man who scorns to win where he has not fought, was that of the robust conqueror who wants nothing for which he has not paid the price of manly effort."

Here, so far as we can make out, is the main reason of Mr. Watson's fondness for Napoleon. The Emperor was the product of the Revolution, and, by his beneficent legislation, he helped forward the cause of the masses. Thus, with all his despotism, he was a truly democratic leader, and great sins should be pardoned him. Much, of course, may be fitly said about Napoleon as the author of the Code, but Mr. Watson is wedded to this one conception, and his eclecticism consists in a choice of just such facts as will support a particular theory. Now to support a particular theory through thick and thin is to write, not history, but a polemical tract; and this is what Mr. Watson has done.

Vehement affections beget vehement dislikes. Mr. Watson cannot speak with patience of royalists, aristocrats, or English Tories. Whether from irrepressible zeal or from a love of composing rhetorical passages, he must burst forth at short intervals into denunciation or bitter sarcasm. Where a misdemeanor of Napoleon needs to be registered, the fact is quietly stated, and the narrative moves on. Where aristocrats or sovereigns are the offenders, Mr. Watson stops to castigate them well. "You go to France to-day, and you see around you, everywhere, Napoleon. You hear, on all sides, Napoleon. . . . Who does not know that the very soul of French memory for the past centres at the Invalides, where the dead warrior lies in state?" All this may be true, but Baron Coubertin is a good Frenchman, and a supporter of the Third Republic. In speaking of the Napoleonic sentimentalism which was affected by the Left under Louis XVIII., he says: "Unfortunately, the Opposition preached the benefits of liberty, and Napoleon had been a despot; the Opposition tended to fraternity among the nations, and Napoleon had been their oppressor." The idea that Napoleon was in any sense an oppressor of the nations seems to carry little weight with Mr. Watson. The sovereigns of this period are, indeed, fair subjects for facetious allusion, but that they had any just ground for opposing the extension of Napoleonic power is not admitted with sufficient candor. "And how had the wars commenced which Napoleon had inherited, and which he had never been able to end [1814]? By the determination of kings and aristocracies to check the spread of French principles, to crush democracy in its birth, and to restore to its old place organized superstition, class-privilege, and the divine right of kings." The assumption, it will be observed, is that Napoleon was anxious to give Europe peace. In close correspondence with this implication are words which occur in another place: "Never in Napoleon's career had the prayer of a vanquished foe fallen upon ears which heard not. The battle ended, he was ready for peace. He bore no malice, took no revenge. Splendid acts of generosity lit his progress from first to last." Even if we were willing to accept this extraordinary affirmation, something might yet be said for the Germans who fought against Napoleon in 1813. *Parcere subjectis et debellare superbos* is not a proclamation which readily commends itself to nations of the modern world.

Some time ago we followed Mr. Watson through one volume of his 'Story of France,' and found much fault with him in points of detail. His present book is also open to hostile criticism on the same ground, though it has been prepared with greater care. We do not wish to go through a similar analysis, for it would serve no good purpose; but we would point out that a writer must be pretty sure of his ground before he can afford to shaft his witticisms against "these recent biographers who dig and delve, and turn things over, and find out more about them a century after the occurrences than the men who took part in them ever knew."

Without being in any sense an investigator, Mr. Watson has read a good many books about Napoleon, and he always writes with animation. His liveliness is in many ways admirable, and we must confess that there is a stimulating note in many of his outbursts about freedom and social equality. On the other hand, his portraiture of Napoleon is marred by exaggeration, by the introduction of much that is irrelevant, and by the display of an almost personal resentment towards persons and causes that might have much to say for themselves. Such declamation serves to hide the truth and to create rooted prejudice in the minds of those who read one book on a subject, and one book only. Worst of all, in our opinion, is Mr. Watson's friendliness of attitude towards a union of Cæsarism and democracy. There is little danger just now to be feared from a recrudescence of the old régime, but there is always a lurking danger in the spread of the military spirit which, while cajoling with democracy, points straight to despotism. The French began in this way at Brumaire, and presently they were at Waterloo. After a while they began again at the *Coup d'Etat*, and this time the end was at Sedan.

An American at Oxford. By John Corbin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

The day after the publication of the Rhodes will, a London journal published a telegram from its New York correspondent announcing that the American papers were "preparing to discover Oxford." Mr. Corbin's offer of his services as the Columbus of this twentieth-century exploration is therefore exceptionally timely. His experience as a journalist, trained both to observe and to write, has greatly assisted him in producing this excellent record of personal impressions. Its graphic descriptions and general briskness are a consid-

erable compensation for whatever is lacking on the side of scientific thoroughness. The author's skill in the art of putting things is evident in many delightful touches; for instance, in his account of the college scout as standing to the undergraduate "in somewhat more than the place of a servant and less than that of a parent."

In these days of athletic enthusiasm, perhaps the most generally interesting section of this volume will be that entitled "Oxford Out of Doors." It includes a rapturous paper on the delights of punting, and a detailed comparison of English and American football, as well as track and field athletics. Mr. Corbin was much surprised at first by the easy-going methods of English training, and, although he has since come to see that there is an advantage in treating a sport as a sport, and not as a task, he still criticises unfavorably the distaste "for the careful preparation that alone enables a man to fight out a finish to the best advantage." He believes that whatever excesses are found in American sport would be mitigated by the division of our universities into residential units, corresponding roughly to the English colleges.

But it is the chapters dealing with the social life of Oxford that give this book its chief value. It would be difficult to find anywhere a more admirable account of the manners and customs of the English undergraduate. Mr. Corbin is especially emphatic in his commendation of the arrangements which give every freshman an opportunity of showing his qualities, in contrast with the "mob and cliques" system of Harvard. For the American defect in this case also he anticipates a remedy in the further development of halls and fraternities.

The section concerned with education proper will, perhaps, be of greater service in enlightening the English reader about the weak points of the American elective system than in giving the American an insight into the actual character of Oxford teaching. The more obvious features of the routine of lectures and tuition are satisfactorily described, but Mr. Corbin does not succeed in giving an adequate impression of the nature of the university examinations. He is, perhaps, handicapped by the fact that his own interests are mainly in English literature, a subject which, at Oxford, has been regarded, until quite recently, as a parergon. As a typical example of a final honor school he quotes the regulations affecting the honors examination in English literature. This school illustrates, it is true, the Oxford practice of grouping electives into a well-ordered and connected course, but it is as yet in the experimental stage, and the number of candidates in it is extremely small. The course of study which more than any other is characteristic of Oxford—classical honor moderations followed by the final school of *litteræ humaniores*—receives very imperfect treatment. The description of the latter school as having for its subject-matter "the mediæval trivium and quadrivium, plus modern philosophy," is scarcely short of ludicrous. Mr. Corbin is equally wide of the mark when he says that, "in England, a tutor may be a scholar, and usually is not." In fact, one of the chief weaknesses of the average English tutor, whether at Oxford or at Cambridge, has been and still is a tendency to attach extravagant importance to niceties of scholarship. It is by tutors, or ex-tutors—such men as Bywater, Jebb, Robinson Ellis, Liddell, and the Nettleships—that the best work in English scholarship has been done, and it is from college tutors almost invariably that professors are chosen, for chairs requiring scholarship, in the Scotch and Colonial, as well as the English, universities. Mr. Corbin's divergence from the general judgment is probably to be explained, partly by the fact that he uses the word "scholarship" to denote qualifications very different from those which it traditionally expresses, and partly by his failure to make allowance for that extreme self-criticism which makes many of the ablest dons reluctant to publish, and accordingly prevents them from gaining an outside reputation. While, however, Mr. Corbin has by no means supplied the American reader with a complete account of the educational methods of Oxford, he cannot fairly be accused of any lack of appreciation of the Oxford educational ideals. Indeed, he goes so far as to sum up his whole account in the verdict that, for the present, the elements of which American higher education has most need may best be assimilated from England, and that the adoption of these elements, superadded to those already imported from Germany, would make American universities superior to any in Europe.

A few minor errata deserve notice. It is not a little confusing to employ "fellow" sometimes in the English sense of "don," and sometimes in the American sense of "undergraduate." It is not the case, as implied on page 161, that only a few colleges have an entrance test independent of responsions. The particulars given on page 184 of the time allowed in preparation for various examinations are erroneous. For examination purposes the academical year consists of four terms, not three, so that in each case the latest date of candidature is much earlier than that stated by Mr. Corbin. The name "Broderick" (p. 204) should be "Brodrick." The "gentleman commoner" was not identical with the "commoner" (p. 238).

The twelve illustrations are excellent. There is no index.

Formal Gardens in England and Scotland. By H. Inigo Triggs. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 118 plates.

Of all the publications that have accompanied the revival of the formal garden, none furnishes such a fund of accurate information about the planning of good old examples as does 'Formal Gardens in England and Scotland.' The reason for this superiority is not far to seek. Other books, as Sedding's 'Garden Craft,' have been concerned with the sentiment of the thing; others, as Blomfield's 'Formal Gardens,' with history of garden design; others, as Miss Amherst's excellent history, with the whole story of the garden and its contents; others, as Sieveking's, with the garden in literature; others, as 'Gardens Old and New,' with the photographic presentation of well-known examples; but it has remained for Mr. H. Inigo Triggs to show us, by careful measurement and clear delineation in plans drawn to scale, the actual facts of the extent and arrangement of many famous gardens. Photographs, indeed, accompany the plans, but the plans give the distinction to the book, and force us to think of it as doing for the gardens of England and Scotland (in a less complete, though one trusts more reliable, fashion) what the work of Percier and Fontaine long ago did for the gardens of Rome.

After seeing the many photographs of English gardens that have of late years reached us, and after having puzzled our heads about their plans and wondered greatly about their slopes and levels, it is a satisfaction to have at last the real facts presented in a plain and unpretending fashion, quite free from vagueness intentional or unintentional. Who among garden lovers has not tried to understand the lay-out of St. Catharine's Court near Bath, and who, from photographs, has been able to make it out even inexactly? Yet here, in our newest book, we have a plan no bigger than one's hand and a section but half as large, making clear at a glance all the seeming intricacies of the place. So it is with some of the hillside gardens of Scotland, Balcaskie or Barncluith, charming in their irregular formality, but scarcely to be known, to one at a distance, without a plan and section.

Perhaps it may be said that to know the exact facts as to a garden's arrangement is to lose an indefinable mystery, the secret of its half-discovered charm, and this is doubtless true if we think only of the enjoyment to be had from looking upon the finished work. But it is well to remember that here in America gardens are being multiplied on every hand, and that what we lack is not an easy admiration of old things, but an exact knowledge of how best to solve our problems. This we can get, or rather our garden-designers can get it for us, most satisfactorily by studying the ways in which the best gardens have been planned; and it is just because Mr. Triggs's book enables us to do this, as far as concerns English and Scottish gardens, better than any other book, that it should and will meet with a hearty welcome from all serious students of garden design. We must add that while it contains pictures of many delightfully quaint and interesting old gardens, such as those at Levens Hall, with its hornbeam hedges twelve feet thick, it is a pity that it should have included so many examples of stiff and inartistic formality as it does. The painful neatness and the unpleasant forms of the beds at Drumlanrig Castle, or in the so-called "Italian" garden at Wilton House, show how a garden may be utterly dry and devoid of all charm in spite of the utmost pains in making or keeping it.

A fair proportion of the space is given up to the accessories of gardens, such as gateways, vases in lead or stone, sundials, stairways, garden-houses, and the like—a notable collection, full of useful suggestions. The introductory essay, while it contributes nothing new to our knowledge of the history of gardening, is a clear and systematic, though brief, record of the progress of the art of gardens in England and Scotland from the earliest to the present time.

Letters to an Enthusiast. By Mary Cowden Clarke. Being a series of letters addressed to Robert Balmanno, Esq., of

New York, 1850-1861. Edited by Anne Upton Nettleton. With ten photogravure plates. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1902.

The main pleasure to be derived from this book, which is very attractively made, is that of contact with so agreeable a personality as Mary Cowden Clarke. Sir Walter Besant suggests, in his recent autobiography, that the nineteenth century did not really begin much before 1840, sounding before that no characteristic note. Mrs. Clarke offers something in the way of confirmation of this theory. Born in 1809, she was a woman of the eighteenth-century type. She had its effusiveness, its warmth, its sentiment—if sentimentalism would be too harsh a word. To say that she sometimes gushes would not exceed the fact. She is a near relation of Fanny Burney and her precious Evelina. But she is so simple, so unaffected, so kind, so full of life and joy, that she is a delightful creature; and, if she cannot help calling Leigh Hunt and Charles Lamb "dear" almost every time she speaks of them, we do not care. Such a good heart is not so ordinary that every light offence should bear its comment.

Her *opus magnum* was the Shakspere Concordance, long indispensable, and still widely used, though surpassed by Bartlett's. Central to her literary activity, it was also central to the correspondence which this book preserves—on her side only, with the exception of her correspondent's first letter. Her resolve to make the Concordance was fixed one day when she was walking with Charles and Mary Lamb in their garden, and it was an engrossing task for sixteen years. Mr. Robert Balmanno of New York was so much pleased with the completed work that he wrote to Douglas Jerrold, begging him to get from Mrs. Clarke one of the slips she used in preparing it, promising two ounces of California gold in return. On receipt of the slip, he sent her two gold pens. The correspondence which ensued is that herewith presented. The correspondents never met, but Mr. Balmanno followed up his first gift with cedar tubs and a cedar chest, and finally with a large rosewood chair, of which a picture is given. This gift, however, he made jointly with a number of distinguished Americans, among whom were Bryant, Longfellow, Charlotte Cushman, and Daniel Webster. Webster's gold piece was sent over to Mrs. Clarke, and great was her delight to have a piece of money that had "passed through his hands," as if they had any aptitude for keeping what came into them. The big chair taxed her powers of grateful expression to the uttermost. Her first letter to Mr. Balmanno was addressed "To the American Enthusiast, New York City," but somehow it reached its destination, and the friendship was fixed.

Mrs. Clarke does her best to put her enthusiast in full possession of all the facts that he desires concerning her personal appearance, that of her husband and other members of her family, and their way of life. Her geese are all swans, and her husband the finest swan that ever was. She is her brother's favorite sister, and she and her husband "have long been noted for being married lovers." There is seldom a hard word for any one. Edwin Forrest, whose acting she had found highly amusing, fares worst—"an incredible ruffian"; but out of sympathy with Mr. Balmanno's chivalric part in the Forrest divorce case. For a devout Shaksperian Mrs. Clarke was a good Baconian, writing, "Just now we have a bit of Bacon for breakfast—Verulam Bacon, I mean. We are in a course of that fine, relishing old fellow, and racy and savoury and pungent and exquisitely choice do we find him on reperusal." The passage on "the droll school of young men who call themselves the Pre-Raffaellites" is rubricated amusingly in the recent memoirs of the brothers Dalziel, where it appears that Rossetti's illustration of Tennyson's "St. Cecilia" was too deep for the poet: he could find no excuse for it in his poem. Mrs. Clarke cannot agree with Mr. Balmanno that Flaxman is "the Shakspere of art," and there is nothing strange in that. It is interesting to find her asking her friend if he knows anything of a book called 'The Scarlet Letter.' Two of the chapters she scored with her pencil on every page. Some touches suggest to her a woman, but on the whole she is inclined to think the author a man. Her simultaneous admiration of Webster and Harriet Beecher Stowe's 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' imports that her knowledge of our American politics was not nicely critical.

There was a good stock of energy in her. The Concordance preface was signed in every volume by her own hand, and she wrote all the signatures at one sitting, writing from breakfast till sundown. There is a cordial greeting for Collier's emendations of Shakspere's text, with strange acceptance of "blankness of the dark" for "blanket of the dark" in Lady Macbeth's speech. In 1858 she edited an edition of Shakspere, and she writes pathetically of her troubles with the various readings; they flavor every meal; she cogitates them in her walks; she dreams of them in her sleep. Nevertheless, a year's time seems to have been sufficient for the task, and the fact does not imply immoderately exigent ideals.

There are pleasant glimpses of Mrs. Clarke's life on the Italian coast, and we find Mr. Balmanno extending his knowledge of geography by questioning as to whether Nice was on the island of Sardinia. His death occurred in August, 1861. Could we have had his side of the correspondence, throughout its length, the book would have been much more entertaining. He did not misname himself an enthusiast, and in Mrs. Clarke he found a woman after his own heart. She was grateful for his admiration, and rewarded it with an affection which, in its joyous freedom, had no taint of fault or fear. Charles Cowden Clarke, who was twenty years older than his wife, died in 1889. The wife outlived him nearly ten years, with great abundance of all that which should accompany old age.

The Life and Works of Friedrich Schiller. By Calvin Thomas. Henry Holt & Co. 1901.

It is a genuine pleasure to meet with a scholar of Professor Thomas's type, a man who, painstaking in his collection of material, cautious in his research, unbiassed in his judgment, sober in his conclusions, at the same time displays a decided individuality of his own, never loses himself in the mass of detail, and always takes the larger view of a subject. All these qualities, which perhaps may be summed up under the head of true common sense, Professor Thomas has thus far manifested chiefly as editor of classic German dramas, and although his notes and commentaries here and there, especially as regards Goethe's "Faust," betray a certain lack of the deeper poetic and philosophical insight, yet the fact remains that, on the whole, his editions are models of sound scholarship and appreciative criticism.

The present book, which for the first time shows him in the rôle of literary biographer, in every way confirms our previous impression of Professor Thomas's scholarly worth. It will not easily be superseded. Schiller has thus far fared ill at the hands of English writers. Carlyle's youthful effusion, noble and inspiring as it is, can of course in no way satisfy the more serious demands of our own time. Boyesen's and Sime's accounts, although agreeable and sympathetic reading, are essays rather than biographies; and the latest English Schiller biographer, Nevinson, is so far removed from a just understanding of his hero's character that one fails to see why he should have chosen to depict it. Professor Thomas's book is the first comprehensive account in English of Schiller's life and works which will stand the test of time. Based upon German scholarship, it is by no means a mere copy of a German model. Indeed, it would be hard to name a German biography which fulfils equally well the peculiar function of this book, namely, that of making Schiller live before our eyes.

In the first place, Professor Thomas is in real sympathy with his hero, and he consequently spares himself no pains to enter into his mode of thought and feeling. He accompanies him in his various moods and intellectual transformations; he follows conscientiously the many traces of literary indebtedness and influence; he observes him at work, wrestling with his conceptions and shaping his ideals; he rejoices with his triumphs and mourns with his failures; and even where, as in the case of Schiller's philosophical writings, he is not able to accept his views, he at least respects them. In short, there is a most refreshing note of personal affection in this book; a note which is perhaps all the more appealing because it proceeds from a somewhat caustic, matter-of-fact temper.

Secondly, Professor Thomas has historical perspective. He tries to revive not only Schiller, but his time as well; and he succeeds. Indeed, one might call this book a gallery of portraits from the end of the eighteenth century. The Würtemberg court of Schiller's youth, Dalberg, Charlotte von Kalb, Körner's circle at Leipzig, the society of Jena and Weimar, Goethe's and Schiller's friendship—these are some of the episodes and personalities in the portrayal of which is displayed the true art of historical narration; and throughout the book this same character is preserved.

Finally, the book has good proportions, and in this respect is superior to all German Schiller biographies save that of Wychgram. It can be enjoyed from beginning to end; and it is very much to be hoped that it will be read by many, particularly by large numbers of college students. It is wholesome food.

The Deer Family. By Theodore Roosevelt and Others. Macmillan. 1902.

This is the first of the ten proposed volumes which are to compose "The American Sportsman's Library." If the rest of the series are equally good, Mr. Caspar Whitney may well be proud of his success as editor. In the present volume, Mr. Roosevelt treats of "The Mule Deer or Rocky Mountain Blacktail," "The Whitetail Deer," the "Pronghorn Antelope," and the "Wapiti or Round-horned Elk." The introduction, by Mr. Roosevelt, gives some interesting information as to the nomenclature of wild creatures adopted in this country. The newcomers to America named many birds and animals from their resemblance, real or fancied, to those they were familiar with in the Old World. For instance, our so-called quail is not a quail at all. Our partridge is not a partridge, but a grouse, as are our Western birds known locally as fool hens, sage hens, and prairie chickens. The prongbuck of the plains, "an animal standing as much alone among ruminants as does the giraffe," is uniformly known as an antelope; "the American true elk and reindeer were rechristened moose and caribou, and the huge stag was called an elk." The bison was called a buffalo, which Mr. Roosevelt says "was no worse than the way in which every one in Europe called the Old World bison an aurochs." This is questionable, as the aurochs, or urus, meaning "wild ox," was the name in use in western and northern Europe by the natives of those parts before they had ever heard the word "bison," or "bonassus," or knew of the existence of the Greeks or Romans. Mr. Roosevelt allows, in addition to the so-called antelope, six wholly distinct kinds of deer in North America—the moose, caribou, wapiti, whitetail, and the two blacktails.

There are incidentally, in the introduction and throughout the book, strong appeals to humanity and moderation in sport. Mr. Roosevelt says:

"The best test of the worth of any sport is the demand that sport makes upon those qualities of mind and body which, in their sum, we call manliness. Wherever possible, he [the sportsman] should keep a notebook and should carefully study and record the habits of the wild creatures, especially when in some remote regions to which trained scientific observers but rarely have access."

The blacktail deer of the Rocky Mountains has now the greatest range of any member of the deer family, except the whitetail, although it is fast diminishing in numbers. It is still plentiful in some parts of Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, and over the northern line of the latter State in the British possessions. It is also found in Lower California and in the northern part of Mexico. There are in the book under notice several very instructive maps, contributed by Dr. Merriam of the Smithsonian Institution, which show the ranges in 1900 of the different deer of North America.

Following the long and interesting chapter on the blacktail deer, comes one on his smaller brother, the whitetail, or Virginia deer, the most widely distributed and plentiful of American big game. Mr. Roosevelt says:

"It holds its own in the land better than any other species because it is by choice a dweller in the thick forests and swamps, the places around which the tide of civilization flows, leaving them as islets of refuge for the wild creatures which formerly haunted all the country."

It will, unlike the blacktail, breed in conditions of limited freedom, and there are to-day not half a dozen States in the Union where the wild whitetail is not found. It flourishes with the most moderate protection, and is probably now more plentiful in New York and some of the Eastern States than it was twenty-five years since. There are still many deer killed by the very noxious and illegal methods of "crusting," when the snow is deep with an icy crust on top, through which the poor animals have to break at each step, and can easily be tired out and knocked in the head by a brute on snowshoes, or even without them. Hunting from a boat at night with a jack or light is also very destructive, and deer may thus be killed by any self-styled sportsman without the least skill or exertion; nor is either of these two qualifications necessary for success in the pursuit of deer driven to water by hounds, and shot from a boat rowed by a guide, who holds the unfortunate quarry by the tail while his partner in crime shoots it, at the other end. The ideal and sportsmanlike method of hunting the white-tail, and, in fact, all of the deer tribe, except perhaps the antelope, is by still hunting, and Mr. Roosevelt devotes considerable space to this interesting and really intellectual pursuit, conveying his instructions in a pleasing manner, and largely by narratives of his personal experiences, which have been varied and extensive.

Chapters on the prong-horn antelope and the wapiti, or round-horned elk, complete Mr. Roosevelt's part of the volume. A fact not generally familiar about the antelope is that "it is the only hollow-horn ruminant known which annually sheds its horns as deer do their antlers. Of course, only the horn sheaths are shed, leaving underneath the soft and bristle-haired new horn." The shedding takes place in the late fall, and, as the new horns harden in a few days, there is but a brief period during which any signs of the shedding remain. As the antelope is an animal of the open plains, and seems less able to adapt itself to changed conditions of life than any of the deer tribe, it consequently disappears before the advance of man in regions where the prairie land is limited in extent. Mr. Roosevelt, on pages 99 to 102, exhibits entertainingly the conditions which affect with great degrees of favor or disfavor the existence of various kinds of big game. The curiosity of the antelope is frequently his undoing, and though he has learned caution by experience, he may still, on occasion, be lured within shot by the waving of a red handkerchief or by the display of other unusual sights. The most exciting way of pursuing him is on horseback, and shots may thus be got on account of his general tendency to run straight on after he has decided on his course. This enables the pursuer frequently to cut across and head him off—as he dislikes to turn aside from the point towards which he is running.

Though fast decreasing, the antelope will doubtless survive the wapiti, whose range is but a small fraction of what it was fifty years since, and is rapidly growing less.

"Originally the wapiti was found from the Pacific Coast east across the Alleghanies, through New York to the Adirondacks, through Pennsylvania into Western New Jersey, and far down into the mid-country of Virginia and the Carolinas. It extended northward into Canada from the great lakes to Vancouver, and southward into Mexico along the Rockies."

A glance at Dr. Merriam's map of the range of elk in 1900 (p. 134) will show in how small a portion of this vast territory he is now to be found, and how timely is Mr. Roosevelt's appeal:

"Surely all men who care for nature, no less than all men who care for big-game hunting, should combine to try to see that not merely the States, but the Federal authorities, make every effort and are given every power to prevent the extermination of this stately and beautiful animal, the lordliest of the deer kind in the entire world."

The "Elk of the Pacific Coast," "The Mule Deer," and "The Columbia Blacktail" are the titles of three chapters contributed by T. S. Van Dyke, whose book, 'The Still-Hunter,' published in 1883, is easily the best on the subject ever written. That was mainly a work of instruction and a text-book, while this is perhaps rather broader in its scope, but still shows quite as intimate knowledge on all matters of woodcraft, of the habits of the animals described, and of the sportsmanlike methods of hunting them. No veteran and accomplished sportsman can read these chapters of Mr. Van Dyke's without learning something and feeling glad that they have been written. Lack of space prevents any extended notice of Mr. Van Dyke's excellent contribution as well as that of Mr. Daniel G. Elliot on "The Caribou," and of Mr. Andrew J. Stone on "The Moose." These are fully up to the high standard of the preceding chapters. The moose is to most hunters a rather more captivating animal than any other of the big-game species, except, perhaps, the big-horn. He is so large, so ungainly, and yet so keen of smell and hearing, and of such incredible activity in eluding and escaping danger, that one can't avoid respecting and admiring him. He lives in the greatest wildernesses in the New World, and, as Mr. Stone says, "To become a successful moose hunter is to reduce hunting to a science. . . . The art is one that can be acquired only by actual experience, and all that could be written for the uninitiated would be of but slight service." Mr. Stone gives a number of illustrations and measurements of moose antlers, the largest, of course, being from Alaska, and those from the Kenai Peninsula (the *Alces gigas*) of that Territory, surpassing all in size. The spread of the antlers shown is from 64 to 74 inches. A head from Canada or Maine of above 60 inches is rare, while the average is little over 50 inches. "Nine heads secured on the Kenai in the fall of 1900 averaged slightly above 65 inches."

The illustrations, chiefly by Carl Rungius, are excellent and appropriate, and the entire contents of the book bear evidence of having been written by men who have a loving and educated interest in their subjects.

The American Federal State: A Text-Book in Civics for High Schools and Academies. By Roscoe Lewis Ashley, A.M. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xlv, 599.

Mr. Ashley's book is the most pretentious work on the government of the United States which has lately come to our notice; indeed, its size seems likely to restrict somewhat its use in secondary schools,

for whose needs it is particularly designed. The author's endeavor has been, he tells us, not merely to describe the organization and work of the several departments of government, national, State, and local, but also to show the relations of the citizens to the Government and to each other. This presupposes some understanding of the nature of government and the State, and of the steps by which our political institutions have come to be what they are. To the provision of this equipment somewhat more than a third of the body of the book is devoted. The historical outline does not attempt to tell over again the general history of the United States, but dwells on those events illustrative of the principles of political science and federal government which Mr. Ashley deems it important to enforce. Then follows an account of the organization and work of the various forms of government, with explanation of their interrelations, description of party organization and primary political machinery, and exposition of the duties and obligations of citizenship. Mr. Ashley shows skill in the selection of facts, and wisely leaves untouched a great mass of data which not a few writers and teachers have been led to regard, quite unwarrantedly, as "administration"; and while his treatment, particularly in the field of executive activities, shows no marked advance over that of his predecessors, the general presentation is clear, accurate, and sensible.

Questions of detail aside, the merits of a textbook commonly depend on the soundness of the principles on which it is constructed and its practical serviceableness in the classroom. As to the latter point, we can but think that, in the present state of historical study in this country, books like Mr. Ashley's will seem to many teachers not altogether successful attempts to cover two fields at once. The average high school is, we fear, likely to reject pretty much the whole of Mr. Ashley's historical section, and begin at once with the account of the national government, for the very practical reason that classes which have already had a systematic course in American history will not cheerfully go over the same ground again as a part of the study of American government. The reason suggests the answer to the other inquiry. While we are frank to say that, among recent manuals of civil government, Mr. Ashley's book has no superior, we are also bound to think that it is not the kind of book that has long been needed. What is still wanted, as it seems to us, is a book which will show the historical development of American political institutions as the ground of its description of their practical working. There can be no proper understanding of political methods without an understanding of the way in which they have come to be what they are, and this is not to be attained by setting forth certain general historical facts in one part of the book and descriptive facts in another. Mr. Ashley has not sinned more than others, and his book will certainly prove useful to many teachers, but we can but hold that it would have been a better book had it been of a different sort.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Brinkley, F. Japan: Its History, Arts, and Literature, Vols. V. and VI. (Oriental Series.) Boston: J. B. Millet Co.
Brontë, Charlotte. Jane Eyre: To Which is Added "The Moores," an Unpublished Fragment. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.60.
Defendorf, A. R. Clinical Psychiatry. Macmillan. $3.50.
Eggert, C. A. Wildenbruch's Das edle Blut. American Book Co. 30 cents.
Fallot, E. L'Avenir Colonial de la France. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.
Findlay, J. J. Principles of Class Teaching. Macmillan. $1.25.
Haviland, C. A. A Lawyer's Idle Hours. Brooklyn, N. Y.: The Author (982 Fulton St.). 50c.
Kersting, Rudolf. The White World: Life and Adventures within the Arctic Circle Portrayed by Famous Living Explorers. (Issued under the Auspices of the Arctic Club.) Lewis, Scribner & Co. $2.
Lang, J. M. The Church and its Social Mission. Edinburgh: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Thomas Whittaker. $1.60.
Lyon, R. A. Love-Story Masterpieces. (Chosen from Meredith, Stevenson, Mitchell, and Holmes.) Evanston, Ill.: William S. Lord. $1.
Mallary, R. De W. Lenox and the Berkshire Highlands. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Mowry, A. M. First Steps in the History of England. Silver, Burdett & Co. 70 cents.
Nield, Jonathan. A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Peters, Eleanor B. Hugh Peter. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pirenne, Henri. Geschichte Belgiens. Zweiter Band. Gotha: Friedrich Andreas Perthes.
Raine, Allen. A Welsh Witch. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Reinsch, P. S. Colonial Government. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.
Sheldon, Samuel, and Mason, Hobart. Alternating-Current Machines: Being the Second Volume of Dynamo-Electric Machinery. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.50.
Sidney, Margaret. Five Little Peppers Abroad. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.10.
Slate, Frederick. Physics: A Text-Book for Secondary Schools. Macmillan. $1.10.
Smith, C. W. The South African War and the "Bear" Operator. London: P. S. King & Son; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Smith, J. W. Training for Citizenship. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co.
Stephen, Leslie. George Eliot. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan. 75 cents.
The Literature of American History (A. L. A. Annotated Lists.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Thompson, Henry. "The Unknown God"? Frederick Warne & Co. 60 cents.
Thorpe, T. E. Essays in Historical Chemistry. Macmillan. $4.
Thwaites, R. G. Father Marquette. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Travers, Graham. The Way of Escape. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Way, A. E. Reliques of Stratford-on-Avon. (Flowers of Parnassus.) John Lane.
Wesselhoeft, E. C. German Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
West, Prof. W. M. Ancient History to the Death of Charlemagne. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.50.
Wheatley, H. B. How to Make an Index. (Book Lover's Library). London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Wiener, Prof. L. Anthology of Russian Literature, Part 1. 10th to 18th Century inclusive. Putnams.
Wilson, H. L. The Spenders. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. $1.50.
Wister, Owen. The Virginian. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wright, G. F. Asiatic Russia. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co. $15.

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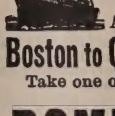

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 26, 1902.

The Week.

When Congress met last December, the new President was very strong with the people, and his championship of Cuban reciprocity seemed to assure the early enactment of the needed law. The Republicans controlled each branch of Congress by a good majority, and the party was supposed to be in a fair state of discipline. It was expected that the managers would frame a programme of action, and then carry it through with ease. There was no danger of harm from the Opposition, for the Democrats lacked inspiring leadership in both Senate and House, and they were united upon no definite policy on any of the great questions of the day. On the surface it appeared as though the majority had before them only a task which was simple for a powerful organization, and might soon go home to administer another defeat to the headless mob of Democrats. The end of the session, which is now within sight, finds a startling transformation. Party management has broken down among the Republicans of each branch. The Speaker and his Republican associates on the Committee on Rules in the House have utterly lost control of that body, which they had previously ruled with a rod of iron. They were beaten on the great issue of Cuban reciprocity by a revolt which has left them practically helpless. On the same issue, the older party leaders in the Senate—Aldrich of Rhode Island, Platt of Connecticut, and Spooner of Wisconsin—have been overthrown by a like revolt, largely promoted by the younger element, which used meekly to take orders from the seniors. Party discipline is at an end, and Congressmen will soon leave Washington to enter upon a campaign which has no accepted party policy as its sure base.

Afterthoughts about such a melancholy business may be bitter, but they are instructive. Where President Roosevelt made his mistakes must now be obvious even to himself. His first one was to take up with the notion that tariff relief for Cuba must be obtained by Republican votes. Party harmony he put first. But that meant the placing of himself in the hands of the party manipulators. That again meant endless delay, and the adjournment of an appeal to the people, over the heads of the politicians, until it was too late. It must be a cause of deep chagrin to Mr. Roosevelt to find, as he has done, that the rank and file of the party and the people as a whole were ready to stand with him in this Cuban business, and that if he had gone directly to the country betimes, he could have elicited a popular response which would have bent Congress before it. But he was beguiled by the party managers, and they have played him false. The supreme effort for party "harmony" has ended in an unexampled disruption, and Cuba is brutally and, as the President himself has said, dishonorably abandoned.

The latest reports from Cuba are all of the same tenor. Many sugar estates are suspending work, and the largest ones dismissing every employee who can possibly be dispensed with, while merchants and bankers everywhere report a growing stagnation of business. "The country is faced by financial destitution," reports the *Herald's* Havana correspondent, who adds that "it is folly to attempt to deny or refute the extreme precariousness of the situation." How long this state of affairs can continue without there being actual need of food among the poor people is debatable; but it is quite within the range of possibility that, within the twelvemonth, relief ships bound for Havana will leave New York just as the Red Cross and Government vessels carried food to the starving in 1898 and 1899. Should this take place, private generosity will be compelled to undo the work, not of Weyler or Weylerism, but of the Congress of the United States obedient to the wishes of the beet-sugar growers. This is a probability of the early future which must not be lost sight of in the current discussion of the Cuban situation. It is idle to talk of action at the next session of Congress as being in time. The mischief has been done, and it is all the more serious because the Cubans have been buoyed up and induced to make temporary arrangements by unceasing assurances that Congress would come to their rescue —*mañana*. There is, happily, not the slightest reason to believe that the people of the United States relish being put in the position of heartlessly driving a new-born neighboring nation into starvation and ruin.

Now that our Cuban Reciprocity Bill is strangled, the question becomes an important one whether Cuba can negotiate a treaty on similar lines with any other country. The first section of the Platt amendment says:

> "That the Government of Cuba shall never enter into any treaty or other compact with any foreign Power, or Powers, which will impair, or tend to impair, the independence of Cuba; nor in any manner authorize or permit any foreign Power, or Powers, to obtain by colonization, or for military or naval purposes, or otherwise, lodgment in, or control over, any portion of said island."

Does this provision prevent Cuba from negotiating a treaty of reciprocity with England, for example, whereby Cuban sugar should be admitted at half the present rates of the British tariff, and British manufactures be admitted at half the rates of the Cuban tariff—the full rates being charged on those of the United States? If this question were referred to the Hague tribunal for a decision on its merits, the answer would undoubtedly be that such a treaty would not impair or tend to impair the independence of Cuba. But a more important question is whether we should refer it to the Hague tribunal, or decide it ourselves in accordance with our own interests. Looking at it from the point of view of national good faith, it would seem entirely clear that, after the offer of reciprocity with Cuba had been presented to and rejected by us, we could raise no objection against a similar treaty between Cuba and any other country.

While Cuba might enter into negotiations for a treaty of reciprocal trade based upon a low duty on sugar, there are some practical difficulties on the side of England which would probably prevent his Majesty's Government from entertaining the proposal. In the first place, the British duty on sugar is needed for revenue, and if the question were raised of lowering any tax, the bread tax would have to come off first. Moreover, the British Government has entered into an agreement with the beet-sugar countries not to give any preferential rates to British sugar-growing colonies. This is one of the terms of the Brussels convention by which the export bounties of the Continent are to be abolished. Now England cannot grant preferential rates to Cuban sugar without ruining her own colonies, which are barely able to survive on even terms. And there is no other country, except possibly Spain, that could grant terms to Cuba in the way of reciprocity which would be of any real advantage to her, and that would not be much. Her present difficulty is most likely to be solved in another way. There is now presented an opportunity for political parties in the United States to run a race with each other for annexation.

One of the statements made by President Mitchell has a significance far wider than that he gave it. It is that, during 1901, the mines were in operation only 194½ days—but two-thirds of the working year. That is, in a time of great prosperity and unusual demand for anthracite, only two-thirds as much

coal was mined as might have been. Why was this? Why did not Mr. Mitchell's "magnates," greedy of gain as they are by hypothesis, work the mines to the full capacity? Obviously, there is but one answer. The production of anthracite steadily outruns consumption. That means that the marketing of hard coal is a precarious business; that the output has to be restricted, and distribution carefully planned—otherwise there will be a glut. And always the shadow of the increasing competition of soft coal falls upon the operators. So that it was into an industry thus nicely balanced, and so easily demoralized, that a labor-union ventured to thrust a disturbing strike which half its own membership felt to be unwise and unnecessary! Look at the matter in another way. Even in prosperous times the operators can work their mines but 200 days a year. That gives them a margin of 100 days for any strike. Until that length of time has elapsed, the enforced idleness of a strike is only that which the natural conditions of the business require. Thus the present strike might go on for fifty days more without really curtailing the year's product. This is only one of the many lights in which the strike appears the height of unreason.

The spectacle of Mr. Bryan calling Mr. Cleveland back to Democracy pure and undefiled is more amusing than edifying; but while the editor of the *Commoner* is on the subject of Democratic principles, he should be referred to the following, of which he appears oblivious: There were Democrats and a Democracy before Mr. Bryan, even if he is unable to see the pre-Bryanite kind, for whom Mr. Cleveland speaks. Another Democratic principle is this, that the majority rules. And when Mr. Bryan sees the Democracy of crucial States like Indiana and Illinois repudiate him and his political nostrums, he has nothing to do but submit and withdraw. It might be added that for the greatest party wrecker of modern times to accuse Mr. Cleveland of seeking the disruption of the Democracy, is somewhat in the nature of a compliment, for President Cleveland honestly took the chance of setting personal integrity against party solidarity, while Mr. Bryan has twice gathered his party round him in the same geyser of financial heresy, and has twice wondered why they were all blown very high, scattered very wide, and muddied exceedingly. He would be glad to try it again. The Democrats who have twice been hoisted with him feel otherwise, and such an expression of temper as his comment upon ex-President Cleveland's recent activity must be taken as an indication that even Mr. Bryan begins to see the Democrats are heartily sick of him.

The late Gen. Palmer used to say that he could count on coming into fashion in Illinois about once every ten years. This seems to be somewhat the experience in Pennsylvania of ex-Gov. Pattison, who, despite Quay's expressed intention to see to it that the Democrats nominate somebody who would be easy to beat, may be a candidate for a third term this year. Mr. Pattison was elected Governor in 1882, and again in 1890, and behaved creditably each time. Last year he headed the movement among Democrats which was a protest against Quay's debauchery of the minority party in Pennsylvania, and in so doing exhibited great vigor and courage. His candidacy this year would be one to which independent voters would find it difficult to refuse support, especially in view of the fact that Quay has accepted as a personal victory, as well he may, the nomination of Judge Pennypacker by the Republicans. It may seem surprising to speak of Pennsylvania as a doubtful State, but it is a fact that in the last five contests over the Governorship a Democrat has been twice elected, and that last year the Republican plurality was cut down to much less than half that polled in the Presidential year just preceding. This plurality of last year, according to the frank confession of the Philadelphia *Press*, was doubtless almost wholly due to fraudulent voting. If ex-Gov. Pattison is to run again this year, the chief issue will centre about the reform of the election system. Partly on account of the peculiarities of the Constitution, now amended, and partly through the evil influences of the Quay machine, Pennsylvania is far behind her sister States in safeguarding the ballot. There is no personal-registration law, no primary law worthy of the name, and election frauds are fostered rather than prevented. Despite the personal integrity of Judge Pennypacker, his election, with a Republican Legislature, would doubtless mean the continuance of the present election system, for it is the system on which Quay's power is based.

This is a startling story which comes from Illinois—that the white people in the neighborhood of a school for the education of black children have been trying to break it up; that the buildings have been injured, the crops destroyed, and the teachers and pupils driven in terror from the neighborhood on the eve of the commencement exercises; and that the pastor of the African Methodist Episcopal church in the town has been warned by a mob to leave within twenty-four hours, under penalty of death. This seems an incredible tale to come from the State of Abraham Lincoln, but its truth is conceded by the Chicago *Tribune*. The place is Eldorado, in Saline County, in the southeastern part of Illinois, and the school was a normal and industrial institute, after the model of Tuskegee in Alabama, designed to instruct young negroes in trades and agriculture. No less disgraceful are the reports which come simultaneously from Indiana, of the shameful abuse of blacks by whites in various parts of that State. There are two famous health resorts in Orange County, in the southern section of the commonwealth, where negroes have been employed as waiters at the hotels. Within a few days they have been warned to leave, and threatened with death if they attempt to stay. Adams County is in the northeastern part of the State, and some blacks recently came to Decatur, its chief town, mainly as domestic servants; but they were soon driven out by a white mob, which forced their employers to promise that they would never again hire a negro for any purpose. Politics does not appear to have anything to do with this matter, for although Adams County is strongly Democratic, Orange is safely Republican, and the same is true of Saline County in Illinois. What are the people of Indiana and Illinois going to do about such things as these? Will they content themselves with lecturing the whites of the South because the blacks are not treated fairly in that part of the country?

"Considerable surprise," the Manila dispatches say, was caused last week by the testimony of the ex-insurgent leader Malvar. He was called as a witness for Major Gardener respecting conditions in the province of Tayabas, and revealed to the astonished Americans that all their municipal governments there were really in sympathy with the insurrection. Every municipal officer, said Gen. Malvar, who was drawing pay under American rule, really took orders from this insurgent commander, and constantly furnished him with supplies. He went on to say that there was not one native in any of those towns truly friendly to the Americans. This is telling evidence, not only for the accuracy of Major Gardener's description of the state of affairs, but also for the continued existence of a pervasive and settled aversion to our rule throughout the islands. This is the element of the problem which should appall our Imperialists. A disaffected population of 10,000,000 we cannot hold in perpetual and sullen subjugation. There is no American way of governing people who obstinately and year after year, defeated and disarmed, but not dismayed, go on insisting that they are determined to govern themselves. If we are bent on subduing the Filipinos, our task is scarcely begun. We have yet to break the unconquerable will and turn obdurate hate to friendship; and we have neither the weapons nor the resources to accomplish that.

We should be glad to believe that Admiral Crowninshield is right, and Capt. Dayton and Consul Johnson wrong, in

the conclusions they have respectively reached regarding the conduct of the officers of the *Chicago* who were arrested and imprisoned for disorderly conduct in Venice. Admiral Crowninshield's finding is at variance with that of Capt. Dayton, and both are based upon the same evidence. The Admiral admits the loud noise and the upsetting of chairs and tables. He says that the conduct of the officers may have been indiscreet and lacking in dignity, but that the evidence does not show that they were noticeably under the influence of liquor. Whether a man is noticeably under the influence of liquor or not can be best determined by his noticeable acts. If two sets of judges differ on this question, people at a distance from the scene will be apt to consider the loud noise, the upsetting of furniture, and the want of dignity as evidence of a drop too much.

On the eve of his coronation, King Edward has been stricken with appendicitis in so serious a form that an operation became necessary. The official bulletin announcing the success of the operation will hardly lessen the general solicitude until there is some assurance that the royal sufferer is really beyond danger from surgical shock. Meanwhile his heredity and his own robust physique give good hope of recovery. It is now clear, in spite of official denials, that the King has for some days struggled against increasing disability, and that he had determined, rather than to disappoint his people and the guests of the nation, to assume the crown under conditions of great weakness and of actual pain, facing immediately after the coronation grave peril to health and perhaps to life. But no man may long resist a disease which gnaws at his entrails, and the King and his subjects must be content to receive, instead of the congratulations of their friends and the formal felicitations of their foes, the world's sympathy.

Highly significant was the declaration of the British Chancellor of the Exchequer last week, that the Government does not propose, by means of the grain duty, to revolutionize its fiscal policy, and, specifically, does not contemplate any system of preferential trade with the colonies that would entail a tariff war with other countries. This is the next high card which Mr. Chamberlain is obviously getting ready to play. But if Sir Michael Hicks-Beach and the other free-traders of the Cabinet are in the majority, as would appear from the Chancellor's statement, there will be nothing but a meaningless coquetting with the colonial Premiers. They would not turn their hands over for any system of all-British trade which did not involve serious discrimination against the commerce of other countries. But if the latter is ruled out, as Sir Michael says it is in advance, then the whole gaudy scheme of preferential trade within the Empire falls like a pricked balloon.

Lord Charles Beresford has long been the *enfant terrible* of the British navy and of the Conservative party. His present assault upon the Admiralty for extravagance and inefficiency is made as a member of Parliament; but, while still in command of the Mediterranean squadron, he had delivered similar attacks. In that course he was clearly insubordinate, as he himself confessed when the matter was brought up in the Commons, a few days ago. "I admit that I did wrong, yet I was quite right to do it," was his sailor-like simplicity in defence. While still Admiral, he had also arraigned his superiors in a speech before the Institute of Naval Architects, at the end of which he said defiantly, "If the authorities can prove what I say to be untrue, then they can turn me out of the navy by means of a court-martial." Another of his bluff indiscretions was his reference, during the Boer war, to the Prime Minister, the Duke of Devonshire, and Mr. Balfour collectively as "that ludicrous comedy called the Committee of National Defence." In spite, however, of his breezy, hornpipe manner, Lord Charles is an able man and a formidable debater; and, as he has reentered Parliament with the avowed purpose of rattling the dry bones at the Admiralty, the naval authorities will doubtless hear a good deal of uncomfortably plain speaking from him.

The total cost to England of the Boer war, including the estimates for the year ending March 31, 1903, is £222,974,000, or about $1,100,000,000. A pamphlet of the Cobden Club shows that this is sufficient to establish fifty universities, while Oxford and Cambridge are desperately poor and hardly able to keep their heads above water. This money has been spent "in the partial devastation of two British colonies, and the almost complete devastation of two neighboring republics." Of the money so spent £159,000,000 has been, or is to be, borrowed. The increase of taxation of the United Kingdom since the beginning of the war is £34,173,000 for the current year, and of this sum £17,600,000, or more than one-half, has been the increase of the income tax. This is the proper place to look for the means of carrying on a war, and we can understand how it happens that some of the titled classes, after footing their income-tax bills, asked to be excused from the coronation ceremonies on the ground of expense.

Tot homines, tot sententiæ, was once mistranslated, "He is as many men as he expresses opinions," and this motto for a versatile genius seems made expressly for the Kaiser, who sometimes seems to be as many men as he makes speeches. It is this pronounced histrionic character which largely constitutes the charm of the man for his contemporaries, and especially for his brothers in spirit, the journalists. In recent days, being at the historic castle of Marienburg, the former seat of the Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, he felt the spirit of the place, and virtually preached again the crusade against the Slavs and Lithuanians. It was a prime indiscretion in view of the present condition of the Polish question. Only the other day, in Aix-la-Chapelle, where the bones of Charlemagne lie and the city is redolent of ancient piety, he preached the gospel of peace, and declared religious faith to be the only foundation for an enduring empire. This shows a sense of environment which we usually associate only with the artistic temperament. It is certainly rare enough among rulers. Certainly one corner-stone speech of the present King of England has been very like another in glory, and the tendency of the age is towards a correctly uniform official utterance. The charm of the German Emperor, as well as his more striking defects, seems to rest upon an impressionableness which rulers seldom possess and still more rarely indulge. Such a view of his character will do much to disarm the mistrust of those who have required from him a consistency quite incompatible with the histrionic temperament.

The withdrawal of the Russian representative of the Tien-Tsin provisional government leaves the other allied commanders in an ungrateful position. So clearly is this seen that the Pekin correspondent of the London *Times* urges England to take the same step, with Italy and Japan, leaving to Germany the odium of fixing the conditions of retrocession to a Chinese viceroy. Such action would seem to be inadvisable, for whatever credit with the Yamen is to be got from breaking faith with the Allied Powers, Russia already has by right of priority. It is hard to see what the other commanders could win by a tardy disavowal of their agreement, unless it were the contempt of the Chinese. The action of Russia is in the highest degree astute. She wins at a cheap price the reputation for magnanimity, meanwhile retaining such an advantage that she can pay for her own magnanimity in Chinese land and trade at her own convenience and at her own valuation. Diplomacy has little new to learn in the article, *Slavica fides*, but such an incident as the withdrawal of the Russian contingent from Tien-Tsin certainly emphasizes the value and importance of the Anglo-Japanese alliance.

MR. CLEVELAND'S ADVICE.

It was fitting that the movement to revive the memory and to renew the teachings and example of Samuel J. Tilden in the Democratic party should look to Grover Cleveland for inspiration. Leadership in the party sense it must seek elsewhere, but it cannot hope to find a better type of leader, either in its past or its present membership, than in the person of the ex-President. Mr. Cleveland was elected Governor and President in the early eighties by virtue of his character, and not by means of skilful electioneering or the expenditure of money, or by tremendous efforts to "bring out the vote." He was chosen by his party, and the choice was ratified by the people, because it was the common belief that he could be depended upon to do the right thing in any emergency, and that he could not be pushed from the path of duty either by party leaders or by popular clamor.

Mr. Tilden was himself a man of this type, and it was for this same reason that he was nominated and presumably elected in 1876. Mr. Cleveland was the true successor of Mr. Tilden, but he has had no successor in the Democratic party—none who had both the qualities and the abilities to command a great following and to brush aside the opposition of spoilsmen, place-hunters, and corruptionists. Mr. Bryan, who became his successor in the leadership, is not a spoilsman or a corruptionist, but he has never commanded the respect of both political parties in the sense that Mr. Cleveland did and does, and hence could not win the independent and unclassified vote which was given to Mr. Cleveland. The movement at which the ex-President assisted on Thursday evening cannot be called a new Cleveland movement, but if it shall prove to be one of like purpose and intent with the Cleveland movement of 1884, it will be an omen of good cheer to the party to which he belongs, and to the American people as a whole. It is a pleasure to know that the audience received Mr. Cleveland and his speech with real enthusiasm.

In his remarks Mr. Cleveland confined himself to domestic affairs exclusively, and chiefly to Trusts and the tariff. On these subjects he said:

> "Democracy has already in store the doctrines for which it fights its successful battles; and it will have them in store as long as the people are kept from their own, and just so long as their rights and interests are sacrificed—by favoritism in Government care; by inequality in Government burdens; by the encouragement of huge industrial aggregations that throttle individual enterprise; by the reckless waste of public money; and by the greatest of all injuries, as it underlies nearly all others, a system of tariff taxation whose robbing exactions are far beyond the needs of economical and legitimate Government expenditure, which purchases support by appeals to sordidness and greed, and which continually corrupts the public conscience."

"What! has he come back to the tariff?" is the exclamation of the Republican newspapers. Yes, and he is not the only one. Notwithstanding the seeming indifference to that subject which the Washington politicians assume, there is nothing which gives them so much anxiety at this moment as the tariff, and the industrial combines which are based upon it. Chairman Babcock, with his bill to repeal the duties on monopolized articles, represents a mighty political force lying between the Pacific Ocean and the Great Lakes, which may be turned against the Republican party at any moment. It is composed of both farmers and manufacturers—farmers who see the prices of iron and steel in all forms rising while their own products are either stationary or falling in price, manufacturers who are looking for foreign markets for their surplus productions, and who have repeatedly but vainly asked for the ratification of McKinley's reciprocity treaties.

Both these classes have read in the newspapers how billions of dollars are tossed this way and that way in the consolidations and combinations and stock-watering jobs of the present day. They believe that in most cases these operations are made possible by the tariff, which excludes competing goods from foreign countries. They have been so told by many Republicans besides Chairman Babcock. Even the late Senator Sherman so said to them when he was at the maximum of his powers, and he too said that he would vote to repeal every duty behind which a Trust had taken shelter.

The beneficiaries of this system reply that the rise in the prices of protected articles is due not to the tariff, but to business conditions at home, and that this is especially true of steel and iron products. This may be true. It may be true also that there would not be much importation of these things even if the tariff were repealed; but this goes to show that the tariff is unnecessary, and that it is kept merely to prevent competition at some future time when conditions shall have changed. In one way and another, the opinion has gained lodgment in the Northwest and in the far West that the East has obtained an artificial advantage over them in the distribution of the national earnings and of the national wealth, and that this is due in part to tariff legislation. This is what Chairman Babcock stands for; and what he says, a great number of Senators and Representatives feel. These facts explain the recent caucus at the White House at which the question of tariff reform was considered. Mr. Cleveland has merely given public utterance to what both parties are deeply pondering, and it is even possible that more Republicans than Democrats are lying awake o' nights thinking about it.

It is only natural that the professional politicians should make light of Mr. Cleveland's return to active politics. They know the weight of his heel, and he knows the secret thrust of their knives. Friendship between them there cannot be. But the regeneration of the Democratic party, which is so earnestly to be desired, is not likely to come through Mr. Sheehan, or Mr. Hill, or Mr. Cantor, or, in fact, through any of the leaders at present in sight. These may render a valuable service, but only on condition that they stand ready to serve loyally the new leader which the now disinfected and de-Bryanized Democracy must soon produce. Such loyalty is scarcely to be expected from Mr. Hill; and the belittling of Mr. Cleveland's share in the party councils bears every mark of his inspiration. But Mr. Cleveland's influence is of a kind which Mr. Hill can do little to minimize. The former's strength is with that remnant which, through all aberrations of the organization, has held fast to Democratic principles. He represents that historic morale through a revival of which alone the Democratic party can became fit either for effective opposition or for government. As the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent says: "The Democratic politicians here, the great mass of whom were hurled into place and power by the convulsion of Bryanism in 1896, are unable to make noise enongh to drown out the response of the country to the ex-President's appeal."

THE BEST CANAL ASSURED.

There can be no doubt that the House will say ditto to the Senate, in the matter of the Isthmian Canal Bill, and that, accordingly, the Panama route will be adopted by the Congress of the United States. Thursday's vote in the Senate followed a long and exhaustive debate, in which all the facts available were clearly set forth. The previous action of the House in designating the Nicaragua route was taken in haste and ignorance, before the final report of our Canal Commissioners had been made public, and should not stand, nor will it, against the deliberate decision of the Senate. In choosing Panama, Congress will only be bowing to the opinion of the country as well as of expert engineers.

How sweeping a revolution in public sentiment this final decision represents is within the memory of all. For many years the Nicaragua motley was the only wear in this country. No other route was talked about or thought of. As recently as 1899, to so much as mention Panama was to expose yourself to derision or insult. The *Evening Post* was the first and for a long time the only American newspaper of any consequence to maintain that the Panama route was the better—and well hooted at it was for its simple-mindedness, or else its venality. It had superior good for-

tune in early getting possession of the material which showed the strength of the Panama case. It was lack of familiarity with this which made the American press and public so daft on the subject of Nicaragua. The latter word had a kind of sacred authority and blessedness. Panama was a thing of hissing and contempt. No wonder, therefore, that it was difficult, and took years, to get people to look calmly into the merits of the Panama Canal. Once attention and impartial investigation were obtained, fair-mindedness and the weight of argument did the rest. The result we now see.

We consider it one of the most gratifying triumphs of reason over prejudice that this country has ever seen. The Nicaragua route was not so much a project as a mania, a cult. We see, in the case of Senator Morgan, how it became bound up with the deepest religious beliefs. In his eyes, to-day, the American people stand convicted of national apostasy in having abandoned the true Nicaraguan faith. Yet his enthusiasm was only a little more extravagant than that which afflicted nine-tenths of our population but a little while ago. Nicaragua seemed impregnably intrenched. Both political parties were for it; the press was almost a unit in advocating it; a formidable array of engineers and military men stood for it, and it was backed by powerful financial interests. Yet the whole frowning fortress has now been battered down by simple common sense. Expert opinion was first won over. The International Technical Commission made a report in favor of Panama in 1898 which had a great effect on all engineers. Then followed our own Commission, whose researches on the spot first resulted in the conversion of some of its members—Admiral Walker notably—and slowly and in the end led to the great revulsion of sentiment which had its crowning demonstration in the vote of the Senate last week. It is a fine and inspiring example of what the persuasive power of truth can do with a democracy. We Americans have not, perhaps, that swift lucidity of which the French boast, but we have, at any rate, as the final choice of the Panama route proves, a practical love of the truth and a business capacity—a "horse sense," let us say—which work well in the long run. The success won by steady hammering in this affair of the Isthmian Canal should be an encouragement to every reformer with a good cause and sound arguments. They will come to their own with the American democracy, granted time and patience.

That the canal would be built was long ago assured; now, we have every reason to believe, it will be built at the best location and within the shortest time. We will not again go over the case for Panama superiority. It was stated admirably, and in a condensed form, by Col. Hains of the Commission, in a communication to Senator Hanna which was read in the Senate on Wednesday, and which we reprint for its compact force:

"The considerations that determined my decision in favor of the Panama route are:
"(*a*) Shorter length of canal.
"(*b*) Fewer and less difficult obstacles to be overcome.
"(*c*) A more thorough knowledge of the physical difficulties.
"(*d*) The less total amount of curvature.
"(*e*) The more moderate degree of curvature—that is, the greater proportionate length of canal that approaches a straight line.
"(*f*) The lower summit level. It will be necessary on the Nicaragua route to raise and lower ships to a vertical height of 104 feet, while at Panama the lift is only 82 feet, an advantage of 22 feet in favor of Panama. Moreover, the height could be still further reduced at Panama, but it cannot be reduced at Nicaragua.
"(*g*) The greater ease with which the level of Lake Bohio can be regulated as compared with Lake Nicaragua. The level of Lake Bohio is regulated automatically, and water taken from it for regulation is taken at a distance from the sailing line, whereas in Nicaragua the regulation is necessarily effected by a system of sluices worked by man, and the water, instead of being taken from the lake direct, is taken through a long stretch of river which is used by navigation. This will produce currents in some of the bends, which navigators would prefer to avoid.
"(*h*) The largely diminished cost of maintenance.
"(*i*) The belief that, if the United States builds a canal at Panama, a canal in competition would never be built anywhere else.
"(*j*) Because the actual time of transit will be less.
"(*k*) Because the dangers of temporary obstruction are less in proportion to the length of the canal.
"(*l*) Because a railroad is already constructed and fully equipped."

These were the arguments which converted Col. Hains and all the other experts whose prepossessions were in favor of Nicaragua. It is reasoning which will satisfy the country. The Spooner substitute for the Hepburn bill was carefully and skilfully drawn, and there is every prospect that, under its terms, all the preliminary work of taking title from the Panama Company and ratifying the treaty with Colombia will speedily be got through with, and the actual digging of the canal under American control begun. Then will the dream of a hundred years take on the semblance of reality.

THE MINERS' DEFENCE.

One comment on the statement of the Mine Workers, published on Monday morning, must rise to every lip: it is inexcusably belated. Whatever else may be said of it, this may be said—it is six weeks overdue. President Mitchell is uneasily aware that he is too late with his defence, but his excuse for delaying it only heightens the awkwardness of his bringing it forward at this hour. If his "plain unvarnished facts" were at his command when the strike was ordered, why did he not then give them to the light? A decent regard for that public to the sympathy of which he appealed, and on which he was proceeding to inflict so great inconvenience and loss, should have made him prompt and explicit with his statement of grievances. To-day it necessarily wears the air of an afterthought. Even as such, however, it requires candid examination, for it is certainly temperate in tone and plausible in sound. To the careful reader it will appear, we think, to be a mixture of a small amount of well-founded complaint, and no little confession and avoidance, with a great deal of fallacious reasoning and an inability to see, or unwillingness to admit, the real motive of the strike and the true explanation of the refusal of the operators to arbitrate.

To begin with the valid parts of the case, we are bound to concede, as in fact we have done from the first, that the increased cost of living during the year past might well have made the miners discontented with a stationary wage. This has been to very many the seamy side of our lauded prosperity. A fixed salary, combined with advancing prices of food and clothing, has been the unhappy lot of thousands during the "boom." One could have wished for a more exact miners' budget than Mr. Mitchell gives us. He states the increased cost of living at between 30 and 40 per cent., which is doubtless too high and certainly too vague; but we are prepared to believe that enhanced expenses have, in reality, fully eaten up the increase in wages and the steadier employment which the miners enjoyed last year. Nor can we doubt that the mixing up of the railroad business with that of mining does, as President Mitchell asserts, lead to a good deal of bookkeepers' juggling, and makes it very difficult to say just what the actual cost of production is in the case of anthracite coal. Finally, we believe that the miners have had a just though minor grievance in the method of weighing their coal at the pit's mouth, open as it is to abuses at their expense.

But when all this has been allowed, the strength of the miners' defence is exhausted; and even this strength has been practically destroyed by their reckless course in striking first and telling why six weeks afterwards. If the case of the miners, including only the points now mentioned, had been freely made public on May 1, we think it would have put the operators to their trumps. They would have had to make an absolutely crushing reply in order to carry popular sympathy with them in their refusal to arbitrate. At present, however, the statement comes too much as the despairing resort of alarmed leaders, who see their cause crumbling, and who have to say something to justify their conduct in forcing a strike which at least 40 per cent. of the employees were opposed to beginning. All this can but confirm the general conviction that this half-hearted strike was undertaken in

secret hopes that have proved delusive. The leaders really counted upon political influence to help them, as it did in 1900, or else upon uninstructed sentiment, or even popular hostility to Trusts. When all these fail them, they put out an explanation of their course which not only is fatally late, but has an unfortunate appearance of not being wholly sincere.

As to the statistics of coal-mining which President Mitchell proffers, we can only say that his averages, derived from Government reports, will not stand, in the judgment of the fair-minded, against the figures actually shown on the books of the companies. The latter were put at the service of the Union. Why did not President Mitchell accept the offer to inspect them, which he admits had a "reasonable" appearance? The skilled accountants in the employ of the Reading Company undoubtedly have the figures to justify President Baer's assertion that the individual efficiency of the coal-miner fell off 12 per cent. in 1901. To show, from the reports of the Geological Survey, that slightly more coal per man was mined does not at all meet the case. The Government's statistics cannot, in the first place, be held to be more accurate than the Reading's. It is a rule with careful statisticians to prefer, in many departments of production, the figures of private concerns to those gathered officially. Besides, an increase in labor-saving devices might account for the apparent increase of coal mined per capita, even with a really diminished efficiency by the individual miner. But none of these things are dreamed of in President Mitchell's philosophy.

Nor does he seem to be aware of the powerful motives the operators have for declining to submit to the dictation of his union. They wish to destroy organized labor, he cries. But there are organized labor and organized labor, good unions and bad. The evidence is overwhelming that the Mine-Workers' Union is one of the bad ones. It is a heterogeneous and unruly affair, not scrupulous in keeping its contracts, unable to control its own men. More than 100 strikes occurred during the past year of "peace" with the Union, and these President Mitchell had to confess himself powerless to prevent. Moreover, the Union has made anything like discipline at the mines impossible. The terror of "organized labor" was over the head of every foreman and owner. The reply, made to a distasteful order: "Go to ——; you ain't my boss; John Mitchell of Indianapolis is my boss!" is not an imagined, but an actual one, writes Prof. R. W. Raymond, and it represents the general situation very fairly. To ask that the operators "recognize" such a union —and if they did not yield to its every demand, they would be accused of unwillingness to recognize it, and a determination to crush organized labor—is the height of absurdity. First produce your union that is one—not an incoherent and uncontrollable mass—and it will be time to talk about hostility to trades-unionism as such.

The restlessness of laborers, their apparent willingness to strike without measuring properly either the reasons for the action or its consequences, have convinced us from the first that the anthracite operators must fight out their battle, and, for the time at any rate, settle the question at the mines. That its settlement there would settle also the exasperating annoyances inflicted on trade in other quarters, is too much to hope. But of this at least we are sure, that victory by the laborers, in a contest begun and carried on as the anthracite strike has been, would have the most serious reflex influence on the general trade situation. We believe, in short, that the kind of demonstrations in which labor has lately been indulging must be checked, unless the public wishes to see some very grave consequences in the future. There is nothing astonishing in the fact that the business men at Scranton should have organized "law and order committees" to resist the interferences of the strikers. With the Union not only forcing the bulk of these merchants' customers into idleness, but threatening business ruin on any merchant who should sell goods to an engineer or pumper still at work, the movement towards breaking down the safeguards of society was pretty far advanced. Had such application of the power of proscription been tamely submitted to, it is difficult to see where the mischievous work need stop. What, it may be asked, would deter the Union, in case of a sympathetic soft-coal strike, from extending the boycott indefinitely? If the mines could not all be closed, and if foreign soft coal kept coming in at our seaports, attacks of this sort on every one dealing with the miners, the importers, or the dock hands—or, indeed, with such misguided householders as should use "non-union coal"—would be a most logical suggestion. We leave the reader to trace out for himself the possible ramifications of such a movement. The public, it will be said, would rise, in the face of such provocation, and force the courts and legislatures to protect its rights to a peaceable existence. But it is not the part of wisdom to yield to continually increasing oppression until the yoke has become too much for human endurance.

LIQUOR LEGISLATION IN VERMONT.

The unusually spirited contest for the nomination for the office of Governor of the State of Vermont was in part the result of personal antagonisms. But its chief significance lay in its disclosure of very deep-seated and widespread discontent with the laws affecting the sale of strong drink. Vermont has had a prohibitory law for fifty years, and it has been supposed that nowhere did such a law receive more unanimous support. There are few large towns in the State, and the Legislature is completely controlled by the representatives of the farmers—themselves generally farmers. The Republican party is the "respectable" party—in fact, the only party—and it has been identified with the prohibitionist element from the outset. Whatever laws the "temperance" people demanded were enacted, and their cause seemed to be triumphant. Hence the appearance on a platform opposed to prohibition of a candidate for the Governorship who in a few weeks, although spending little money and personally unpopular, won more than one-third of the delegates, and came near winning a majority of the convention, was a very startling occurrence.

Yet it by no means indicates that there has been a change of feeling, in regard to the sale of liquor, among the people at large. There are two or three considerable towns where a majority of the citizens would probably vote to license the sale; but this would have been true for many years. The habit of drinking, among reputable people, is not increasing; those who like to drink still think that the common people should be prevented from drinking. The explanation is to be found in the nature of the prohibitory law, which may properly be described as outrageous. It is probably unconstitutional in several respects. It violates the fundamental rights of citizenship. It promotes perjury. It demoralizes juries and prosecuting officers. It corrupts magistrates and constables. It burdens the counties with heavy costs; and, in towns of any size, it completely fails to stop the sale of drink. No town, it may be asserted positively, can maintain itself as a business community without an inn; and no inn, it may be said almost as broadly, can maintain itself unless it supplies the ordinary wants of its guests. The towns of Vermont, however, are as well supplied with inns as towns of equal size in other States. In one town of less than 2,000 inhabitants three or four men engaged in the hotel business lately fled from the State in one day because of the unexpected activity of a judge; but no one thinks that their business will not be carried on in the future as in the past.

The original prohibitory law was bad enough. It authorized constables to enter dwellings or other places without warrant, and seize liquors found there. It commanded persons arrested for being drunk to disclose under oath the name of the person from whom they obtained liquor, and empowered any justice of the peace to commit to jail a prisoner who refused to disclose it. These provisions cannot be reconciled

with the Constitution of Vermont, which provides that "the people have a right to hold themselves, their houses, papers, and possessions, free from search or seizure"; forbids warrants unsupported by oath, or not directing a particular officer to make search, or directing the seizure of persons or property not particularly described. Nor is such a law consistent with the Constitution of the United States. It conflicts with the article forbidding unreasonable searches and regulating warrants, and with the article prescribing the method of criminal prosecutions. Under this statute a complaint need allege only that the respondent sold liquor "at divers times," and it was not necessary to specify the kind or quantity of liquor, "nor the nature, date, or place of the offence."

It might seem that such a statute would have satisfied the most fanatical. It disregarded the most cherished traditions of our race; it introduced paid spies and informers; it employed inquisitorial methods of trial abhorrent to the common law; it imposed enormous fines; it enabled any inferior court to imprison citizens for indefinite periods; it even provided heavy penalties for failure on the part of the officers of the State to exhibit due zeal. Under it, offenders owning property were reduced to poverty; one impecunious wretch was sentenced at the age of sixty-seven to pay fines which were infinitely beyond his ability, or be imprisoned for nearly fifty years.

But the fanatics were as insatiable as the supporters of the Holy Inquisition. They were enraged to find that drunkards, when compelled to inform on oath, perjured themselves; that constables and State's attorneys made corrupt agreements with liquor-sellers; that grand jurors refused to indict and petty jurors to convict. Men were tried for ten offences, all proved by the same evidence, and juries found them guilty of but one. The possession of a United States license was made evidence of violation of the State law, and juries with the licenses held before their faces acquitted the prisoners. In their desperation, the fanatics overleaped all Constitutional restraints. They passed a law authorizing any constable to stop men and women on the highway and search their persons, whenever he "suspected" that they had the accursed thing in their possession. They passed another law forbidding the payment of their compensation to the officers of the State unless the judges of the Supreme Court were satisfied that they had discharged their duties with zeal. And, finally, in direct defiance of the Constitution, they abolished the right of trial by jury.

This step was taken by the prostitution of the Court of Chancery. Every place where liquor was unlawfully sold was declared a nuisance, to be abated by a proceeding brought by the attorney for the State, or by the Chancellor, of his own motion. That officer is now directed by statute to proceed, in term or in vacation, with or without affidavits, against such persons and places as he thinks fit, or on such complaints as he regards as satisfactory. "General reputation" is declared by law to be presumptive evidence of a nuisance, and the maintenance of the nuisance is to be enjoined as a contempt of court. The Chancellor may, therefore, hale before him whom he pleases, without indictment or specific complaint, enjoin him, fine him not less than $500 for contempt, and commit him to jail. And this in the face of the Constitutional provision that in all prosecutions for criminal offences the accused has a right to be tried by an impartial jury of his peers, without whose unanimous consent he cannot be found guilty. No wonder that when this scandalous perversion of our institutions culminated, as it did recently, in a homicide by a spy and informer, the wrath of conservative citizens boiled over. Such excesses, committed in the name of temperance, have created a determination to do away with the present statutes, no matter what is substituted. They are enough to make all men sympathize with the good bishop who declared that if the choice must be made between England free and England sober, he should give the preference to freedom. But the subversion of the safeguards of liberty in Vermont has not brought with it sobriety.

RECITATION OR CANTILATION?

Whether poetry should be recited in the speaking or chanted in the singing voice is matter of old debate, and precedents enough could be cited for either view. The matter comes again within the range of public interest through the recent controversy between a distinguished Neo-Celtic poet, Mr. W. B. Yeats, and an eminent symbolist, Mr. Arthur Symons. Mr. Yeats has proved his convictions by having "psalteries"—some simple form of musical notation for the reciter—prepared for his poems, which are now being cantilated in England by an accomplished elocutionist. Mr. Symons demurs to this method, on the ground that a musical arrangement of pitches for recitation greatly limits the range of individual interpretation. As if to confirm Mr. Symons's doubts, Herr Possart's renderings of poems to the musical settings of Richard Strauss have recently failed signally in London, despite the justly great reputation of this renowned tragedian. But this only proves that the British public is indifferent to this form of musical declamation, which, in many persons' opinion, would be a strong argument in its favor.

The matter concerns all those who find pleasure in poetry, for the chanting method promises a higher enjoyment than can be had from recitation in the speaking voice. Now it must be recalled that declamation upon a few simple modulations and with an instrumental accompaniment is no new thing. We have it for a very special use in the intoning of the church service, in recitative passages in opera, in the chanting delivery of certain orators and actors—the elder Bellew was a striking exemplar of the method. So much for its æsthetic uses, which are all, it will be felt, of a very restricted sort. Furthermore, cantilation is a favorite expedient of melodrama and pantomime. No villain pursues a heroine except to a tumultuous accompaniment; and no just, or merely repentant, person expires except to slow music. Similarly in pantomime, when the benevolence of the Good Fairy becomes too emotional for mere song or mere speech, the orchestra intervenes, and such throbbing lines as—

> "Fair Princess, I will guard thee well,
> Fear not Malvino's fatal spell"—

are invariably recited in a third manner, which can only be described as cantilation, with a close regard for some reminiscence of Handel's Largo—the incidental music. But it must be said that such effects are not greatly valued by the judicious.

Better witnesses to the value of chanted verse would be the considerable success of the recitals of Shakspere and Tennyson by Mr. Riddle and Mr. Lang, the very poignant effect of, say, Yvette Guilbert's crooning of popular songs, and the personal practice of certain notable poets in delivering their own lines. Tennyson, as every one knows, groaned and rolled out his own verse in modulations which the cynical found intolerable and the simple-minded vastly impressive. Swinburne, an acknowledged master of rhythmical English, is said to affect a similar orotundity. But most men, and even poets, are notoriously bad counsellors in their own affair, and one would be reluctant to derive a general principle from a personal idiosyncrasy due possibly to embarrassment.

Of course Mr. Yeats and Herr Possart and Mr. Riddle might appeal to the universal custom of antiquity. There was a time, probably, when all poetry was sung to tunes as simple as those which are still heard in "traditional Irish singing." In fact, the recitation of poetry without music presupposes almost as advanced a civilization as does the reading of poetry. But it should be remembered that this is a very different matter from the reform proposed by Mr. Yeats. The ancients and the Irish peasantry had quite distinctly in mind either song or speech—never a third mode which lay between the two and was used for the rendering of poetry. If the traditional ballad tunes

are of the simplest kind, it is not to favor a theory of Mr. Yeats's, but merely because the composers of these tunes knew no more elaborate music. It cannot be too strongly urged that the real successors of the singing poets are Schubert and Mozart and Wagner—the great song-writers and opera-composers. Whenever poetry needs the enhancement of music, the composers will claim it for their own. The example of Richard Strauss's elaborate recitative compositions will hardly encourage them to revive among us "the traditional Irish singing."

Like many other well-intentioned movements, this revival of "speaking to music" is merely an amusing bit of archaism, which cavalierly disregards the reasons for things as they are. When poetry filled a large social function, was recited before audiences, and was practically never read, it naturally required the aid of music. Now that poetry has become an individual enjoyment—a matter chiefly for the closet—it has largely dispensed with melody. Meanwhile long generations of refined social intercourse have probably greatly improved the speaking voice; and in our own time, in the case of Booth at least, and in Bernhardt before her mannerisms overtook her, we have heard a declamation so varied, so subtle and harmonious, that beside it any form of intonation—anything, in fact, but the most perfect melody—must have seemed crude and inartistic. We are no longer a singing people, and the fact is to be deplored; but our regeneration lies along the lines of perfected music and of intelligent declamation, not along those of an archaistic return to outworn musical modes. Cantilation, at least, will not win us back from prose to poetry.

BRET HARTE.

An interesting and unusual circumstance to be noted in reviewing the literary career of the late Bret Harte is the survival of his fame in spite of his indifference about writing up to it; indeed, in the face of what sometimes seemed a reckless impulse to write it down. His work easily divides itself into two periods—a short one, during which he wrote a score or so of tales whose freshness, force, and vivacity have never been excelled; and a long, prolific one, during which he does not appear to have received a new impression, or to have made a new observation on life, or to have profited for reflection by the varied experience of the passing years that should bring wisdom.

The quality of his creative faculty was similar to that of a highly concentrated essence, good to produce marvellous effects in a short time, but losing its efficacy through constant use. We may plausibly infer from the subjects and title of his last volume, 'Openings in the Old Trail' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), his own recognition that, in all his life, he had had a clear vision of but one trail—the steep trail leading from the world beyond down the Sierras to the river turbid with golden sands. As discoverer of the trail, no one may dispute his claim. He struck it, blazed it, exploited it; it was and must ever remain absolutely, brilliantly, his own.

His actual discovery was Nature in an aspect always grand, sometimes awful, at a moment when her primeval solitude was invaded by a host that had cast human relationships behind, and came surging towards an unknown land, all under the sway of a devouring passion—the thirst for gold. Following the line of literary tradition, such an inspiration should have provoked rather splendid romance. So far, however, as any manifestation of the human mind is original, Bret Harte's use of his situation was original; and it is by this originality, which defied precedent and dared failure, that he won an immediate success and permanent high rank in American literature. He used the most romantic stuff literally—that is, as a realist. He presented the fact, humorously, ironically, pathetically, cynically, and always for its own sake, apparently without any desire to idealize, or any perception of symbolical value. This is not to say that his work was a plain statement of facts, but that almost nothing beyond or beneath the external fact came within the range of his impressionability. He was not a contemplative man; he had no curiosity about things invisible to the natural eye; he was not interested in pointing a way to higher things. He accepted the world as he saw it, and sought to reveal it in the most effective manner, unconcerned to censure or to praise. He was not, in fact, a great man, and therefore could not be a great writer. To be original in literature, consciously to owe little to predecessors, is to be remarkable, to be memorable, to make for one's self a place conspicuous and apart; but it is not to be great. Greatness in letters implies possession not so much of qualities that are different from the common, and dazzling, as of those which humanity has long agreed to regard as the most enviable.

Bret Harte was, for his time, different and is still dazzling. In the early seventies the American public had a taste in fiction of confirmed respectability. Vice was tolerated only to defeat itself and by way of enhancing the virtue of being virtuous. When half a dozen tales concerning a community of ruffians (thieves, gamblers, and prostitutes) dwelling beyond the Rockies were introduced to the reading East, literary conventions were demoralized, and the claims of virtue to exclusive representation in fiction were, so to speak, knocked into a cocked hat. The author, in his own person, shared the indifference as to morals that distinguished his characters. Like his Colonel Starbottle of Siskiyou, he seemed to assume personal responsibility. At all events he made no attempt to evade it by interpolated sermons or by a plea that he described the immoral for the purpose of being moral. "Cherokee Sal's" baby (father unknown) is born in Roaring Camp. Outside the door, groups of men, of imperturbable demeanor, apparently passionless, grimly ironical, make bets, two to five, that Sal will pull through. But when the door was opened by "Stumpy," Sal "had climbed, as it were, that rugged road that led to the stars, and so passed out of Roaring Camp, its sin and shame, for ever." The narrator of the incident makes no effort to improve the occasion. The chances were all against Sal; so, in a perfectly natural way, she died. That is the tale; take it or leave it as you please. Thus peremptorily he appears as a rejector of the didactic motive, and his rejection goes to show his instinct for story-telling, and allies him with such ancient masters of his craft as Boccaccio and the narrator of the adventures of Aladdin.

Though the matter of his tales was revolutionary, the form was classical. He aimed at an effect of the whole, and this he achieved by the most careful selection of detail, and probably by equally scrupulous rejection. He was not insensible to physical nature, but he used it only as a background for drama or for purely rhetorical intensification. "Tennessee" makes a desperate dash for liberty, shoots right and left at the crowd surrpunding the Arcade Saloon, speeds thence up Grizzly Cañon, is captured, tried, and condemned to die; and "above all this, etched on the dark firmament, rose the Sierras, remote and passionless, crowned with remoter, passionless stars." Similar imaginative sentences appear mechanically, for scenic effect, and can hardly be taken to mean that the author wishes to intimate a profound appreciation of the real insignificance of human tragedy. Still, in 'The Outcasts of Poker Flat,' such an intention is discernible, and it lends to the incident the dignity of a nobler literature.

There is every reason to believe that Bret Harte arrived instinctively at perfection of form, and that he did not proceed deliberately, in conformity with known æsthetic law. This instinct was not enough for the construction of novels or for the prolonged development of character. No more incoherent novel than 'Gabriel Conroy' was ever written. There are excellent scenes, sharply defined individuals, but, on the whole, the novel is a monument to the author's limitations and defects. The women express supremely his low and vulgar view of women and his appalling unconsciousness that the view was either low or vulgar. He emphasizes throughout his remoteness from true romance, his confusion between pathos and sentimentality, and his delight in glaring theatrical effects. He suggests, indeed, quite pitiably, that there was nothing in himself to serve as a touchstone for the representation of honorable men and decent women.

Nothing in his work has been more severely criticised than the habit of attributing to passably worthless people a single and signal virtue; but the virtue is generally a primitive one, and is rarely either inconsistent or improbable. After all, the denizens of Roaring Camp and Red Dog and One Horse Gulch (incomparable names!) were men, not brutes; and it is not ranging them with the angels to say that they stood by each other in calamity, or that one could give his life for a friend, or for a child, or even for a woman whose improprieties were flagrant. In nothing, it seems to us, was Bret Harte more successful than in saving his heroes from the heroic pose. The keynote of his characterization is concealment of emotion. Certain gamblers, it will be remembered, calmly continued their game "the day that French Pete and Kanaka Joe

shot each other to death over the bar in the front room." "Mr. John Oakhurst, going out in the snow to shoot himself, smilingly kissed the Duchess," and said he was only going as far as the Cañon. Men with a hand on their pistols, watching to get the "line," chaffed each other in miners' or gamblers' slang.

It is the privilege of creative writers whose work is based on actual social conditions, to become for posterity the historians of those conditions. No future historian of the State of California, however serious, can hope to discredit Bret Harte. Already Jack Hamlin, that lonely calculator of chances, Miggles, Colonel Starbottle, Yuba Bill, and M'liss, daughter of Old Smith, Old Bummer Smith, are historical personages. In time their story will probably crystallize into a legend—the "Legend of the Forty-Niners"—possessing authority and prestige, for ever true, as is its remote classical progenitor, the Legend of the Golden Fleece.

MR. BRYCE'S ROMANES LECTURE.

OXFORD, June 7, 1902.

The Sheldonian Theatre was crowded by Mr. Bryce's hearers beyond its recent wont at Romanes lectures. On the present occasion the number of American professors and college presidents, and of Americans in general, was noticeably large. Indeed, the resort of the learned and academical world of America to Oxford has been markedly on the increase of late years, so that if it is not already true, it will soon be true, to say that Oxford is an indispensable centre of the broadest intellectual life of English-speaking people the world over. No man could more fitly illustrate this state of things than Mr. James Bryce, who has done so much to promote a mutual understanding between America and England. Nor could he well have chosen a topic of more intimate and equal concern to the United States and the British Empire than "The Relations of the Advanced and the Backward Races of Mankind."

His lecture was too earnest and too thoughtful to admit of purple passages; and his tense manner, combined with the encyclopædic readiness with which he flashed the rays of his scrutiny now into the fastnesses of hill tribes in India, anon into the mining camps of the Rocky Mountains, passing from the Bushmen of South Africa to the Ainos of Japan and the tribes of the Malay archipelago, seemed to forbid demonstrations of applause. But he held the unflagging attention of his large audience to the last, and gave to his brief characterizations of the multitudinous home-countries of the several tribes and races of mankind that vivid reality which emanates from the mind only of one who speaks of what he has seen with his own eyes. In his introduction he dwelt on the fact that man has at last "all but finished" the exploration of the earth; that "a far more widespread contact" than other ages have seen has resulted from this, and that all the backward races are now placed "in a more or less complete dependence upon the more advanced." His subject he finally defined as "the phenomena that attend the contact of the civilized and uncivilized races." Racial difference he made no attempt to define. "Let us go straight to the facts," he said, "the facts and problems which the contact of diverse races brings into being."

His first case was that of comparatively small aggregates of men in a backward state, or of more numerous tribes whose physique was weak. In this case the backward race quickly vanishes, not always through the fault of the stronger race. His second case was one not of destruction but of absorption. When a stronger immigrant race comes among aborigines of a race neither in a low stage of savagery nor physically feeble, these may be imperceptibly "blent with and lost among the stronger and more numerous or more prolific race." Sometimes this is "not so much by mixture of blood as by the imposition on the less civilized race of the characteristic type of the more advanced." The Slavs who entered Europe in and after the eighth century have become Greeks, and the same is true, he said, of the Albanians in Greece. The race thus absorbed may be the stronger in everything but intelligence. Strength is sometimes the undoing of a people, as the case of the red Indian so often shows. "The black man," said our lecturer most pointedly—"the black man submits and survives." Here he paused to survey the enormous change that has passed upon the population of the globe through the two cases of extinction and absorption.

By far the most complex phenomena of race-contact arose, continued Mr. Bryce, where there can be no question of absorption or of extinction; the races involved being equally matched, or nearly so. Here either there is mixture by intermarriage, or the two races "remain separate, necessarily influencing one another but not mingling their blood." In the former case, that of mixture of blood by intermarriage, he found "all the great peoples of the world": the French, the Germans, the Russians. And finally, as the result of the completest mixture on equal terms and in the most various ways, he instanced the English and the Americans in the following words:

"The original source of the largest of all civilized nations, that which inhabits the temperate parts of North America, was not only itself the product of diverse sources before it crossed the ocean, but has within the last seventy years received such enormous accretions from Ireland, Germany, Scandinavia, and the Slavs of Central Europe, that it is becoming the most mixed of all the peoples we know."

Having dealt with the extinction of the weak by contact with the stronger races, and with the less drastic but equally complete process of absorption which so frequently takes place, and having surveyed the capital instances of the formation of new races by commixture on more or less equal terms of various strong races, our lecturer addressed himself to the last case of all—cases of contact without mixture of blood or intermarriage. "What," he asked, "are the causes which favor or check intermarriage between races brought into contact?" The causes favoring it he found neither in equal civilization nor in equal endowments, physical or mental, nor in community of race or language. The cause absolutely checking it he found in physical repulsion based upon differences in color, and varying in its intensity according to the degree of those differences. Repulsion to intermarriage was most absolute between the white races and the blacks. It existed, but in a less degree, between the white races and the red men. Here a personal observation drove the point home. "I have been struck," said Mr. Bryce, "by hearing men in the Rocky Mountains who would have concealed any infusion of negro blood, mention that their mothers or grandmothers had been Indians."

A difference between the Teutonic and the South European races was here noted, the latter feeling far less repulsion to intermarriage with a colored race. "Where Americans, Englishmen, and Germans rule," he said, "there is no intermarriage with the colored races, and consequently no prospect of race-fusion." Between colored races contact brings about more intermarriage on the whole, but red men hardly intermarry with negroes more frequently than do whites. The Berbers of North Africa, on the contrary, are prone to unite with the blacks of the Sudan. Similar and more extreme is the case of Morocco. The reason for this our lecturer found chiefly in religion. Potent though religion may be, he conceived it to be less powerful than color either in favor of or against intermarriage, because it cannot create physical repulsion and it can be changed. Religion in the pre-Christian world scarcely exercised a potent influence because everybody respected his neighbor's religion. Now, our more metaphysical monotheism pronounces other faiths pernicious, and will have no dealings with their professors. A distinction in this regard was here made between Islam and Christianity. Mohammedans intermarry more freely with polytheists because in such cases the wife abjures her "false" religion. But with Christians the followers of Islam will not easily intermarry. "It is religion," our lecturer said, "that has in those regions forbidden the mixture of races, and created that apparently insoluble problem which we call 'the Eastern question.'"

Next came up for consideration those cases where, in spite of the barrier of color or that of religion, or both, there is actual mixture between the white and the colored races. A third race results; does it stand midway between the two sources from which it derives? Physically it usually does, but its mental type is much nearer to that of the advanced race. But here Mr. Bryce urged that our data are insufficient. Still more insufficient, he maintained, were our data for determining the result of race-mixture such as that in progress through the contact in America of numerous white races. "We cannot," said Mr. Bryce, "speak positively as to what the result may be on the American people, after another century, of the great stream of non-English blood which is being poured into its veins. The type may remain, yet the national character may prove to have been affected." He ventured, nevertheless, upon a general prognostication as follows: (1) Two races physiologically near would combine with advantageous results. (2) In proportion as the two elements were physiologically remote, the resulting combination failed to improve on the lower of the two stocks. He instanced, as a typical instance of (1), "the peoples formed by the blending of Celts and Teutons in western Britain (Wessex), in northeastern Ireland, in northeastern France, and in western Switzerland, and the admixture of Slavs and Teutons in northern and eastern Germany. On the other hand, mixtures of

whites and negroes, or of whites and Hindus, being cases of (2), though apparently not lacking in physical strength, show a lack of persistency, and either die out or revert by intermarriage to the type of one of the parent races, usually to that of the lower race.

Here Mr. Bryce's argument dwelt significantly upon three men of brilliant gifts constituting exceptions to this dictum (and he might have added a fourth, Pushkin, the national poet of Russia): Alexandre Dumas, whose imagination, though "not of the highest quality," was of almost unsurpassed fertility, although he was either a mulatto or a quadroon. Then, in words so unmistakably pointing to an honored American citizen that, even before an English audience it was not necessary to give his name, the lecturer said: "At this moment there is living in the United States the son of a white father and negro mother, himself born in slavery, who is one of the most remarkable personalities and perhaps the most moving and persuasive orator in that nation of eighty millions." Finally, he added: "Mexico has been ruled for a quarter of a century with equal vigor and wisdom by a man of mixed Indian and Spanish blood who ranks among the five or six leading figures of our time." These single instances, however, leave unchallenged the average result of contact by way of mixture between races of marked physical dissimilarity. "The average offspring is apt," said Mr. Bryce, "to be physically inferior to the average of either parent stock," and, in its mental endowment, falls short of the higher by a greater interval than that by which it rises above the lower. So wide a generalization doubtless required qualification, he went on to say. The Arabs had improved certain African strains by permeating them, and the like thing had happened in Mexico; but whether the net result was satisfactory remained problematical. In closing this discussion of contact by mixture between races physiologically opposed, but of fairly equal strength, Mr. Bryce dwelt upon the unquestioned finality of this solution of the race problem. Race antagonism, dangerous "because rooted in nature," could not but vanish, he said, "when the races were blent."

The remaining third of the lecture was devoted to the discussion of cases where, for various reasons carefully differentiated, contact exists without the possibility of fusion by marriage—the English in India, the Americans in Luzon and the Philippines generally, the Dutch in Java, the French in Madagascar, the Chinese in Western America and Australia, and, lastly, the circumstances being only analogous to the cases above instanced, the former slave States of our Union, where seven millions of negroes dwell together with double their number of whites. Add Algeria and British South Africa and Western South America, where the preponderance numerically of the backward races is very great, though not always statistically ascertainable. Under all these widely differing circumstances and in every one of these various cases race antagonism, arising from inequality and rooted in dissimilarity of character, issuing in distrust and helpless misunderstanding, was the danger, made pressing by the fact of two races confronting each other as distinct and unfriendly bodies. "The passions of a racial conflict," said Mr. Bryce, "sweep all but the gentlest natures away." Industrial difficulties arose to complicate tumultuous violence, and pity grew blunt towards those who stood outside the racial or social pale. Evils of this order tended to become more acute the more democratic a government became, and the more advantages of education and the like were extended to the weaker race.

Addressing himself to the formidable problems thus baldly summarized from his more eloquent and complete account, the lecturer began by saying: "That contact can be averted by inducing European peoples to forbear from annexing or settling in the countries inhabited by the colored races, is not to be expected. The impulses which move these peoples in the present will not be checked by the prospect of evils in the future. Besides, the work of annexation is practically done already." Withdrawal from Algeria, India, or Western Turkestan would, he argued, give rise to mischiefs probably greater than those in the present situation. The French, the English, the Russians, then, he regards as sadly committed to their well-nigh impossible tasks in those countries. To the Californian and Australian policies of absolutely stringent exclusiveness toward the Chinese, he gave his hesitating and regretful assent, saying guardedly: "There are cases in which the exclusion of the backward race seems justified in the interest of humanity at large by the consideration that to admit that race would involve more of loss to the higher race than of gain to the lower."

Mr. Bryce's mind, then, on one of our American questions of the hour, was made tolerably clear. Did his silence on another—our occupation of the Philippines—convey the opinion that it would be best for us to withdraw before it is too late, as it is for the French, the English, and the Russians in Algeria, India, and Turkestan? The only answer derivable from his discourse comes most uncertainly from the considerations with which it closed—from an enumeration which he gave of certain elements of hope in the future outlook. We must, then, pass over, with however much regret, his masterly discussion of our negro problem in the South, and leave out his luminous appreciations of the rôles played in race-contact where fusion is impossible by Christianity and Islam, respectively, in order to derive such light as may come from his mature consideration of problems like ours in the Philippines.

Baldly presented, and not, be it remembered, definitely addressed to our case, though it is named, his considerations are these: (1) Duty and policy alike demand that the relations should be friendly between a dominant race and a backward race with which it cannot fuse and yet must live; (2) at the risk of excluding and therefore alienating the poorest and most ignorant whites, race and blood should not be made the ground of discrimination in respect of political rights, which should be based on a qualification of property and education; (3) as to social relations, the only hope springs from a possibility that the dominant race can realize how important it is for their country's future to help on and make friends with the backward race. "Let who will make the laws if I make the manners," was the lecturer's hopeful text, and he added: "Manners depend upon sentiment, and sentiment changes slowly. Still, it changes. It has changed as regards torture. It has changed as regards slavery."

Finally, and again in a mood of hesitant optimism, Mr. Bryce spoke of certain possible changes which might conceivably affect the existing contact of races, especially in the tropics, and so make the future unlike the past: (1) The power of white races to work and multiply in the tropics may be enhanced by medical discoveries such as "the recent expulsion of yellow fever from Cuba by the American physicians"; (2) the rate of increase or decrease of dominant races may be affected by their gradual acclimatization in countries recently occupied; (3) scientific discovery and mechanical invention may largely supersede the necessity for labor in countries too hot for white men to work in; (4) some of the races now deemed backward may show an unforeseen capacity for intellectual and moral progress. The force of this point the lecturer greatly enhanced by his notable observation that the differences between backward and advanced races lie "not so much in intelligence as in force of will and tenacity of purpose," and he added: "How far these latter qualities can be developed with a developing intellect is still doubtful, for the future will bring new opportunities."

LOUIS DYER.

SOME FROUDE LETTERS.

PARIS, May 1, 1902.

There died in France, a year or more ago, one of those political agitators, once common in this country, who, under changed conditions, have now become very rare. I refer to the late Gen. Gustave Cluseret, who began life in most orthodox fashion as a regularly educated officer of the French army, but who ended his days as a workingman's member of the Chamber of Deputies. During his long career, Cluseret had been a soldier in the armies of Italy and the United States, an exile in America, Belgium, Switzerland, and Turkey, a war correspondent for a New York daily, a painter who exhibited at many a Paris Salon, a Fenian leader in England, and a War Minister under the Paris Commune, when he was condemned to death *in contumaciam* by the Versailles Government. Such were some of the varied experiences of this extraordinary man.

Cluseret's strange life, his rather striking personal appearance, his bold and often picturesque language, in which his many personal enemies (almost everybody became such sooner or later) were always handled without gloves, a winning something in his manners—all this awakened a sort of compassion for an evidently disappointed spirit and won him more than one distinguished friend in various lands. In Italy he was closely associated with Garibaldi in the heroic period, and during the epoch of our civil war Sumner, among other prominent Americans, was, as letters which I have under my eye as I write show, warmly attached to him.

But of all Cluseret's foreign aequaintances, James Anthony Froude probably had for him the greatest good will. Of Froude Cluseret never seemed to have an evil word to say, a very rare state of mind for him.

They appear to have become acquainted immediately after the fall of the Commune, from which disaster Cluseret barely escaped with his life, thanks largely to his American citizenship. The nature of this acquaintance comes out well in Froude's letters to Cluseret, which the latter placed in my possession some years ago, and a portion of which are reproduced below.

Froude's interest in Cluseret lessened towards the close of his life. The reason for this appears in the letter which Froude wrote to me in September, 1888:

"Cluseret's book of Memoirs perplexes me. I cannot undertake to find a translator for it. The present state of society may be as rotten as he thinks it is, and may be all going to the Devil. But if the Devil is to come for it in the shape of dynamite and the massacre of the bourgeoisie, which he seems to recommend, I hope I shall be in another place before the visitation takes effect."

On June 29, 1894, he wrote to me as follows. The letter reached me on the day President Carnot was buried:

"I am interested in what you tell me about Cluseret. He used to write to me sometimes. I should like to hear what he thinks about the present phase of the Revolution. My own opinion has long been that we are drifting towards military government again; I mean all of us, France, England, and America too. Constitutional Governments are too weak to deal with daggers and dynamite. Your own people lynch the niggers for fear the courts should be too gentle with them. Carlyle said to me in 1871: 'The people are saying to the upper classes, if you cannot mend this accursed state of society, by God, we will destroy it and you, and ourselves too, and so make an end.' Society does not mean to be destroyed just yet, and, if free institutions are in the way, will end them first."

THEODORE STANTON.

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5 ONSLOW GARDENS, LONDON, S. W.,
February 10, 1872.

For yourself, I congratulate you on being alive. The interest which I felt in you led me to make particular inquiries as to your fate, and I supposed myself to have received authentic information that you had been killed.

I am an old Republican. Thirty years ago I would myself have taken my place on the barricade had the chance fallen in my way. I was a fool, like other young men, and believed that because existing institutions were wrong, they would fall when they were attacked, and that something better would at once take their place. My present opinion is, that although the something better will come at last, we may wait for it a couple of hundred years, and that the International (so far as I know either its views or its resources) would not give us, if it succeeded, a permanent state of society better than what we now possess.

The men of ideas, however, are the only members of the human family that are interesting. You, as one of them, I shall continue to watch so long as you are above the water. Whatever befalls you, your course will be a remarkable one, and you will contribute your share to the smashing up of injustice and imposture.

Yours truly, J. A. FROUDE
(The Editor of *Fraser's*).

LONDON, May 16, 1872.

I think of going to New York in the Autumn to give lectures on the Irish question. I mean to say that the political side of Irish agitation is folly, and can end only (as it has always hitherto ended) in shame and national disgrace. If it succeeded, it would make the peasantry no better off than they are at present. There is no tyrant over the poor so cruel as an Irish attorney or an Irish land-jobber, and those are the men who would be elected to an Irish Parliament. I wish to see the whole force of Irish popular opinion united to that of the English people to overthrow landlordism, and give the fruits of the soil to those who cultivate it. The Fenians, when they hear what I have to say about their false and bastard "patriotism," will be inclined to break my head or put a bullet through me. I wish them, however, to hear me out to the end of my course of lectures at any rate. A word from you to that effect, if you have any friends among them at New York, might be useful to me.

The *Fortnightly Review*, about which you ask, is an advanced Radical Publication. Many good men write in it. But it is too doctrinaire for my taste. The formulas of advanced English politicians are as stiff and arrogant as the formulas of theology. Truth itself becomes distasteful to me when it comes in the shape of a proposition. Half the life is struck out of it in the process. The *Review*, however, has a high reputation. The chief contributors are Comtists (you know about M. Comte), and in their own way stand up for the poor against the rich.

LONDON, June 11, 1872.

A time will come when you will see that the leaders of our Reform League are as hollow and futile as the Fenians. Political Reform, both in England and Ireland, is an imposture. The wider the suffrage in England, the more completely Parliament becomes a monopoly of the rich, and in consequence the more corrupt and useless. In Ireland, a Home Parliament will be equally returned by the Priests, and the power of Priests and the power of money are the two devils that we have to fight against.

The true leaders of the people in England are the managers of the Trades Unions, who care nothing for politics or Parliament, but fix their eyes steadily on the particular measures which will do them good, and wrench them by superior skill and force out of the hands of the capitalists. The upper classes are wise in their generation, and like nothing better than to tempt the masses away after political will-o'-the-wisps. So long as the hounds are on that scent, they know well that they have nothing to fear.

LONDON, September 11, 1872.

You ask about Mr. Bradlaugh. I have never seen him, but I have heard much about him. He is one of those able, eloquent men who have large influence over the masses of thinking workingmen, but are particularly obnoxious to the upper classes of society, and therefore never succeed in making themselves a political force in the State. They start the ideas which in the end prevail. They agitate; they create the materials of a considerable movement. But as soon as the movement has attained dimensions enough to be important, the leadership is taken out of their hands by one or other of the established parties in Parliament, and they are themselves thrust aside.

Bradlaugh is reported to believe in the possibility of a violent Revolution in England which he can himself lead and control. I consider this to be the wildest illusion. The reverence for rich men is so great in England that universal suffrage and the Ballot will only fill the House of Commons with millionaires. If trade failed and we had two or three millions out of employ with food at famine prices, we might have local disturbances, riots, and perhaps very great political changes; but not even then such alteration as would bring Bradlaugh to the front.

LONDON, October 19, 1873.

I have communicated your wishes to the Minister of War, and I sincerely hope that he may accept your services. The Cabinet ought to feel that they owe you something for your Paper on the Fenians, and I know them to be generally well disposed, though so weak that we can expect nothing from them which they fear might rouse opposition. This cowardice is the curse of Constitutional Governments. We can only hope that they save us from what would be worse under other forms.

The accounts from France to-day show that the reactionaries are bolder than you suppose. The Catholic priests, with the Pope at their head, are delirious with vanity. They have three-quarters of the French women at their backs. They have persuaded themselves that the Virgin Mary has taken to politics, and in this state of mind may dare anything. If, as is possible, they succeed in once more kindling a conflagration in Europe, it will be the beginning of the end. The whole system will be torn up by the roots. For this consummation I devoutly pray.

LONDON, May 14, 1874.

I have read your letter with great interest. I sympathise with you and will do everything in my power to help you. I know well how bitter it is for a man of ability and accomplishments, conscious of talent and of a desire to use his life nobly, to be cast aside in compelled inactivity. I am assured that you are sincere in your wish to be of use in your generation, as I am assured also that you have been sincere throughout your career.

But as to your present proposal.

The Conservative Cabinet now in office is composed of two sections. The Prime Minister and the Earl of Derby are men of large liberal sentiments. They are conscious that the world is moving and that they must move along with it. Others among the ministers, men of great ability also, are more under the influence of the Past, and are more keenly hostile to the spirit of Democracy and revolt against established Institutions. Among these the Marquis of Salisbury is the most prominent, and before him, as Minister for India, your application would have to be laid if you present it in its present form. I need hardly tell you that the answer would be unfavourable. Your offer to serve in Africa, while generously made, was rejected by the late Liberal Ministry, with immediate emphasis. The objections felt by Mr. Cardwell and by Lord Kimberley would present themselves more strongly to the Marquis of Salisbury.

The political situation of England can scarcely be intelligible to any one who is not himself an Englishman. Forty years ago we started with enthusiasm on the career of Reform to make a new heaven and a new earth. We expected that Political Reform would bring genius and intellect to the front and introduce a spirit of Justice into the administration of the Empire. The result has been that an aristocracy of wealth has superseded the aristocracy of birth. The higher interests of the country have been sacrificed to the men of capital, the manufacturers, the traders, the shopkeepers. Instead of a science of politics, we have Political Economy which leaves every one to take care of himself and the devil of us all. Selfishness has taken the place of patriotism. We have less ability in Parliament instead of more. The energy of the country has drifted into an insane craving after money.

Consequently, a general sense has come over us that Democracy, instead of mending matters, will, if we carry it further, make them worse than they are, and we have made a Conservative Revolution. In despair of getting any real good from the Radicals, we have brought back into power the representatives of the Institutions under which we grew to be a great country, with Mr. D'Israeli at their head, who, although himself a man of the people, has always foreseen the true tendencies of things and whom we now understand to have been right.

Whether these men will do any better than the others, time will show. For the present, the game of radicalism has been played out over Europe; each shock of revolution has been weaker since 1792. Castelar's failure in Spain is the last effort which will be made in that direction for a long period. Such, at least, is my opinion. The prevailing passion among mankind is now love of money, and while that continues, the greater the power of the people the greater will be the corruption. Witness America. I was myself a Republican through the best years of my life. I have been most unwillingly awakened from my dream.

Now as to yourself. It will be useless for me to write to Lord Salisbury. If you determine

on making an immediate application to the Minister, I should advise you to address yourself frankly without mentioning me or any one (you are yourself sufficiently well known) to Mr. D'Israeli. You can tell him that you have made all the reparation in your power for the Irish affair by publishing your account of it; you can say to him what you say to me, and leave yourself to his candour and consideration. You will be more likely to succeed in this way than by any indirect appeal. There is, however, I think, a better way, if you are in a condition to avail yourself of it. Men in power are always ready to recognize service when actually done or begun. They have then something more than words to go upon. Why should you not go yourself to Herat or Cashgar? The Native Princes will eagerly welcome you and accept your assistance; and if you prove yourself useful in organizing their troops, the Anglo-Indian politicians will soon hear of it.

I give you the best advice in my power. I do not think Mr. D'Israeli will at once listen to your advances, for this plain reason: he is too large-minded a man to feel ill will towards you, but the Radical party are on the watch for any mistake which he may make. They would not scruple in the least to declaim against his employment of General Cluseret on every platform and in every newspaper in the Kingdom, as a proof that the sober English nation ought not to trust him. You cannot expect him to encounter such a storm on your behalf till you have done something to make yourself valued.

LONDON, March 1, 1876.

I have absolutely no knowledge of military matters. I shall, however, read your essay with very great interest, and, if I see opportunity, I will submit it to the inspection of my friend Sir Garnet Wolséley, whose name you have doubtless heard of.

I was not unmindful of you when I saw the President of the S. A. Republic. He saw readily the great advantage which he might derive from your presence and assistance. His fear, indeed, was that your influence might become too great, and that you might become a dangerous rival to himself. Yet he bears you in mind, and I shall not be surprised if you hear from him. He has now returned to the Cape to resume his duties, and will make us acquainted before long with his future plans and purposes. It will amuse you to hear that one of his immediate intentions is to carry a vote through his Volksraad to close the remarkable Gold Fields which have been discovered within his boundaries. He and his people disapprove of the influx of vagabonds from all parts of the world, who trouble the peace of the old-fashioned Dutch farmers. Do not publish this information. I mention it merely to show you what strange things may be attempted in that part of the world, and the kind of man that you may have to deal with in case he applies for you.

LONDON, August 11, 1876.

I am sorry that the negotiation with the Transvaal Republic has led to nothing; yet perhaps you are as well out of the affair as in it. The President, who seemed inclined to work with England when he was here, is now pursuing a policy of his own from which I do not anticipate any good results. He has provoked a war with the natives which all the English settlers in the country disapprove. I feel uncertain whether without their help he will succeed in what he has undertaken; and if he is defeated and there is a general rising of the native independent chiefs against him, we may be obliged to interfere. I wish the President well, and for that reason I should have been glad could he have had such efficient help as yours at his side; but he is rash, confident, and enthusiastic, and I have lived long enough to distrust enthusiasm except in those rare cases where there is sufficient dry fuel to kindle an irresistible fire.

You are no doubt impatient of inactivity; but for your own sake I shall be sorry also to hear of your joining the Turks. Turkey is a falling cause. England will not again support the Crescent against the Russians unless Germany is at our side. Hereafter, perhaps, when the Turkish Empire dissolves, there may be a quarrel over the spoils; but the time is not come. Russia will not begin, and will not again run the risk of a war against a European coalition. But you must judge for yourself.

LONDON, March 2, 1877.

I cannot yet speak with certainty, but I believe that the time is passed when you could have been of use in the Transvaal. Had the President accepted your services when I recommended him to employ you, the Republic would now have been triumphant and secure of independence. His bad success has alienated his people, the majority of whom desire to throw themselves on British protection, of course under the British flag. The Zulu King Cetewayo now threatens them with war, and is only prevented from invading them by fear of the British Government. Disordered and divided as the Boers are, Cetewayo, who could send 50,000 well-armed men against them, could burn and plunder the whole country. Though I think that it will be better for the South African States to be united under some common authority, I am always sorry to see a Free State lose its autonomy, and if the President had accepted your help, the Republic would have been able to enter the Union on more favourable terms. But it is now too late. I would not wish to see you go there, for you would have no field open to you in which to distinguish yourself. How often have those fatal words "Too late" interfered with the best intended enterprises!

LONDON, March 11, 1878.

If you really care about this South African affair, I will write what you say to the President and I daresay something may be arranged. But I gather from your letter that you are indifferent about it, nor, if you think of returning so soon to Europe, would it be worth your while to undertake a work in itself of so trivial a character. The money which the S. A. Republic would offer would be very slight; the only adequate reward which so poor a state could offer would be lands and permanent office in the Republic. The Dutch farmers are poor themselves. They spend little in their own families, and do not understand that any one can need more. It is possible that if the President carries out his threat of closing the gold fields, there may be fighting there. There are several hundred English, American, and Australian diggers at work there, making large profits, and they will not go out without a struggle. In that case the President will himself be anxious for your assistance. Let him ask for it himself and you can make your own terms.

But I trust that the turn of affairs in France will soon open a way for your return to employment and distinction in your own country, and you will cease to seek for these remote and secondary methods of occupying your talents.

You are good enough to wish to see what I have written about South Africa. It is merely a long report, submitted officially to Parliament. It is published in a collection of papers on the South African Conference laid on the table of the House by the Colonial Secretary, and is scarcely worth your looking at. I was obliged to appeal to the people of the Colony against the Colonial politicians and ministers, and I made them very angry with me. I am supposed here to have been out of order, but to have been essentially right, and my eccentricities will probably be forgiven.

LONDON, January 24, 1877.*

The plot thickens. What next? The Conservatives are Turk in this country; the Liberals are Russian. The confusion of parties and principles beats anything that I can recollect. The cloud will break in a thunder-storm before long. My own eyes are fixed on Bismarck, who alone, I suppose, in Europe, clearly knows his own mind. Many English officers will take service with the Turk, but my own convictions remain unchanged, that the Turk is a lost cause. Bismarck privately advises us to seize Egypt, which we shall not do. As a Nation we shall do nothing; and, by attempting to stand still on slippery ice, we shall make a helpless exhibition of ourselves. Is France effaced that she has no word to speak at such a time?

*The date is between the close of the Servian-Turkish war and the outbreak of the more formidable Russian-Turkish conflict, which quickly followed.

Correspondence.

RUSHING AN ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is much to be regretted that the long-standing rivalry between the great publishing houses of F. A. Brockhaus and the Bibliographisches Institut, in the matter of up-to-dateness of their respective Konversations-Lexikons (Brockhaus and Meyer) has at last led to the adoption of methods in the new edition of the former, now in the course of publication, which it is courteous to call annoying and questionable. In the haste of rushing this "Jubiläums-Ausgabe" through the press—at the rate of seven volumes a year—a large number of contemporaneous celebrities (the very ones concerning whom information is most sought by those who consult a cyclopædia) are simply mentioned by name, with a reference to Volume 17. Thus, merely because it was not deemed expedient to wait until the biographies could be written, the volumes are sent out into the world incomplete in a very important feature, and the disappointed reader must wait for his information until the appearance of the supplemental volume. Among the biographies thus withheld may be mentioned, at random, those of the physicist Boltzmann, the author Hermann Bahr, the philosopher Benno Erdmann, the archæologist Babelon, the astronomer Backlund, the painter Gallegos, etc. The list might be made a long one.

This defect is made all the more inexcusable by the fact that, in the geographical articles, may be found descriptions of cities repeating word for word what was said in preceding editions about certain features that have since undergone considerable change. As in biography, so in geography many articles are reserved for treatment in Volume 17, as, for instance, in the case of Formazzathal, Akita (Japan), and Arnold (England); and subjects of varied interest, such as Faustball, Fliegendes Geschwader, Eros (Asteroid), Fahrradversicherung, Färbemethoden, etc., are tantalizingly mentioned, only to be referred to the future receptacle of all of them—Volume 17.

GUSTAV POLLAK.

NEW YORK, June 16, 1902.

MAGNETIC WAVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for June 19, at page 485, it is stated that magnetic disturbance attended the eruption of Mont Pelée on May 8, and that "this is the first observation of the kind." On the contrary, one of the best time observations of the Charleston earthquake was recorded by the magnetic instruments at Toronto Observatory, the movement being distinctly magnetic, and not due to mechanical jarring. Being interested in magnetic work, and at the sug-

gestion of the Director of the Observatory, I examined the curve personally, and found it to be a distinct pull to one side, and not oscillatory.—Yours very truly,

M. A. VEEDER.

LYONS, N. Y., June 20, 1902.

[We were summarizing a statement in the *National Geographic Magazine;* but the reference was to a volcanic, not earthquake, cause.—ED. NATION.]

AUROCHS AND URUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Roosevelt is probably quite right in his statement regarding the misuse of aurochs. The name aurochs, *auer ochs*, ox of old, properly belongs to *Bos urus* of northwestern Europe. The name urus was *not* the native name, but the name given to the animal by the Romans. The name in modern times has become transferred to the European bison, *Bison bonassus*, which is a totally distinct animal from the urus.

The case is analogous to the transferral of the name penguin, originally applied to the great auk, to the flightless birds of the Southern Hemisphere. L.

WASHINGTON, D. C., June 22, 1902.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in hand the first uniform edition of Walt Whitman's Works, to be published by subscription; a new Sunnyside Edition of Irving's Works; a new edition of Poe, edited by Prof. Charles F. Richardson of Dartmouth, and illustrated by Frederick Simpson Coburn. They also announce for fall issue 'The Romance of the Colorado River,' by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh; 'The Hudson River from Ocean to Source,' by Edgar Mayhew Bacon; 'Old Paths and Legends of New England,' by Katharine M. Abbott; and 'Rhode Island: Its Making and Its Meaning,' by Irving Berdine Richman.

'Four Addresses,' by Henry L. Higginson, with portraits of Harvard's benefactor, is forthcoming from the Merrymount Press.

A very pretty little book, edited by Alexander Jessup, 'The Best of Balzac' (L. C. Page & Co.), is described in the preface as the "initiatory volume" in a series the purpose of which is "both introductory and finally selective." "Other volumes," we are told, "embracing the best work of the greatest writers of literature of at least the nineteenth century, will follow." It is to be hoped that the remaining authors will lend themselves more easily to this treatment. Balzac, less than almost any other French writer, will stand being served up in "selections"; and surely none has less need of "introduction" to the English-speaking public. The seven short stories and episodes in this book are perhaps as good as any that could be chosen, but they are certainly not the great novelist's "best." The translation is careful, though somewhat too literal to be altogether pleasing. The volume contains also a twelve-page bibliography, a brief and flimsy essay on the author's works, and a beautiful portrait of Balzac—the best thing in the book.

Had Mary E. Stone Bassett's 'Judith's Garden' (Lothrop Publishing Co.) been the first in which a clever young wife confides to the flower-loving public an intimate relation of her inexperience in gardening; her "garden-delights," as Bacon calls them, and her garden-griefs; her thrills over her flowers, her weeds, and her garden-bugs; her conversations anent all these with a miraculous husband; her successful thrusting off of unwelcome visitors, and her daily encounter with a comic gardener who is sometimes good, sometimes bad—were this the first of such volumes, the gentle reader would have found the book engaging and cheerful. But the little procession of wives who have followed Elizabeth in unstraying footsteps through her inexperiences and the recounting thereof, have somewhat cloyed our appetite; and the last book cannot be read with the zest given to the first. Nor has it the useful bits of instruction about gardening which the "Commuter's Wife" and one English consort conveyed so pleasantly and opportunely to the reader. It is prettily printed, with a cool green border design; and has the green cover which apparently has come to be the hall-mark of garden-books.

Many attempts to condense and put in narrative form the Journals of Lewis and Clark have followed upon Dr. Coues's splendid edition of this classic published a few years ago. One of the very best has recently appeared, entitled 'First Across the Continent: The Story of the Lewis and Clark Expedition' (Charles Scribner's Sons), and edited by Noah Brooks, who evidently knows well the country through which the explorers passed. The salient and striking events of the expedition have been judiciously selected and skilfully woven together, while the great mass of repetitious descriptive matter has been carefully pruned; the whole making a most readable volume of some three hundred pages. A map of the route and a rather heterogeneous assortment of illustrations accompany the text.

The series of "Popular Studies in Mythology, Romance and Folklore" (London: David Nutt) is rendering excellent service in popularizing the latest results of scholarship, in a succession of neatly printed little volumes published at sixpence. A dozen have already appeared, dealing with such varied themes as the fairy mythology of Shakspere, the Ossianic literature, Celtic and mediæval romance, the Rig Veda, and the popular poetry of the Finns. Written in many cases by excellent scholars, and furnished with ample bibliographical material for further study, these little pamphlets of fifty or sixty pages may well whet the appetite of the uninitiated. The latest volumes to appear are Miss Weston's 'Romance Cycle of Charlemagne and his Peers,' Farraday's 'The Edda: The Divine Mythology of the North,' and J. B. John's study of the Welsh stories of the 'Mabinogion.'

The first instalment of a new work on Mexico, entitled 'Blandt Mexicos Indianere' (Among the Indians of Mexico), by the Norwegian traveller, Carl Lumholtz, has recently appeared, published by Aschehoug & Co., of Christiania. The Indians who form the subjects of the book are cliff-dwellers of Chihuahua, west of the Sierra Madre, with whom this author was in contact for more than five years. The completed work will consist of about twenty-five parts, with numerous illustrations (chiefly from photographs), two colored plates, and a map.

The 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana, 1847-1899,' in its slow but steady course of publication in Milan (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), opens its second volume with E and proceeds in two parts nearly to the end of F. There is comparatively little to remark in this tract. One of the most prominent native authors recorded is Ugo Foscolo, whose works fill nearly a page and a half, and are still reprinted. Erckmann-Chatrian engendered Italian versions as late as 1898, and in that year even "Fanny" Feydeau underwent a resurrection. Octave Feuillet was "alive" in 1896. Miss Edgeworth has not been ventured since 1872; and "Daniel Deronda" is the only one of George Eliot's novels accessible in Italian. F. W. Faber was drawn upon in 1897. There is a list of eleven items the fruit of our countryman Willard Fiske's versatile activity during his residence in the peninsula.

The works dealing with the Italian Renaissance are legion, but a hearty welcome must be accorded to a new series of special monographs devoted to the literature and history of this period, which has just been announced by the publisher, Sansoni of Florence. It has been appropriately called "Biblioteca Storica del Rinascimento," and is edited by Signor F. P. Luiso, a disciple of Pasquale Villari, whose studies in connection with the life and works of the humanist Leonardo Bruni are well known to students of the Renaissance. In the announcement, which has just been issued, Professor Villari outlines the scope of the series, which will deal with special phases of Renaissance life and culture, with the less known of the humanists, and with minor but significant figures in the historical department of the period. The first volume will appear shortly—Guido Mazzoni's translation of Müntz's important study of the precursors of the Renaissance, with additions by the author. Other volumes announced for immediate publication are Schiaparelli's 'La Casa Fiorentina nei secoli xiv. e xv.,' Sabbadini's 'Scoperte e Divulgazione dei Classici Latini nel secolo xv.,' and Novati's 'Francesco da Fiano ed i Primordi dell' Umanesimo a Roma.' Under such auspices the "Biblioteca" cannot fail to become a successful and important addition to Renaissance studies.

The Spanish universities, like those of several other Latin countries, have preserved the pleasant custom of beginning the academic year with an inaugural address by a distinguished professor. At the University of Barcelona, one of the most important of the Iberian seats of learning, Prof. Rubió y Lluch devoted his 'Discurso Inaugural' (Barcelona: Montserrat) to a study of the essential characteristics of Catalonian literature. The scholarly activity of Menéndez y Pelayo has done much to foster an interest in the different phases of Spanish culture, as component parts of its historic life, and in this address Prof. Rubió y Lluch exhibits the same rigid historical method and splendid sanity of judgment. A patriotic impulse must, of course, be expected in a paper read before an audience in the Catalonian capital, but the attention of scholars has perhaps been focussed too much on the life and literature of Castile, to the exclusion of research in

other lines. A literary centre which has produced such a poet as Ausias March and such a scholar as Raymond Lully is not undeserving of study, and its claims have never been presented with greater force and acuteness than by Prof. Robió y Lluch.

We learn from the *School Review* for May that, at the classical conference held at Ann Arbor in March, Professor Hempl read a paper in which he made a brief report on the progress of his investigations into the early history of the Runes, the first letters used by our Teutonic ancestors. These studies have of late taken an important turn in favor of Professor Hempl's contention that the Runes are a Western Greek alphabet which came to the Teutons between 600 and 550 B. C.; and disclose an unsuspected Teutonic numerical notation. This notation reveals important facts, not only as to the character of the Teutonic numerical system and the time of the Teutonic shift of consonants, but also as to the development of the numerical notation of the Greeks. Professor Hempl's studies will soon be published in full in various philological journals.

The most interesting of the large instalment of historical manuscripts published in the June Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is Daniel Webster's answer to a request of Theophilus Parsons for advice in regard to the conduct of the Boston *Daily Advertiser*. He refers to it as "a very respectable print, conducted with judgment and intelligence," but wishes that the editor, Mr. Hale, "had more disposition to seize on great national questions, discuss them, in all their forms, and awaken a livelier interest in the proceedings of the Gen^{l}. Gov^{t}. . . . If a paper is intended to be a mere chronicle, that is one thing, but if it be meant to perform a political part, it must have discussion, spirited paragraphs, and the power and habit of presenting great truths in a variety of form. In a single discourse repetition is in bad taste. But the press cannot be effective without much of it. It must renew, to-day, the arguments of yesterday, and thus hold up, constantly, the truths which it wishes to impress on the public mind. Well conducted efforts of this kind can alone constitute what we call a vigorous press." Caleb Cushing writes from Washington at about the same time, 1840, that he does not think "there is *immediate* prospect of war with Great Britain." After stating that this country has "done all we can to effect an amicable settlement of the main question," he adds, "I am as fully convinced as you [Henry A. S. Dearborn] can be that the peace, security, and territorial independence of the United States require the extinction of the British power in North America; and to that great end I shall never cease to look. *Delenda est Carthago.*"

The Geological Survey of Canada has recently published the second part of volume ii. of "Contributions to Canadian Palæontology." It consists of a report, by Dr. Samuel H. Scudder of Cambridge, Mass., on the coleopterous fauna of the interglacial clays of the Toronto district, with an appendix by Dr. A. P. Hopkins of Morgantown, W. Va., on the scolytid borings from the same deposits. In a previous paper in this series, issued in 1892, the total number of determined species of insect remains in interglacial beds was stated to be twenty-nine, referable to five families. Since then, as a result of Prof. A. P. Coleman's investigations, several hundred specimens have been obtained, about one-third of them being available for examination. These were almost exclusively elytra of beetles, and form the subject of the present memoir. They consist of fifty-four species, only seven of which have been found before in these beds. All but two of the forty-seven additions are regarded, like those previously described, as extinct forms. The total number of known interglacial forms is now raised to seventy-six, belonging to thirty-three genera and eight families.

It is probable that steps will shortly be taken to preserve the famous rock at Dighton, Mass., whose curious markings have long been a subject of interest to archæologists both in this country and in Europe. A recent careful examination of the rock by a committee of the Old Colony Historical Society of Taunton, to whom it now belongs, showed that the markings are rapidly being worn away by the action of water and ice, and that the rock itself is being chipped and defaced by visitors and relic-hunters. Fully a third of the markings which appeared on the lower surface of the rock, in a picture taken in 1882, have now disappeared. As the rock is submerged at high tide, the problem of its protection is difficult; but as the rock appears to be a detached boulder, weighing perhaps ten tons, its removal to a site above the tide line is thought to be practicable. In this connection, it would be interesting to know more about the large stone slab which lies on the ground behind the rock, and in one corner of which appear to be traces of markings. The face of the rock is very smooth and regular, but the dimensions of the slab correspond in general with those of the writing side of the rock, from which it appears to have been taken. How the slab reached its present position, however, is unknown, nor does it seem to have attracted much attention from investigators.

—In the April *Bulletin of the Geographical Society*, Prof. R. De C. Ward of Harvard uses the Report for 1901 of the Surgeon-General of the Army as a basis for "Notes on Climatology" in review of the medical aspect of tropical climates as affecting our troops. Disregarding the distinction between climate meteorologically considered and the conditions inseparably connected with it, we recognize that prolonged tropical residence diminishes the white man's energy and power of continuous work, and, besides, makes him liable to distressing diseases which, if not peculiar to those zones, at least flourish there with special virulence. Convalescence is slow, if it occurs at all on the spot. Military service renders our troops in the Philippines particularly susceptible to the effects of the climate and to climatic diseases. A special disability is tropical dysentery, of which there are two distinct forms. One is very serious, with an acute course, although not necessarily fatal. The other is marked by gradually increasing relapses, with intervals of remission and apparent recovery. The milder dysentery of temperate climates is also found in the tropics as a third variety. In the chronic form of tropical dysentery, nine times out of ten the only hope for recovery is transfer to a cooler climate. But medical officers as such have no authority to send men beyond the limits of the command, and their judgment is not always transmuted into orders by the officer who has such authority. So the high death- and discharge-rates of the first eighteen months of Philippine occupation were in part due to executive inappreciation of expert advice. The fear of weakening the nominal strength present, and of exciting alarm at home by the arrival of successive shiploads of invalids, does not prevail now, and the men have in that, and in less disturbed conditions, a better prospect.

—Necessarily much grave sickness must be expected among troops suddenly transferred to unaccustomed fields, but Professor Ward errs in supposing that the admission-rate for intestinal diseases of 465.01 per 1,000 for the army at large represents admission to hospital. The rate is that at which men are excused from active duty, for short as well as longer periods, by admission to the sick-list. They may be sent into hospitals, but the majority are not. The soldier is non-effective for the time, but in the United States army the sick-rate is not purely a hospital-rate, but only inclusively, and, of course, it is probable that most of the sick men not in hospital are not seriously ill. In the British army the admission-rate does mean the hospital-rate exclusively, and is, therefore, not comparable with our own. So of the 465.01 only 94.83 were dysentery cases, the others being classed as diarrhœas. In the China expedition the rate for this group was 1,266.54, of which 1,041.60 was for diarrhœa. The total deaths emphasize the disparity in severity between the subdivisions of the group. These were 649, all but 84 being for dysentery; and probably, of the 84, better discrimination at the beginning would have classed a number under the more dangerous disease. In the China expedition, with its enormous admission-rate, there were only 31 deaths, all from dysentery, in this group. But a complete view would add to the mortality of 649 those discharged from the army for disability to the number of 181, as well as those who, incapacitated, remain in service beyond the period of this report. The latter would be accounted for in subsequent reports. The yearly military death-rate from disease in the Philippines of 20.26 per thousand, exclusive of that for discharges for disability, represents that obtaining among vigorous males of selected adult age, in spite of the fact that competent medical attendance is always available. By comparison, in Boston the average death-rate for males between twenty and fifty years old is but 3.42. Professor Ward has credited to a naval medical officer observations upon the China forces made by Majors Banister and Ives, respectively, of the Army medical staff.

—Fifty years have elapsed since the Messrs. Appleton copyrighted their Spanish and English Dictionary edited by Velazquez de la Cadena. The second (English-Spanish) portion of this useful work has just appeared in a separate volume, revised and augmented by Edward Gray, M.D., and Juan L. Iribas, LL.D. Old and outworn words have been freely discarded, and upwards of ten thousand added, all with a

practical aim and for the special behoof of commerce and science, in keeping with the mission of the Isthmian Canal. The pronunciation has been represented anew in accordance with the system approved by the American Philological Association. The volume is very handsomely and clearly printed in a three-column page. Simultaneously, we receive the tenth edition of the English-German portion of Chr. Fr. Grieb's German and English Dictionary, which has been cared for by Prof. Arnold Schröer of the University of Freiburg-im-Breisgau (Stuttgart: Paul Neff; New York: H. Frowde). The etymologies, which have no place in our renovated Velazquez, are here briefly indicated, and while the claims of trade and industry are respected, the effort has been to reflect the living speech of England and America, the cultivated speech; but also the literary language from the end of the sixteenth century. This involves retaining some archaic and obsolete words, and gives the German Dictionary a complexion distinct from the Spanish. The verb *commerce*, for example, as in Milton's "commercing with the skies"; Milton's "rathe" (primrose); Gray's "plod" (his weary way), are all recognized by the new Grieb. In none of these cases is the classic author cited, however; but Shakspere's "hoist with his own petard," is quoted and ascribed under *petard*—a word occurring also in Velazquez, but without a literary citation. Again, both dictionaries have *Lilliputian*, but the German alone has *Big-endians* and *Little-endians, Brobdingnagian, Houyhnhnm*. Both have the verb *trammel*, but only Grieb *to trammel up*. The prepositional government of *averse* (*to* or *from*) is noticed in Grieb alone. In the pronunciation of *pennyworth*, Velazquez follows the orthography; Grieb the English usage ("penn-worth" or "penn-orth"). In both we find *Jingo; interviewer*, defined in Velazquez, but equated in Grieb with "Der Interviewer" (a hideous intruder into pure German); *merrimake*, but *merrimaking* in Grieb alone. Neither contains *co-education, intercollegiate*, or *kinematograph*. Velazquez alone has *appendicitis, automobile, interstate* (commerce), *Lynch* and *Lynch law, Percheron, tsetse*. So Grieb has a monopoly of *quid pro quo, swimmingness* (unattended by *brimmingness*), and *X-rays*. These comparisons will afford some idea of the character of the respective works, which will be alike welcome. The German Dictionary, in its turn, is in triple columns, clearly printed with the usual German economy of packing: *e. g.*, under *human* are lumped thirteen words, each but one of which has a separate entry in the Spanish. Grieb ends with a queer *olla-podrida* of proper names.

—In the field of Dante literature are growths of every sort. Beside the solid fruit of scholarly investigation springs up the light and airy product of impressionistic dilettantism. All of them, provided they be good of their kind, have their interest and utility. 'Dante and the Divine Comedy,' by W. J. Payling Wright (John Lane), bears new testimony to the pervasive charm of the *altissimo poeta*. The little book has a pleasant literary flavor, and may induce some of its readers to make themselves personally acquainted with its hero. After two brief introductory chapters on "Benevento" and "Florence," we have a description of the 'Vita Nuova' and the three *canticbe* of the 'Commedia.' All this is in a popular vein, almost too scrappy even for the general public, and quite unprofitable to the student. In matters of fact, the information given is mainly correct, and one is therefore startled at being told that the "conception of a hell which is graduated and classified is peculiar to Dante." It is somewhat exasperating, also, to meet such unnecessary hybrids as "ante-purgatorio" and "ante-inferno." The identification of the hemisphere of water with the "southern hemisphere" is a common error; uncommon is the transformation of Bertran de Born into "Bertrand of Bearn." The fundamental defect of the work, however, is the failure to recognize the allegorical significance of the 'Commedia'; the "Inferno" is entirely misconceived. The author's attitude toward symbolism may be inferred from his remark that "those who read Dante as poetry and not as theology will not greatly care" what Matelda represents. Nevertheless, in his concluding chapter, he attempts a discussion of the hidden meaning of the first cantos; according to him, "the *motif* of the poem is the conquest of the fear of Death," typified by the wood: the three beasts stand for the World, the Devil, and Death. Here, as elsewhere, his argument is vitiated by the assumption that Dante was an immaculate being—as if the world's greatest song of remorse and redemption could have been written by any one but a "sinner that repenteth"! Two notes, on the name Beatrice, and on Dante's use of the word *bruno*, seem strangely out of keeping with the rest of the volume; they add nothing to our knowledge of the subjects. It is curious that, in a list of twenty-four mediæval Beatrices, the author should have failed to include the lady sung by Raimbaut de Vaqueiras.

—Scholars are to be congratulated when a master, after having for a course of years scattered his teachings broadcast in the perishable form of magazine articles, collects them, with careful revision, in a handy volume which the student can henceforth keep at his elbow. To this process we owe D'Ovidio's 'Studii sulla *Divina Commedia*,' the most important Dante work that has appeared of late. A similar and equally well deserved resurrection now unearths for us fifty-four short treatises by Paget Toynbee, hitherto buried in the various periodicals of three nations. They make a book of some 360 pages—'Dante Studies and Researches' (E. P. Dutton & Co.)—beautifully printed, and indexed with painstaking minuteness. These contributions to Dante lore, ranging in length from less than a page to thirty-seven pages, were originally chips from the workshop in which the author's 'Dictionary' was constructed. Containing, as they do, a full exposition of facts and arguments closely connected with some of the most interesting articles in that volume, but necessarily excluded from it for brevity's sake, they form a valuable supplement to the earlier work. Most of them deal with the sources of Dante's knowledge. Recent investigation has busied itself chiefly with the restoration of the poet's environment. What books did he know, whose lead did he follow, what were the current events, the current beliefs, the intellectual habits of his day? These are the questions that we must answer, if we would clear up the many remaining difficulties of detail in the interpretation of his great poem. Perhaps the most curious of Mr. Toynbee's researches in this line is the one entitled "Dante's Latin Dictionary"—a study of the 'Magnæ Derivationes' of Uguccione da Pisa, from which the Florentine poet derived several odd bits of misinformation. In a somewhat different vein is the interesting chapter on "Benvenuto da Imola and his Commentary on the *Divina Commedia*." The longest article, reprinted from the Sixteenth Annual Report of the Cambridge Dante Society, tabulates the differences between Rajna's recently published text of 'De Vulgari Eloquentia' and that of Dr. Moore's Oxford edition. Not one of the fifty-four studies is without attraction for the serious student of Dante, and not one has lost its value since the date of its original publication.

BUTLER'S TREATY-MAKING POWER.

The Treaty-Making Power of the United States. By Charles Henry Butler of the New York Bar. In two volumes. New York: Banks Law Publishing Co. 1902.

The immediate origin of this work of elaborate research seemingly was, and its evident thesis is, "to justify the ways," not of God, but of our national Administration, to men. If the reviewer's task be difficult, that of the reader is indeed thorny, for a few lines of text are not infrequently followed by pages of notes, so that the book seems an elaborate footnote with a modest suggestion of text. The whole is so weighed down by authority that the notes almost sink the text. The work itself is divided into three parts: The United States as a Nation; Historical Review of the Treaty-making Power of the United States; Judicial Decisions Affecting the Treaty-making Power of the United States, its Extent and Application. These are preceded by an introduction of fourteen pages, in which the author briefly and positively states the problem and the views and conclusions which the volumes are intended to prove and establish.

In abstracted form the conclusions are expressed in the following four propositions:

(1.) The treaty-making power is an attribute of sovereignty; the United States is sovereign (the Union is a grammatical as well as a constitutional fact); the treaty-making power thus inherent in sovereignty was expressly delegated by the Constitution to the Federal Government, so that, in theory as well as in fact, the Government is absolutely sovereign in execution of this power without constitutional or legal hindrance or limitation.

(2.) By the exercise of the treaty-making power, the national Government binds the United States in its sovereign capacity; and the States, as part of this national Union ("All are but parts of one stupendous whole"), are bound by action of the national Government with or without their consent.

(3.) The limitations imposed by the Constitution upon the powers of Congress to legislate on matters intrusted to the States do not apply to acts of Congress passed to carry out treaty stipulations, even although Congress would not have the power to pass such acts in absence of the treaty.

(4.) "That all provisions in State statutes or constitutions which in any way con-

flict with any treaty stipulations, whether they have been made prior or subsequent thereto, must give way to the provisions of the treaty or act of Congress based on and enforcing the same, even if such provisions relate to matters wholly within State jurisdiction." (Vol. I., pp. 5-6.)

If these views be correct, nobody will take issue with the author's conclusion that "the treaty-making power is undoubtedly the most far-reaching of any of the powers possessed by the Federal Government." The views in paragraphs two, three, and four may be and have been sharply criticised, but the authorities cited bear out the author's conclusions; the real question, however, is as to the extent of the treaty-making power delegated to, or residing in, the Federal Government; for if the exercise of the power be proper, the results mentioned do constitutionally follow.

One cannot help wondering what the framers of the Constitution would think of the first and subsequent propositions thus baldly stated. It was their evident intention to form a "more perfect union"—the Articles of Confederation had been far from perfect; but it was generally supposed that the States were to be more than geographical units, and that, while the Federal Government was to represent the United States with foreign nations, and to have the power to enforce its rights against all members of the Union, the States were to remain in charge of their purely domestic and internal affairs. The first ten amendments to the Constitution, so nearly contemporaneous as to be for practical purposes parts of that instrument, acted as a "Bill of Rights" for the express purpose of restraining the exercise of Federal power, and the Tenth Amendment expressed this intention in no uncertain language: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." It should be said, however, in speaking of delegated powers, that the uniform exposition of the Constitution from an early date has given to the implied powers of Congress the force of an express delegation, so that not only that which is expressly delegated, but also that which is implied, necessary or proper to the execution of an expressly delegated power or right, is within the Constitutional province of Congress. (M'Culloch vs. Maryland, 4 Wheaton, 316.)

The Tenth Amendment is cited as indicative of the jealous way in which the States regarded the Union, for its exact language would not apply to an express delegation, and the treaty-making power is expressly delegated. Article ii., section ii., says: "He [the President] shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur," and, to the treaty thus made, effect of law is given by article iii., section ii.: "The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority." To be sure, there is a formal difference between an act of Congress and a treaty; for the one is the joint product of President, Senate, and House of Representative (unless passed over the veto), while the other is the act of the President and two-thirds of the Senate present. In form they differ; in substance they have the same effect, that of law; for if ratified, the treaty has the binding effect of law, and in law it is binding upon the courts as such, and subject to their judicial interpretation. As a law it repeals a prior act of Congress inconsistent with its provisions, just as a subsequent act of Congress repeals the treaty, if inconsistent with its provisions, no matter how solemnly the treaty may have been framed and ratified. Nay, Congress may pass an act for the express purpose of repealing or abrogating the treaty, and such act of Congress is binding upon the United States and its courts, although such action may well give rise to diplomatic difficulties, since, although a treaty is a municipal law of the United States, it is a contract as regards a foreign Power, and its violation gives rise to action for its breach, from which damages or war may result. (Whitney vs. Robertson, 124 U. S., 190.)

That an act of Congress is subject to Constitutional limitation upon the powers of Congress is beyond doubt, and an attempted exercise by Congress of a power prohibited, or not delegated, or in excess of delegation, will be set aside by the Supreme Court, on a case properly brought, as unconstitutional, and therefore void and of no effect whatever, as to whole act or as to part, as the case may be. This is unquestioned doctrine since the case of Marbury vs. Madison (1 Cranch, 137). Now if a treaty is the law of the land, and, notwithstanding its formal difference, has the force of law, and if a law of the land is subject to Constitutional limitation, it would seem to follow that a treaty as a municipal law of the United States is subject to the Constitution by virtue whereof it is declared to be law and given such effect. This Mr. Butler denies, and asserts that the United States in its foreign relations is "not *federal* in its character, but *national*, and that as such it possesses, and exercises, every function exercisable by any other sovereign government in the world" (vol. i., pp. 19-20). Foreign governments are not subject to Constitutional limitations in exercise of their sovereignty; hence the United States is not.

If our Government were like theirs, such would or might be the case; but our theory and practice in matters governmental are different, and our "sovereign body" may well be, and is, restrained by Constitutional inhibitions. Mr. Butler admits that restraints do and must exist, but maintains that such restraints are moral rather than legal. It is his mature opinion, therefore, that no legal check exists upon the exercise of the treaty-making power by the branch of the Government to which it has been expressly delegated, although, as suggested, he concedes that certain practical restraints are well known and recognized. A President, for example, would be disinclined to negotiate and submit for ratification a treaty which would cost him his personal popularity or which might disrupt or injure his party. If he did, the Senate would be unlikely by a two-thirds vote to ratify such a treaty, for personal and political, if not for Constitutional, reasons.

A geographical boundary depending on the personal whim or caprice of a neighbor is not considered safe in the ordinary affairs of life, and a restraint resting in the whim, caprice, or rudimentary sense of justice of any one man or any body of men, seems foreign to our institutions. The Constitution was framed for the express purpose of interposing the letter of the law to the claim or exercise of arbitrary power, and the peculiarly distinctive function of our Supreme Court is to set aside ill-founded claim or assumption of power on the part of the lawmaker. Once admit that the power exists to do the thing in question, the Supreme Court will not examine into the reasonableness, expediency, or propriety of the act; for, if the power exists, legislative discretion is beyond the judiciary. (M'Culloch vs. Maryland.) If, therefore, the treaty-making power exists, as claimed by Mr. Butler, there is no judicial check to its exercise. We hold, however, that two checks do exist, and that they either are or ought to be sufficient to keep the treaty-making power and its exercise within the framework of the Constitution. The first is clear, definite, and beyond controversy; the second is general in its nature, and indefinite, but ever existent.

It is admitted that a treaty is the law of the land, and as such is binding upon all departments of the Government; but it is clearly established that there are two kinds of treaties or treaty-laws. In the first case, a treaty-law may be complete in itself and therefore require no coöperation of Congress to carry it into effect. Such a treaty is a contract between the respective nations parties to it, and binds them upon signature or ratification. This distinction is laid down authoritatively by Marshall, C.J., in Foster & Elam vs. Neilson (2 Peters, 253), and is not open to question. On the other hand, it is laid down in the same case, and no less authoritatively, that a treaty requiring legislation to complete, supplement, or carry it into execution, is of no effect without an act of Congress, and that if Congress refuses to legislate, the treaty or treaty provision remains of no force and effect. Indeed, the treaty is not executed until Congress has passed the act required, even although the other provisions needed no act of the legislature. (Vol. ii., p. 71.)

We waive the question whether it is the duty of Congress to pass a legislative act in aid of a treaty. Such duty, if it exists at all, is a moral not a legal one, and we are dealing with strictly legal, not moral or ethical obligations. Most treaties require money at one time or another to carry them fully into effect; and as bills for revenue must originate in the House of Representatives, and as all laws other than treaty stipulations must pass Senate and House, it necessarily follows that all treaties requiring supplemental legislation, whether in form of law or appropriation of money, are subject to Congress, especially to the House of Representatives. That is to say: The treaty may be negotiated by the President and ratified by the Senate, but unless it be absolutely complete in itself and needs neither Congressional legislation nor appropriation, it cannot be enforced without the coöperation of Congress. Such is the doctrine promulgated by the great Chief Justice, and followed as the established doctrine of the Supreme Court. The President and Senate may indulge in building

air castles, but their projects remain paper projects if Congress looms up defiant and controlling.

If it be urged that this action of Congress applies only to the second class of treaties, we may admit it without argument. The controlling power of Congress is more evident in the second class, where a treaty is suspended until legislative action gives effect to its provisions; but the power of Congress over treaties of the first class is not less real because less obvious, for a treaty is only a law at best, and Congress may repeal or abrogate it at its pleasure, provided the majority overcomes an interposed vote. The instant a treaty of the first class requires money for its execution, the House of Representatives assumes control.

But, even in the first class, there is, as Mr. Butler admits, a protection against the sovereign exercise of this sovereign power, a check ever existing and not lightly to be trifled with, namely, the fundamental principles, the genius or spirit, of our institutions. The doctrine that the spirit of free institutions has something to do with the letter of the law was not unheard in England, where the courts have never undertaken to set aside acts of Parliament in the manner with which we are familiar. Three statements (dicta they should properly be called), follow: "Where an act of Parliament," says Lord Coke, "is against common right and reason, or repugnant or impossible to be performed, the common law will control it, and adjudge it to be void." Lord Hobart's dictum is well known: "Even an act of Parliament made against natural equity, as to make a man judge in his own case, is void in itself"; and Lord Holt at a much later day referred with approbation to the language just quoted. If it be remembered that the lawyers of the Revolution were familiar with and quoted these dicta, it is seen that mere law as such, without restraint, did not find favor in their sight.

Mr. Butler informs us that the Supreme Court has never set aside a treaty as in excess of power; but it is evident that the Supreme Court claims that the treaty-making power is subject to some control and supervision other than the whim of a President and two-thirds of the Senate present at the vote, as appears sufficiently from the following citation:

"The treaty power, as expressed in the Constitution, is in terms unlimited except by those restraints which are found in that instrument against the action of the Government or of its departments, and those arising from the nature of the Government itself, and of that of the States. It would not be contended that it extends so far as to authorize what the Constitution forbids, or a change in the character of the Government or in that of one of the States, or a cession of any portion of the territory of the latter, without its consent. But, with these exceptions, it is not perceived that there is any limit to the questions which can be adjusted touching any matter which is properly the subject of negotiation with a foreign country." (Geoffery vs. Riggs, 133 U. S. 258, 1890.)

The reports contain many like statements; but inasmuch as the question has never arisen for judicial construction, such statements are, as Mr. Butler says, mere dicta. His statement to the contrary, supported as it is by publicists and politicians, cannot be given greater weight; nor can the academic opinion or dictum of a text-book be held to wipe out a line of oft-repeated doctrine. Moreover, judicial dicta have in many cases been the basis of decisions in later and carefully considered judgments. The dicta of Marshall, C. J., in Marbury vs. Madison (1 Cranch 137) and Brown vs. Maryland (12 Wheaton 419) have been bodily incorporated into later decisions of the court. And it may be said generally that the dictum of a learned and careful judge often carries more weight than the decision of many a court.

In the reviewer's opinion, the treaty-making power was conferred upon the Federal Government by express Constitutional delegation, and in that delegation all powers incidental to its exercise were included. It does not seem necessary, for the purpose of the treaty-making power, to consider the vexed question elaborately discussed in Part I., whether the United States is, or are, a sovereign nation, for by express provision the general Government is supreme or sovereign in foreign affairs, so far as the individual States are concerned. Mr. Butler considers this sovereignty of fundamental importance in the government of the Territories and "dependencies." This, likewise, seems a question of municipal, and not of international law, for the right to govern and regulate vests in the Government by direct Constitutional delegation. Article iv., section iii., clause 2 says: "The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States." Can it be doubted that the Congress is limited in its exercise of this power by the Constitution which conveys the power?

Mr. Butler's book is in one sense a brief for expansion and imperialism. Now expansion is, it would seem, a mixed question of expediency and constitutional power, and not one of European international law. It is no part of our problem whether a European sovereign nation, such as Great Britain, could hold and legislate for Porto Rico and the Philippines. The question is, Does the United States under the Constitution have the power? International law is indeed binding upon the United States (The Paquette *Habana*, 175 U. S. 677, at p. 700), but it is the international law applicable to our situation; and if resort be made to "the works of jurists and commentators," it is not for the "speculations of their authors concerning what the law ought to be, but for trustworthy evidence of what the law really is." The Constitution recognizes international law, but the constitutional right exists to modify the traditional international law of Europe. It would seem that the question of power over the Territories and dependencies of the United States is a mere municipal matter, or, if one of international law, then of international law as existing and modified by our Constitution.

Part II., the historical review of the treaty-making power, is admirably done, and no exception can be well taken to this division of the work. Part III., dealing with the judicial construction of the power, is excellent. We must, however, for the reasons above set forth, take exception to the conclusion that the treaty-making power is, legally speaking, untrammelled. Volume i. abstracts the Insular Cases, with the Constitution of the United States not inaptly relegated to a second place; volume ii. contains a careful alphabetical summary of all treaties and conventions of the United States concluded with foreign Powers. The ample index places the entire contents at the reader's disposal, and the typographical slips, as regards names, figures, and dates, are singularly few. The book as a whole is not only an exceedingly valuable and timely contribution to international and constitutional law, but is also the first adequate and scientific treatise on the treaty-making power of the United States. The States-rights school does "still persist," as Mr. Butler rightly states (vol. i., p. 23), and there are not a few, including four eminently respected justices of the Supreme Court, who have the "temerity to affirm" "that our Government has in any way exceeded, or is exceeding, its powers either in acquiring or in governing our new possessions" (vol. i., p. 41). They likewise feel that a denial of justice as safeguarded by the Constitution is a much more serious thing than a denial that the United States is, or are, technically a sovereign nation, to deny which, says Mr. Butler, "is to assert that the United States is not a completely sovereign Power, and therefore is not entitled to rank as one of the great sovereign Powers of the world; this indeed would be a mortifying position for a country with over seventy-five million inhabitants and a territorial area of over three million square miles."

RECENT BRITISH POETRY.

When an author has already printed five volumes of poems, the chance is that "all he cares to preserve"—as prefaces say—will be, as in the case of Mr. Arthur Symons, two tolerably substantial octavos entitled 'Poems' (Lane). What will be his rule of selection is harder to say, but after a man of rare gifts has spent the prime of his life in putting the spirit of Verlaine into English verse, he must pay the penalty of his instruction. When he classes himself, for instance, with a rat nailed to a granary floor (ii., 125), or his soul with dog's meat, as in the following verses, it is hard for the reader not to take him at his own word (ii., 134, 135).

THE DOGS.

My desires are upon me like dogs, I beat them back,
Yet they yelp upon my track;
And I know that my soul one day shall lie at their feet,
And my soul be these dogs' meat.

My soul walks robed in white where the saints sing psalms,
Among the lilies and palms,
Beholding the face of God through the radiant bars
Of the heavenly gate of stars;
The robes of my soul are whiter than snow, she sings
Praise of immortal things;
Yet still she listens, still, in the night, she hears
The dogs' yelp in her ears.

. . . . . .

I have prayed, God has heard; I have prayed to him, he has heard;
But he has not spoken a word;
My soul walks robed in white among lilies and palms,
And she hears the triumphing psalms;
But louder than all, by day and by night, she hears
The dogs' yelp in her ears;
And I know that my soul shall one day lie at their feet,
And my soul be these dogs' meat.

In general, the measure of this poet's self-objurgations is so strong that the severest critic may sometimes be tempted to praise as art what he cannot commend

in spirit, as in a poem so tender and thoughtful as this, for instance (ii., 218):

THE CRYING OF THE WATER.

O water, voice of my heart, crying in the sand,
All night long crying with a mournful cry,
As I lie and listen, and cannot understand
The voice of my heart in my side or the voice of the sea,
O water, crying for rest, is it I, is it I?
All night long the water is crying to me.

Unresting water, there shall never be rest
Till the last moon droop and the last tide fail,
And the fire of the end begin to burn in the west;
And the heart shall be weary and wonder and cry like the sea,
All life long crying without avail,
As the water all night long is crying to me.

Or he may dwell on the exquisite rhythm of this, the closing poem of the two volumes (ii., 221-2):

Faustus— . . . Helen is dead
These many thousand years; but what are years?
Time is the slave of thought; a little thought
Sets back the clock of the ages; this hour that strikes
Is not so sure for me as Helen's hour.
I call on Helen: Helen is the thought
I summon with; I form out of my soul
A bodily Helen, whom these eyes behold.

Helen—Have I slept long? You waken me from sleep.
I have forgotten something: what is it?

Faustus—There is much wisdom in your beauty. Eyes
That have looked deep into the hearts of men,
When men, setting their lips on them, forgot
All but desire of some forgetfulness,
Remember many secrets; your eyes are grave
With knowledge of the hearts of many men.

Helen—I have forgotten all; if I have looked
Into the hearts of men, I have but seen
A little eager world, like to my own.
A world my own has copied; they desire
That which I have to give them, I in them
Their own desire.

Faustus—They see you not; they see
Another phantom Helen in the soul,
And they desire what you can never give.

Helen—What is the soul, and what is that desire
Of man which Helen cannot satisfy?

Faustus—O Helen, we are sick, sick of the soul.
It is an ancient malady, and clings
About our blood these many thousand years.
We are born old, and this decrepit soul
Is like a child's inheritance, that pays
The price of others' pleasure; we are born old,
Old in the heart and mournful in the brain,
Hunters of shadows, feeders on food of sleep,
Hoarding a little memory till it rots,
We have forgotten day, the instant day,
And that to-morrow never shall be ours.

Helen—To-morrow never need be ours; to-day
Is greater than the heart of any man.

Note the changing cadence of these lines and the controlling harmony of their structure. In poetic skill and the analysis of passion Mr. Symons stands at the head of all British poets of his generation, assuming Bailey and Swinburne to represent a previous generation. Yet there are times when one would give them all for a dozen lines so pure and high as this song in William Watson's little pamphlet, 'New Poems' (Lane):

LEAVETAKING.

Pass, thou wild light,
Wild light on peaks that so
Grieve to let go
The day.
Lovely thy tarrying, lovely too is night;
Pass thou away.

Pass, thou wild heart,
Wild heart of youth that still
Hast half a will
To stay.
I grow too old a comrade, let us part,
Pass thou away.

It is to the merit of both these poets that they have had their own standard, for better or for worse, and, above all, that they have not had their heads turned by easy successes. For any young poet who pines under belated praise, there can be no more consoling lesson than to observe the harm so often done by premature laudation.

Among the poets whom Professor Palgrave especially quotes, both in his 'Treasury of Sacred Song' and in the second series of his 'Golden Treasury,' is the Rev. Richard Wilton, Canon of York and Rector of Londesborough, who publishes a little volume, 'Lyra Pastoralis: Songs of Nature, Church, and Home' (Methuen). The three themes of his song are well represented, although it must be owned that the church bells predominate. He dearly loves the English rural life, remembers with gratitude that Henry Vaughan's desecrated grave was restored by the lovers of his poetry in answer to an appeal from the American poetess, Louise Imogen Guiney, and himself wrote the verses placed on Washington's tomb on occasion of the one-hundredth anniversary of his death, together with the Earl of Londesborough's wreath of oak, laurel, ivy, and yew. He also wrote for the Rev. Mr. Horder's 'Treasury of American Sacred Song' this prologue addressed to "The Sacred Poets of America" (p. 114):

As from the East unto the utmost West
God bids the banner of His lightning shine,
The flashing signal of the Face Divine
With whose fair radiance earth may soon be blest:
So speeds the Heavenly Muse, at His Behest,
Across the waters; so the spreading vine
Of sacred poesy, with clusters fine,
By Western airs is welcomed and caressed.
O ye whose sires our English fields have trod,
By holy Herbert's feet made hallowed ground,
His dower of truth and beauty ye have found;
With you still buds and blossoms Aaron's rod,
Proclaiming you the poet-priests of God,
To wave the incense of His praise around.

'A Tale of True Love, and Other Poems,' by Alfred Austin, poet laureate (Macmillan), is dedicated to President Roosevelt, and has a special and rather kindly preface to the American edition. A fatal habit of bathos has always lingered around Mr. Austin's verse, with jingling phrases which helplessly defeat their own aim. Thus, in his poem "In the Forum," where there should be, of all places, a measured dignity, he sings to us only such lines as these (p. 58, 60):

"With waves of song from wakening lyre
Apollo routs the wavering night,
While, parsley-crowned, the white-robed choir
Wind chanting up the sacred height.
. . . . . .
The saint may seize the siren's seat,
The shaveling frown where frisked the Faun;
Ne'er will, though all beside should fleet,
The Olympian Presence be withdrawn.

Here, even in the noontide glare,
The gods, recumbent, take their ease;
Go look, and you will find them there,
Slumbering beneath some fallen frieze.

Nothing is more uneven, just at this time, than the unequal distribution between England and Ireland of really original poetic genius. Fortunate is that reader who finds, in a freshly arrived parcel of London books, a thin volume of thirty or forty pages which bear the name, we will not say of William B. Yeats, but of such feminine rivals as Dora Sigerson (Mrs. Clement Shorter). This is the case even if the book has a title no more winning than that of 'The Woman Who Went to Hell, and Other Ballads and Lyrics' (De La More Press). The title-poem of the book, founded on an Irish legend, might have come without change from Scott's 'Border Minstrelsy'; and the "Man Who Trod on Sleeping-Grass" is a perfect fairy tale. As being the shortest among the poems, not necessarily the best, we copy the pretty fancy based on the wild flower known in England as Lords and Ladies, and in America as the Wake-robin or Indian Turnip (*Arum triphyllum*) (p. 36:)

THE WATCHER IN THE WOOD.

Deep in the wood's recesses cool
I see the fairy dancers glide,
In cloth of gold, in gown of green,
My lord and lady side by side.

But who has hung from leaf to leaf,
From flower to flower a silken twine,
A cloud of grey that holds the dew
In globes of clear enchanted wine,

Or stretches far from branch to branch,
From thorn to thorn, in diamond rain?
Who caught the cup of crystal pure
And hung so fair the shining chain?

'Tis death, the spider, in his net,
Who lures the dancers as they glide,
In cloth of gold, in gown of green,
My lord and lady side by side.

Another Irish exile book, with similar touches of melody, is 'The Queen's Chronicler, and Other Poems,' by Stephen Gwynn (Lane). In this the most striking poem is "The Woman of Beare" (p. 80), adapted from Prof. Kuno Meyer's literal version of an Irish poem; but this is too long for quotation, while the voice of the Irishman calling from London is more modern and simple and tender (p. 24):

IRELAND.

Ireland, oh Ireland! centre of my longings,
Country of my fathers, home of my heart!
Overseas you call me: *Why an exile from me?*
Wherefore sea-severed, long leagues apart?

As the shining salmon, homeless in the sea depths,
Hears the river call him, scents out the land,
Leaps and rejoices in the meeting of the waters,
Breasts weir and torrent, nests him in the sand;

Lives there and loves, yet, with the year's returning,
Rusting in the river, pines for the sea,
Sweeps back again to the ripple of the tideway,
Roamer of the waters, vagabond and free.

Wanderer am I like the salmon of the rivers;
London is my ocean, murmurous and deep,
Tossing and vast; yet through the roar of London
Comes to me thy summons, calls me in sleep.

Pearly are the skies in the country of my fathers,
Purple are thy mountains, home of my heart.
Mother of my yearning, love of all my longings,
Keep me in remembrance, long leagues apart.

'The Hours of the Passion, and Other Poems,' by Harriet Eleanor Hamilton-King (Grant Richards), is one of those pure outpourings of a woman's heart, profound, pathetic, almost mystical—their inspiration drawn from the Bible on one side and Dante on the other—which reveal a life of sorrow ending in triumph. The most striking among the poems, perhaps, is one supposed to be addressed "To Dreyfus: from the Crucifix," as if proceeding from the figure of a white Christ on a black cross which hung on the wall of the Court of Justice. It begins with these strong and direct lines (p. 127):

"My brother! O refuse me not the name,
Our race at least, thou knowest, is the same;
My mother was a Jewess, even as thine,
And I was born and died in Palestine.
Even now we gaze into each other's eyes
Across the crowded court—no barrier lies
Between us—thou and I, and none besides,
Hold converse; and thy tortured soul abides
Safe in the hands that will not let thee fall;
I too stood once within the Judgment Hall.
Thine eyes of martyrdom still, still they fix
Their steadfast gaze upon the Crucifix.
What do they see? Are not these answering eyes
Heavy with weeping for thine agonies?
Behold the passion of thy bleeding heart
Tears in my side the dripping wound apart;
In every limb and line dost thou not know
The reflex of thyself and all thy woe?"

To the lay reader, however, undoubtedly the most charming poem will be the one that is most secular, and paints something in the English landscape which never fails to charm the American (116):

THE FIELDS OF LAVENDER.

The fields, the fields of lavender!
Beneath the deep-blue August sky,
Before the startled wayfarer,
Spread up and down in waves they lie;
So unexpected, so unknown,
They seem a secret of their own.

You come upon a sheeted sea
Of one rich amethystine hue,
Spread out before you suddenly,
Far as the dazzled eye can view;
Hid in a hollow of the land,
A purple hollow vast and grand.

Purple and purple, such a shad
As was not dreamed that earth could show;
The light and ruffling breezes made

The purple shadow deep below:
Down in the valley, up the hill,
One soft unbroken purple still.

With white wings fluttering to and fro,
White wings of countless butterflies,
That like minute cloud-shadows go
Over the rustling field, that lies
As a strange world revealed to sight,
Where the freed souls have taken flight.

The volume called 'India's Love Lyrics,' collected and arranged in verse by Laurence Hope (Lane), has attractive titles in its table of contents, as "The Teak Forest," "Deserted Gipsy's Song," "Palm Trees by the Sea," "The Regret of the Ranee in the Hall of Peacocks," and "This Month the Almonds Bloom at Kandahar." These in sound befit Sir Edwin Arnold's earlier and more poetic volumes, but there is in them far less of the lyric ring and more monotony of mere lusciousness. It is not explained whether the poems are pure fancy or are supposed to be translations. Perhaps the one that comes the nearest to the flavor of Arnold, or even of Kipling, is the following, a poem in which the perpetual meeting and parting of the East and West is told with something approaching vigor (p. 143):

ON THE CITY WALL.

Upon the City Ramparts, lit up by sunset gleam,
The Blue eyes that conquer, meet the Darker eyes that dream.

The Dark eyes, so Eastern, and the Blue eyes from the West,
The last alight with action, the first so full of rest.

Brown, that seems to hold the Past, its magic mystery,
Blue, that catch the early light of ages yet to be,

Meet and fall and meet again, then linger, look, and smile,
Time and distance all forgotten, for a little while,

Happy on the city wall, in the warm spring weather,
All the force of Nature's laws drawing them together.

East and West so gaily blending, for a little space,
All the sunshine seems to centre round th' Enchanted place!

One rides down the dusty road, one watches from the wall,
Azure eyes would fain return, and Amber eyes recall;

Would fain be on the ramparts, and resting heart to heart,
But time o' love is overpast, East and West must part.

Blue eyes so clear and brilliant! Brown eyes so dark and deep!
Those are dim, and ride away, these cry themselves to sleep.

"*Oh, since Love is all sweet, the sob so near the smile,*
Blue eyes that [illegible] our us, is it worth your while?"

'The Ma[illegible]ws,' by Arthur E. J. Legge (Nu[illegible]s curiously the once famous poem 'Festus,' in its mingling of old and new, the Saxon name Athelstan, and the French Coralie, great ladies, revolutionary orators and ecclesiastics and Salvationist preachers, all discussing political and moral questions, interspersed with a suicide on the stage and the sudden death of the heroine, after singing the hero a song of which this is the last verse, with its outcome as appended (p. 114):

Then will your memory lose the sting,
And love, once broken and incomplete,
Will glide through the dusk with new-plumed wing,
And lay my laughing soul at my feet.
But now will I fiddle a wilful note;
My heart is tired of seriousness.
Decked for a carnival goes my boat;—
I want some chocolates—ah, one kiss.

[*She starts up and stretches out her arms to him. But even as he moves to meet her, her head drops, her eyes close, and she sinks back dead.*]

Richard LeGallienne continues the impertinence of imitating and vulgarizing Omar Khayyam in what he calls 'A Paraphrase from Several Literal Translations' (Lane), printing the result as a new edition of that copyrighted in 1897, his place of publication being now Minneapolis, U. S. A. William Gow, in his 'Drift of Isla' (Stock), offers some half-Scotch strains, unoffensive and rather pleasing; and Manus O'Conor prints a quarto book in double columns, 'Old-Time Songs and Ballads of Ireland' (The Popular Publishing Co.), containing a great supply of Irish songs, eminently convivial, yet not quite beyond the pale of good society. Mr. W. Sapte, jr.'s 'By the Way Ballads: Being Some Trivial Tales in Varied Verse' (Dutton) has a title which most singularly conveys its precise quality, but it cannot be denied that there is fun in it, both in ballads and illustrations. Cockney humor is not the choicest of all humor, to be sure, but at its best it is quite irresistible.

The Children's London. By Charlotte Thorpe. Illustrated by William Luker, jr. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

This sumptuously got-up book, adorned with charming illustrations, really is what its title implies, a book for children. They must be intelligent children, and not mere babes; but the book describes for them just those Sights of London most interesting to children. The Tower fitly comes first, with its memories of far-off things, of Kings and Queens, Princes and Princesses, warriors, nobles, priests, courtiers, whose tears have fallen on those gray stones, whose sighs seem yet to echo like a dying summer breeze through the narrow corridors and darksome cells. The little Princes, who vanished from mortal eye in these very shadows; the lovely vision of Anne Boleyn, who paid so dear for a crown; the sweet pale ghost of Jane Gray; the bright figure of Elizabeth; the courtly spectre of Ralegh—the children will see them all. They will shudder at the rack and the thumbscrews, and their young blood will run cold at the sight of the axe; and when they come to the armory, they will feel as if they were awaking from a dreadful dream. There is nothing in the book so exciting as the Tower, but the author knows that children, like their elders, have soon had enough of tragedy, and she takes her little flock to more cheerful scenes—to the Foundling (the children will not understand one-half of *that* tragedy), and then to the Zoo. Here the illustrations are profuse, and have the merit of making the animals appear interesting; the expression of the elderly elephant, disgusted to see all the buns going to the young hopeful next door, is especially good. To read this chapter is almost as good as going to the "Zoo." We are glad to see so much space given to the Natural History Museum at South Kensington, but we hope that the pair of black-headed gulls from the Isle of Mousa, in Shetland, were not killed to adorn the Museum. These gulls made their nest in a sheep-walk, and, when they found out their mistake, would not sacrifice their eggs, but remained sitting, and let the sheep jump over them. If the sheep respected them, we should be sorry to think that the shepherd did not.

Miss Thorpe has wisely left most of the treasures of the British Museum to the writers of guide-books for children of a larger growth—it would be too much to expect a real child to clothe with flesh and blood those miles of stone men and women—and has devoted much more space to the Abbey, which always impresses children, to the National Gallery, and to Madame Tussaud's. "Waxworks" are to children what picture-galleries and museums of sculpture are to their elders, and we are glad to see the waxworks of the Abbey duly mentioned. Not to go into further detail, till we read this book we had not realized that London has so many sights for children. The country children, who have not seen them, will want more than ever to "go to London"; and the London children, who already know them, will want to see them again, and notice all they missed the first time. Miss Thorpe's book will leave on her child readers the impression of a kindly grown-up person, who knows all about everything, and enjoys seeing it all as much as they do themselves; and this is what a child likes in a guide.

Little Memoirs of the Nineteenth Century. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The lady whose pen-name is "George Paston" keeps to the line of her former work in that named above. Her themes, mainly suited to her easy and sketchy style, require less in the way of research than of presentation, and her handling of them aims rather at the reader's convenience and mild amusement than at increase of the sum of human knowledge. All were minor celebrities, "meaner beauties," mostly of the literary firmament. From Lady Hester Stanhope "we gain a general impression of wasted talents and a disappointed life." Poor Haydon, whose ideas soared above his ability to enforce them, and whose vast pictures failed to pay his debts, often painted, according to the acute criticism of Mr. Watts, "as though, bored by a fixed attention that had taken him out of himself, yet highly applauding the result, he had scrawled and daubed his brush about in a sort of intoxication of self-glory." In contrast with these brilliant failures is the respectable and useful mediocrity of the Howitts; and between these extremes, faulty enough for censure, picturesque enough to be remembered, come Lady Morgan the Irish novelist, and two exotics who spent much time in England and wrote much thereon, Prince Pückler-Muskau and our own N. P. Willis. The German prince, soldier, and landscape-gardener, wealthy spendthrift and promiscuous Don Juan, affords material for perhaps the most interesting of these memoirs. The futile searches of this "male Ninon de Lenclos" for a wealthy spouse are material for comic opera; he preserved "carefully corrected drafts" of his numberless epistles to various charmers, endorsed, "Old love-letters, to be used again if required." Yet he rode with his King through the war of 1866, and at eighty-five offered his sword for that with France, and was "deeply mortified" when it was declined. Forty years earlier Goethe had praised his book on England, and confided to this unsafe channel his rash belief that the Waverley Novels were written on the plan afterwards credited to Dumas; that Scott "furnished the plot, the leading thoughts, the skeleton of the scenes, then let his pupils fill them up, and retouched them at the last." He seemed to think it "not worth the while of a man of Scott's eminence to give himself up to such a num-

ber of minute and tedious details." A fellow-feeling might have made George Paston somewhat kinder to N. P. Willis, whose work, however slight, was fully as substantial as that of his latest critic—was, moreover, done at first hand, and is not without human touches and elements of historic value. That he was a figure in his day is instanced by the Boston merchant's "guess that Go-ēthe was the N. P. Willis of Germany." Much is made in 'Little Memoirs' of Willis's blunders; probably none of them was worse than this writer's reference to Willis's biographer as "Mr. *De* Beers."

In My Vicarage Garden and Elsewhere. By Canon Ellacombe. John Lane.

Flowers and Gardens. By Forbes Watson, Edited by Canon Ellacombe. John Lane.

The pleasure which we derive from gardens, when we do not have to do the weeding, is one of the highest and purest in this world. But when one's back is cramped and broken by the unequal struggle with the tramp vegetation which we call weeds, all pleasure dies out; the flaming sword at the closed gate is behind us, and only thorns and brambles lie before. The chief charm of Eden was the entire absence of weeds and weeding. And that is the charm of these two delightful books. To be sure, the Canon does not wholly ignore weeds, any more than he would deny the existence of other sorts of evil, but he treats them just as a Canon should, with great reserve. For instance, he says: "I am one of those who think that weeds in a garden are, within a certain limit, not altogether an unmixed evil." One's heart warms to a Canon like that. When weeds pass beyond the certain limit noted, the Canon proceeds against them in a truly cautious way. He tells us:

"I should class the plantain as the worst of all weeds, especially to a good lawn. There are many plans for destroying it, such as specially made spuds, instruments for inserting sulphuric acid or other poison into the plants, etc., and none of them succeed completely. But a complete remedy can be found in common table-salt. Place a piece about the size of a hazel-nut on the very middle of the plant in hot dry weather. Don't spread it, and don't make a hole in the plant, but leave the salt on it, and in two or three days the leaves will blacken and the root so completely perish that I have known a hole left in the grass of two or three inches diameter. This soon fills up, and the plant will not appear again. *Experto crede.*"

The same device has been less successfully applied to the catching of birds; in their case, it is a little more difficult to deposit the salt just where it will be most effectual.

It is with a thorough-going optimist that we walk in the Vicarage Garden. For a great many pleasant years its owner has been a diligent student of the attractive phases which plants present. He has also taken his favorite authors into the garden, and has then and there conversed with them about the plants which they loved. Canon Ellacombe has been a successful commentator on the plant-lore of Shakspere, but he embodies in the present volume practically little of what he has elsewhere published about Shakspere. His final chapter, however, concerns the great dramatist in a very novel way, namely, the relation of Shakspere to architecture. The book throughout is chatty and agreeable, and, so far as an enjoyable perusal has shown, free from errors of fact.

The Canon's amiable qualities are further manifest in the sympathetic editing which Forbes Watson's 'Flowers and Gardens' has received at his hands. This book, written during the last months of a fatal illness, has long been a favorite with a fortunate few on account of its sweetness and strength. It has been out of print for a good while, and it had apparently little chance of a new edition at this late day. The period which has elapsed since its appearance covers almost one generation, and it is that generation, too, in which every one has become habituated to new ways of looking at things. But there was a side which plants and their flowers turned towards Watson that must always be and seem the same to the discerning eye. The Canon says, in his appreciative words:

"Forbes Watson knew that there was nothing wasted in plant life, and that each stem and leaf and flower had its separate functions in building up the life of the plant. But to his artistic mind there was something in stem and leaf and flower over and above their functions in the growth of the plant; there was beauty, a thing which some of his books noticed, but of which they gave no account. He could not stop there; he was a deeply religious man, and he felt that nothing was made in vain, and that the beauty of leaf and flower had its functions, and was as necessary to the life of the plant as any other part of it. So he set himself to learn what the flowers could tell him of this beauty which gladdened his eyes, but which he felt sure could be made to teach him more. . . . He went straight to the flowers—for the most part the commonest every-day flowers—and asked them to tell him the secret of their beauty, and he got his answer; and the answer was that there was not a line of color in any part, not an outline in any petal, not a curve in any leaf, that could be spared or altered; every such line of color, outline, and curve had its work to do, and did it, not only in the best, but in the only possible way."

Forbes Watson's book is not silly or sickly. It is the sane record of a sound and devout naturalist. The key to his writing is this (p. 162):

"Above all things, scorn nothing. Never fear to admire old-fashioned flowers because they are spoken of with contempt. Never fear to look for yourself; to form, and slowly, if necessary, your own opinion. Scorn, in fact, of anything save moral evil, is perhaps the basest passion known to man. Nothing is farther removed from the character of a true-hearted Christian gentleman (and two sorts of gentlemen can hardly be said to exist); or, to use a vulgar phrase, there is nothing in the world so snobbish. There are many wide differences between the prince and the peasant, but in whatever rank you meet a snob, habitual scorn of others, or of any of the works of God, is the infallible mark by which you know him."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. Olympian Nights. Harper & Bros. $1.25.
Beddard, F. E. Mammalia. Macmillan. $4.
Binkley, Christian. Sonnets and Songs for a House of Days. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.25.
Bliss, W. R. September Days on Nantucket. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Carman, Bliss. Ode on the Coronation of King Edward VII. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.
Catalogue of Poetry in the English Language in the Grosvenor Library, Buffalo, N. Y. Buffalo.
Chambers, Robert W. The King in Yellow. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Chevalley, A. La Reine Victoria; Sa Vie, son Rôle, son Règne. Paris: Ch. Delagrave. 3.50 fr.
Clarke, F. W., and Dennis, L. M. Elementary Chemistry. American Book Co. $1.10.
Cohen, Dr. S. S. A System of Physiologic Therapeutics. Vol. IX. Hydrotherapy, Thermotherapy, Heliotherapy, and Phototherapy. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.
Cotes, Mrs. Everard. Those Delightful Americans. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Croce, B. Estetica come Scienza dell' Espressione e Linguistica Generale. Milan: Remo Sandron. 5 lire.
Dallin, Colonna M. Sketches of Great Painters for Young People. Silver, Burdett & Co. 90c.
Davis, Col. John. History of the Second, Queen's Royal Regiment. Vol. IV., 1800-1837. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co. $10.
Devereux, Mary. Lafitte of Louisiana. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Dubois, E. F. Harvard University Songs. Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.
Eissler, M. The Hydro-Metallurgy of Copper. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.50.
Falt, C. M. Wharf and Fleet: Ballads of the Fishermen of Gloucester. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Foxcroft, H. C. Supplement to Burnet's History of My Own Time. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.
Gilbert, G. K., and Brigham, A. P. An Introduction to Physical Geography. D. Appleton & Co.
Goodwin, J. J. The "Sinker" Stories. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co.
Gregg, Rev. D. The Dictum of Reason on Man's Immortality. New York: E. B. Treat & Co.
Hamilton, Prof. J. H. Savings and Savings Institutions. Macmillan.
Harben, W. N. Abner Daniel. Harpers. $1.50.
Jefferson, Thomas. The Life and Morals of Jesus of Nazareth. N. D. Thompson Pub. Co.
Jordan, Elizabeth G. Tales of Destiny. Harper & Bros. $1.50.
Kinnard, Prof. J. P. Old English Ballads. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Litsey, E. C. The Love Story of Abner Stone. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
Rogers, Alice A. A Waiting Race. The Abbey Press. 50c.
Ségur, Mme. de. Les Malheurs de Sophie. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 45c.
Sizeranne, R. de la. Le Miroir de la Vie. Paris: Hachette. 3.50 fr.
Spalding, Rev. J. L. Religion, Agnosticism, and Education. A. C. McClurg & Co. 80c.
Stone, Gertrude L., and Pickett, M. Grace. Trees in Prose and Poetry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
The Ancestor: A Quarterly Review of County and Family History, Heraldry, and Antiquities. No. 1. April, 1902. 8vo, pp. 262. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Velvin, Ellen. Rataplan, a Rogue Elephant, and Other Stories. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.25.
Verne, Jules. Vingt Mille Lieues sous les Mers. (Abridged by C. Fontaine.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.
Watson, W. Ode on the Coronation of King Edward. John Lane.
White, E. E. Grammar School Algebra. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Wilmot-Buxton, E. M. Makers of Europe: Outlines of European History for the Middle Forms of Schools. London: Methuen & Co. 3s. 6d.

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